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COMPETENCY-BASED LEADERSHIP:

A CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND CASE STUDY

A Dissertation Presented

By

RONALD E. BELL

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

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

Major Subject: EDUCATION

August, 1973

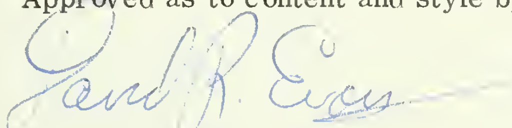
COMPETENCY-BASED LEADERSHIP:
A CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND CASE STUDY

A Dissertation

By

Ronald E. Bell

Approved as to content and style by:



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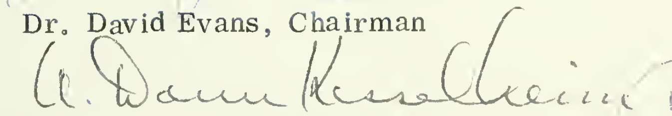

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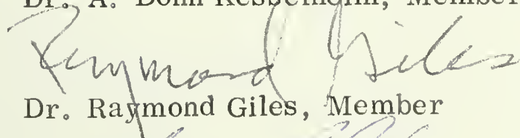

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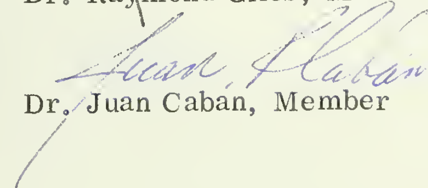

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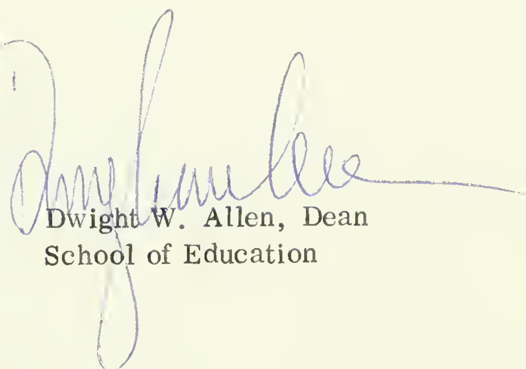

Dwight W. Allen, Dean
School of Education

August, 1973

COMPETENCY-BASED LEADERSHIP: A CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND CASE STUDY
(August, 1973)

RONALD E. BELL

B. M. - University of Michigan, Ann Arbor

M. M. - University of Michigan, Ann Arbor

Directed by: Dr. David Evans

ABSTRACT

This study focuses upon the evolution of a conceptual model for competency-based leadership. It is based upon the experiences of the Sixth Cycle Teacher Corps project undertaken jointly by the University of Massachusetts and the Providence School Department, Providence, Rhode Island, with the assistance of Rhode Island College, also in Providence, Rhode Island.

The project provided a competency-based training program for sixty-eight interns and team leaders in the areas of individual and team teaching, competency-based education, affective education, community-based education, African Studies and curriculum development, as well as other areas of individual interest. It began in July, 1971 and ended in August, 1973. Corpsmembers worked in teams within eight middle schools in Providence, Rhode Island, principally teaching and developing new curricula in African Studies and cross-cultural education. Participants in the project included Black and White Americans with previous experience in Africa (principally through the Peace

Corps), Black Americans with no prior African experience but very much concerned with the role of African Studies in American schools, and Black Africans, principally from non-independent areas of the African continent.

The study begins by describing the reasons for and limitations of the study, reviewing the state of the art with regard to competency-based approaches to education, and by summarizing the primary antecedent conditions among the project's institutional partnership which affected program planning. This section is followed by an analysis of the management assumptions and strategies selected by the planners in the proposal submitted for the project. The second major section of this study reviews the principal research literature about management theory and leadership models, and discusses their implications for educational leadership.

The third section of the study analyzes the strategies utilized by the project for building institutional partnerships and negotiating institutional conflict, and presents a typology of institutional conflict. Particular attention is paid to the emergent roles of competence and consensus as prime dimensions of project leadership, and the project's problems in the areas of goal-setting, assessment and evaluation.

The final section of the study sets forth a conceptual model for competency-based leadership. Included are a hierarchy of leadership environments, the roles and definitions of competence and consensus, the essential dimensions of a

competency-based leadership model, and a discussion of the implications for educational managers in implementing such a model.

By sharing a conceptual model and case study, the author hopes to offer educational managers a unique alternative to traditional management systems, particularly educational managers interested in pursuing competency-based learning systems and/or adaptive modes of education.

PREFACE

In September of 1970, I was requested by the Center for International Education, School of Education, University of Massachusetts to coordinate the development of a proposal to the Teacher Corps, U. S. Office of Education, in Washington, D. C. The development of this proposal involved three months of discussions and planning with two State Departments of Education, three teacher training colleges, two large urban school districts, the Model Cities agency, and various representatives of community-based social action agencies. The proposal was submitted November 30, 1970 and approved for implementation in Providence, Rhode Island on March 15, 1971.

The project ran from July, 1971 to August, 1973, and provided a competency-based training program to sixty-eight interns and team leaders. The complexity of the project was evident from its efforts to experiment with new ways of training and utilizing urban teachers in their schools and communities, and to promote institutional change within both the teacher training institutions and the local school district. Contributing to this complexity were a broad array of project goals and the physical separation between the two principal grant recipients: one in Providence, Rhode Island and the other in Amherst, Massachusetts.

I had little previous experience with educational planning for American school systems. The strategies contained in the project's proposal largely

reflected my experience with the Africa Region of the U. S. Peace Corps assisting the development and training of educational programs for various African countries, and the experiences of the participants in the Fourth Cycle Teacher Corps project in Worcester, Massachusetts. It has been interesting for me to see, in retrospect, the extent to which the problems of educational planning and teacher training are similar, whether in Africa or in the United States.

This study is an outgrowth of the project's implementation, with special emphasis on the project's attempts to develop a competency-based approach to educational leadership. There is a particular effort made to describe the project's experiences from a managerial point of view. With its scope and complexity, the project could have supported many different studies, but my interest in the question of educational leadership for adaptive modes of education led me to select a managerial perspective for my own inquiry.

The first part of the study outlines the basic reasons for and limitations of the study, provides a state of the art assessment of competency-based education, describes the principal antecedent conditions among the institutional partnership affecting initial planning, and reviews the major strategies adopted by that partnership for the project's intervention, management and training systems. The second part of the study reviews the basic research literature about management theory and leadership models, and discusses some of their implications for educational leadership.

The third part of the study analyzes the project's actual management strategies for building institutional partnerships and negotiating institutional conflict, presents a typology of institutional conflict, reviews the emergent roles of competence and consensus as prime dimensions of project leadership, and describes some of the project's problems with goal-setting, assessment and evaluation. The study concludes with a presentation of a conceptual model for competency-based leadership, its essential dimensions, and its implications for educational managers.

That this study exists at all is the result of the contributions and support of many other individuals. By far the greatest debt is owed to William Tutman, the project's director. His views of leadership and responsibility, and sense of integrity and humanity, profoundly affected the project's implementation and my own personal growth in many areas. Much of the conceptual basis for competency-based approaches to educational leadership derive from his thinking and stimulation. Another large debt is owed to the participants of the Sixth Cycle Teacher Corps project themselves, for without their willingness to struggle with and improve upon new ideas for educational leadership this study would have little significance.

I would also like to acknowledge the support and assistance of certain others whose contributions not only improved the study but also made its formulation enjoyable and of personal worth:

Dr. Mary Alice Wilson - for her professional integrity, charm and friendship.

Mr. Herbert Williams - for the example he provided as an educational leader.

Dr. David Evans - for his constant support and assistance throughout my doctoral program.

Dr. Kenneth Blanchard - whose introduction to management theory was of special significance to me.

Mr. John Bing - whose colleaguial interest in cross-cultural management, and personal example, was of continual value to me.

Members of the project's Management Team - for what they taught me about consensus decision-making, and about myself.

Members of my dissertation committee: Dr. David Evans, Dr. A. Donn Kesselheim, and Dr. Raymond Giles - for their constant assistance and support.

Mrs. Pauline Ashby - for her personal interest and care in preparing the manuscript.

And, of course, for the continual affection and support of my family, without whose understanding and sacrifice this study would not have been completed.

While recognizing the contributions of many, the study reflects my own perceptions of events. I bear full responsibility for these perceptions knowing full well that the perceptions of others may legitimately differ from my own.

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CHAPTER I

DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY
AND PRIMARY ANTECEDENT CONDITIONS

Description of the Study

Reasons for the Study

> The deepest criticism which can be made of the present system of teacher education is that it does not touch the life of its students, it does not arouse in them a delight in what they are doing, it does not engage them in action through which their own lives may be fulfilled.[1]

The purpose of this study is to present the evolution of a competency-based leadership model, describe its major interactions with the University of Massachusetts-Providence, R. I., Sixth Cycle Teacher Corps project, and analyze its resultant managerial implications. The product of the study will be a conceptualization of a competency-based leadership model, elements of which have been implemented and assessed by the participants of the Teacher Corps project. The model will be explored as an alternative to present managerial practices consistent with the implications of recent managerial research.

The significance of this undertaking is indicated by the following prevalent conditions in teacher training and educational management:

1. The role of competence in leadership theory has been confined to a sub-dimension of the concept of personal power.[2] The study will focus upon competence as a major dimension of leadership.

2. The goal-setting and decision-making processes for teacher training programs are still overwhelmingly based on authoritarian, or position power, assumptions by individuals or institutions. The Teacher Corps project to be reviewed shared goal-setting and decision-making with learner-participants, including the identification and prioritization of program content, budget allocations and staff selection/monitoring procedures.

3. Humanistic educators and competency-based educators tend to see themselves at opposite ends of a teacher training spectrum. The study will attempt to provide a conceptual framework within which educational managers can work effectively with both groups and their respective philosophies.

4. Many of the institutional conflicts in a cooperative, field-based teacher training enterprise result from inabilities to conceptualize and/or implement effective intervention and conflict-resolution strategies. The evolution and implementation of a competency-based leadership model in the Teacher Corps project resulted in strategies useful to the introduction of innovation into traditional settings.

The last ten years have seen the rapid growth of performance-based teacher training models. Many of these models have been extended into competency-based educational systems. The field of competency-based education is sufficiently new that there is little agreement among those specializing in the field as to what it is. However, the predominant assumptions of competency-based education are (1) that all learning objectives are public and known to both the teacher and student, (2) that all learning outcomes can be specified behaviorally in the cognitive, affective or psychomotor domains, (3) assessment ought to be criterion-referenced rather than norm-referenced, and (4) learning ought not to be time-based; that is, the focus should be on achieving specified levels of competence rather than completing specified periods of time, e.g., semesters, quarters. By implication, these assumptions have resulted in the development of methodological approaches by competency-based educators which call for modularization, individualization, personalization and, in some cases, the

sequencing of instruction. Critics of competency-based education have challenged the assumption that all learning can be specified behaviorally. Humanistic psychologists in particular have cited their concern over the possible spector of a totally predetermined educational system to which students must behaviorally conform.

One view, however, is the implicit logic and rationale for a competency-based approach to education contain some exciting and meritorious implications, but the present operationalization of the competency-based system is still somewhat narrow and cimplete. Years ago, John Dewey cautioned that "the real danger is in perpetuating the past under forms that claim to be new but are only disguises of the old."[3] In this regard, efforts by the Federal government and educational institutions to push competency-based education models have largely ignored the following question: In a competency-based educational environment, should not competence of the participating individuals be a prime dimension in determining the nature of educational leadership, the nature of the decision-making environment, the identification and specification of what is to be learned, and the determination of which learning styles are best for given individuals?

The majority of competency-based education programs take place within conventional management systems and maintain the presumed authority role of teachers over students, despite recent research findings in management theory and the basic rationale for competency-based education itself. Thus a basic

inconsistency of competency-based approaches to education have been their implementation and utilization in educational systems in which (1) the leadership is not explicitly based upon competence and (2) the formulation of what is to be learned does not explicitly recognize the competence of learners to participate in the decision-making process.

It is common in educational circles today to hear that there is a critical need for alternative models of management which educational managers can use to achieve greater clarity, effectiveness and conflict resolution, and yet are acceptable to educational managers themselves. The practice of educational management has drawn its support and rationale from three primary sources: (1) the findings of research in the fields of leadership theory, organizational development and group dynamics, (2) the confusion, competition and contradiction of pedagogical, psychological and political goals for education in the United States, and hence for its schools, administrators and students, and (3) the practical realities of striving for survival and progress on the day to day job, finding what seems to work in a given situation if only on a trial and error basis. The result has been confusion rather than clarity, frustration rather than effectiveness, and coercion rather than cooperation. Complicating the tasks of educational managers are the increasing pressures from public, private and governmental sectors for accountability and achievement, concepts which are often defined differently by different groups.

A review of theory and research in leadership concepts and organizational management clearly suggests there is a need in the educational environment:

1. To acknowledge the situationality of effectiveness in differing leadership styles.
2. To develop more effective conflict resolution mechanisms.
3. To rely more on technical competence and knowledge as a source of influence, rather than that derived through position or status.
4. To recognize more explicitly the different outcome characteristics of coercive and participative change cycles in teachers, students and administrators.
5. To develop diagnostic procedures of greater accuracy in determining the intervening variables in educational decision environments.

Limitations of the Study

The study is a descriptive and analytical view of the development and implementation of a Sixth Cycle Teacher Corps project, with a focus upon the leadership theories and management models utilized.

There is a growing professional viewpoint (Stake,[4] Guba,[5] Stufflebeam,[6] Scriven[7]) that traditional research paradigms are not adequate for undertaking

evaluative research in education. The traditional experimental design is prediction-oriented, while educational evaluators are moving to more decision-oriented research. The experimental design attempts to control variables in educational environments where these variables operate freely; thus findings are not even generalizable to the real world conditions in which the experiment took place. Stake states:

> As soon as we exercise a reasonable degree of experimental control, as soon as we provide some variability in the program and hold other aspects constant, the product is altered. Many an educator finds the program being researched _no_ longer the program he wanted to know about.[8]

Stake concludes his argument by stating:

> There are two approaches. We have a fundamental choice; to be scientific, to generalize . . . to find out _why_; or to be descriptive, to be delimited. . . to find out _what_.[9]

This study chooses the latter alternative.

The major limitation of the study is that it seeks to describe accurately the evolution and implementation of a leadership model within a single project, elements of which may be transferable to other educational management environments, rather than the formulation of a model with wide generalizability. Within this limitation the study analyzes an intensive teacher training environment over a period of two and a half years in which many current and new concepts of learning and teacher training were implemented, and in which the traditional role of educational managers received critical and ongoing scrutiny.

Background of the Study

The Teacher Corps project proposed a cooperative venture by the School of Education, University of Massachusetts and the Providence School Department, Providence, Rhode Island, with assistance from Rhode Island College, Providence, Rhode Island.[10] It was designed to include 46 graduate interns and eight team leaders who would (1) work approximately 60 percent of their time in eight Providence middle schools, teaching Social Studies and developing an African Studies curriculum, (2) spend about 20 percent of their time working with community-based education projects outside the schools, and (3) pursue in their remaining time a Masters in Education degree through the University of Massachusetts. Thirteen additional interns were added in the second year of the project to replace those who had completed their programs early.

The program included, consistent with Teacher Corps agency requirements, the use of interns and team leaders in a team teaching approach to the classroom and the design of an inservice program which was modularized and competency-based. Federal funds allocated to the project slightly exceeded one millions dollars. The grant periods and operational schedules of the project were as follows:

Period	Start	End
Planning Period	3/15/71	7/7/71
Preservice Training	7/8/71	9/3/71
First Inservice Year	9/4/71	6/30/72
Intervening Summer	7/1/72	9/1/72
Second Inservice Year	9/2/72	6/15/73
Terminal Summer	6/16/73	8/11/73

The University of Massachusetts-Providence, R.I. project was unique among those projects usually funded by the Teacher Corps agency. It was the only Social Studies project approved by the Teacher Corps in the 1971 (Sixth) cycle, and was only the agency's second effort in the field of African Studies curriculum development. The corpsmembers who participated in the project Black and White Americans with previous experience in Africa (largely through the Peace Corps), black Americans with no prior African experience but who were vitally concerned about the role of African Studies in American schools, and Black Africans (largely from non-independent African nations). The addition of non-U.S. citizens was a most unusual feature of the project for the Teacher Corps agency to approve. The project was the agency's only involvement in a venture where the institution of higher education (IHE) was in one state and the local education agency (LEA) was in another. Also unique was the project's true joint-venture management model. Usually, the IHE served as the prime

contractor and the LEA as the sub-contractor for a Teacher Corps project, with different responsibilities and functions assigned to each. The true joint-venture management model minimized these differences in the interest of building a management team concerned with the full range of project responsibilities. Furthermore, this management included a role for Rhode Island College in an effort to develop support resources which were both onsite and ongoing. Last, the project rejected the usual Teacher Corps intervention strategies, which were long-range and incremental in nature, in favor of a high-impact strategy of two years duration.

The major foci of the project were:

1. The placement of eight teams of corpsmembers in eight middle schools in Providence, Rhode Island which were

   a. to develop curricular materials in African Studies;

   b. to experiment with the concepts of competency-based education, modularized instruction;

   a affective education, human relations techniques, individualized instruction and team teaching;

   c. to work with affiliate (cooperating) teachers and social studies department chairmen to integrate the educational efforts of corpsmembers with

those of regular school department personnel; and,

d. to identify and work with community-based education projects within the Providence communities.

2. The development of a graduate level preservice/inservice continuum for corpsmembers which was competency-based, modularized and designed to meet the certification requirements of both Rhode Island and Massachusetts, as well as the professional interests of corpsmembers themselves.

3. The formation of an institutional partnership involving the Teacher Corps, the Providence School Department, Rhode Island College and the University of Massachusetts to bring about institutional change in the training and utilization of urban middle school teachers.

Primary Antecedent Conditions

This portion of the chapter will review the developmental stage of competency-based education concepts just prior to the formulation of the proposal for a Teacher Corps project, and review and summarize the principle restraining and facilitating forces of the Teacher Corps agency, the School of Education at the University of Massachusetts, the Providence School Department, and Rhode Island College.

Competency-Based Education: State of the Art

Since the concept of competency-based education is so central to and pervasive throughout the University of Massachusetts-Providence Sixth Cycle project, it is necessary to comment on the status of its conceptual development at the time the project proposal was being developed. A report published in 1971 by the Committee on Performance-Based Teacher Education, American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education,[11] attempts to clarify the key concepts of performance-based teacher education programs and to give some historical basis for their emergence. The report points out that the term performance-based is itself the focus of disagreement.

> Some authorities prefer "competency-based teacher education," suggesting that it is a more comprehensive concept. In determining competency, according to Weber and Cooper, three types of criteria may be used: (1) knowledge criteria, to assess the cognitive understandings of the student; (2) performance criteria, to assess the teaching behavior of the student; and (3) product criteria, to assess the student's ability to teach by examining the achievement of pupils taught by the student. The term "performance-based" tends to focus attention on criterion #2, although proponents of performance-based teacher education do not mean so to limit the concept.
>
> The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education Committee on Performance-Based Teacher Education has chosen to retain the term "performance-based" in the belief that the adjective itself is relatively unimportant if there is consensus on what elements are essential to distinguish performance- or competency-based programs from other programs.[12]

Furthermore, the report states there is no satisfactory description of performance-based teacher education beyond the preliminary definition:

> Much traditional teacher education can best be described as experience-based. That is, it assumes that if a student, planning to teach experiences a specific number of courses in specified areas of study and undergoes some kind of student teaching experience, he is ready to begin teaching. Such programs are performance-based only insofar as the required grade-point average can be considered a performance measure. They do not specify what prospective teachers need to be able to do or accomplish.
>
> By contrast, in performance-based programs performance goals are specified, and agreed to, in rigorous detail in advance of instruction. The student must either be able to demonstrate his ability to promote desireable learning or exhibit behaviors known to promote it. He is held accountable, not for passing grades, but for attaining a given level of competency in performing the essential tasks of teaching; the training institution is itself held accountable for producing able teachers. Emphasis is on demonstrated product or output.[13]

The Committee's report does not offer an exhaustive analysis of the historical context of performance-based teacher education, but does offer a number of conditions which were considered important to the rise of performance-based teacher education. Summarized, they reflect in general societal conditions and instructional responses to them characteristic of the 1960's:

1. The realization that little or no progress was being made in narrowing wide inequality gaps led to increasing governmental attention to racial, ethnic, and socio-economic minority needs, particularly educational ones.

2. The claim that traditional teacher education programs were not producing people equipped to teach minority

group children and youth effectively. . . pointed directly to the need for reform in teacher education.

3. The claim of minority group youth that there should be alternative routes to professional status. . . raised serious questions about the suitability of generally recognized teacher education programs.

4. Federal money became available for a variety of exploratory and experimental programs, including such projects as the ten elementary education models funded by the U. S. Office of Education and investigations of performance-based certification by state departments of education.

5. Economic conditions. . . led taxpayers to demand visible dividend on their investments in education. . . resulted in demands for accountability at every level, including teacher education.

6. Technological development. . . made available new resources for teaching and learning and threaten to alter the teaching role in fundamental ways. Business and industry have entered the education field, not only operating education programs for their own purposes but preparing and marketing new learning tools and techniques.

7. New concepts of management (e.g., the systems approach) were pioneered by government and industry. In education they were used in the planning, design, and operation of more efficient, product-oriented programs.

8. Confronted with the ultimate question of the meaning of life in American society, youths. . . pressed for greater relevance in their education and a voice in determining what its goals should be.[14]

A concurrent dimension important to committee members was that the education profession itself had matured. The report cites the greater sophistication of evaluation and assessment techniques in education, the studies by Ryans

on teacher characteristics, the development of observational category systems such as Flander's Interaction Analysis, greater flexibility in programmatic approaches to teacher preparation, a shifting away from college entrance requirements to exit requirements, and the greater involvement of students in the administration of colleges and universities.[15] However, in spite of these societal and professional developments, the report states,

> It should be emphasized that the response of teacher education to societal change has been scattered, partial, sporadic, and tentative.[16]

Models and definitions of performance-based or competency-based education abound among educators, as do disagreement over their essential characteristics. The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education Committee on Performance Based Teacher Education, attempted to articulate essential elements about which there appeared to be general agreement, implied characteristics, related and desirable characteristics. These are summarized as follows:[17]

A. Essential Elements

1. Competencies (knowledge, skills, behaviors) to be demonstrated by the student are derived from explicit conceptions of teacher roles, stated so as to make possible assessment of a student's behavior in relation to specific competencies, and made public in advance.

2. Criteria to be employed in assessing competencies are based upon, and in harmony with, specified competencies, explicit in stating expected levels of mastery under specified conditions, and made public in advance.

3. Assessment of the student's competency uses his performance as the primary source of evidence, takes into account evidence of the student's knowledge relevant to planning for, analyzing, interpreting, or evaluating situations or behavior, and strives for objectivity.

4. The student's rate of progress through the program is determined by demonstrated competency rather than by time or course completion.

5. The instructional program is intended to facilitate the development and evaluation of the student's achievement of competencies specified.

B. <u>Implied Characteristics</u>

1. Instruction is individualized and personalized.

2. The learning experience of the individual is guided by feedback.

3. The program as a whole is systemic.

4. The emphasis is on exit, not on entrance, requirements.
5. Instruction is modularized.
6. The student is held accountable for performance, completing the preparation program when, and only when, he demonstrates the competencies that have been identified as requisite for a particular professional role.

C. Related and Desireable Characteristics

1. The program is field-centered.
2. There is a broad base for decision making (including such groups as college/university faculty, students, and public school personnel).
3. The materials and experiences provided to students focus upon concepts, skills, knowledges which can be learned in a specific instructional setting.
4. Both the teachers and the students (i.e., prospective teachers) are designers of the instructional system.
5. It is open and regenerative.
6. Preparation for a professional role is viewed as continuing throughout the career of the professional rather than being merely preservice in character.

7. Instruction moves from mastery of specific techniques toward diagnosis and selective utilization of such techniques in combination; that is, role integration takes place.

Much of the motivation for performance-based or competency-based teacher training efforts seems to have originated outside the teaching training institutions themselves. The competing demands of relevance, flexibility, accountability and effectiveness have increased the pressures on these teacher training institutions. As the pressure continues, the American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education sees the following results:

> Much greater program flexibility, permitting students to progress at their own rate, with many alternatives and options;
>
> Greater attention to specific skill training;
>
> Greater congruity between objectives and the evidence admitted for evaluation purposes;
>
> Better rationalization of faculty decisions and demands affecting students; and
>
> Development of new facilities and technology required by performance-based teacher education.[18]

A host of other implications become immediately apparent: (1) a possible separation of teacher certification from the process of completing degree programs, (2) the specification by non-teacher training institutions of acceptable criteria for teacher training products (_e.g._, teachers), (3) the prescription and

evaluation of affective (including value) objectives in behavioral terms, (4) the replacement of a communal or society-oriented curriculum with one which is highly individualized, and (5) the need to establish and validate new criteria for measurement.

The AACTE's committee reached several conclusions about the status of performance-based teacher education programs. The major ones are summarized below:

> 1. . . . while performance-based instruction eliminates waste in the learning process through clarity in definition of goals, it can be applied only to learning in which the objectives sought are susceptible of definition in advance in behavioral terms. Thus it is difficult to apply when the outcomes sought are complex and subtle, and particularly when they are affective or attitudinal in character.
>
> 2. At this time performance-based teacher education is at a stage of development that would tend to be applicable in some of the knowledge and skills areas. Agreement can probably be reached in those areas which have been hypothesized as having the highest probability for affecting student behavior.
>
> 3. . . . no group is yet ready to say how much of a preparation program must be performance-based before it is indeed a performance-based teacher education program.
>
> 4. The competencies that are easier to describe and to evaluate are likely to dominate a competency-based or performance-based teacher education system when it is first inaugurated. . . . Unless one is careful, knowledge objectives and very simple skill objectives are likely to predominate in a performance-based teacher education program.

5. A special effort will be necessary to broaden competency- and performance-based teacher education. It may be desireable to emphasize more divergent, creative, and personal experiences as best we can during the first years when such programs are being installed. As examples of such emphases we might cite: . . . encouraging a wide-angled, existentialist vision of his learning experience that will enable him to remain open to unpredicted learning outcomes. . . .

6. The consortium arrangement almost inevitably associated with performance-based teacher education (e.g., community, university, public school, state department of education, and teacher association participation in policy setting, program planning, implementation, evaluation, and revision, causes many management problems. A consortium requires new power and policy alignments and new financial arrangements whose political implication are at least as critical as the professional.

7. The performance-based teacher education movement could deteriorate into a power struggle over who controls what.[19]

While the AACTE's Committee on Performance-Based Teacher Education provides an excellent overview, it does so within its adopted framework of performance-based education; that is, there is little difference between performance-based and competency-based as descriptive terms. However, the development work at the University of Massachusetts was undertaken within the framework of a competency-based model considered by its developers to have broader and more significant implications. It is both fair and accurate to say that the question of which competency-based education model was most applicable to the proposed

Teacher Corps project was far from clear as proposal development got underway.

Teacher Corps

The Teacher Corps is an agency within the Bureau of Educational Personnel Development, Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D. C. It was created by Title V-B of the Higher Education Act of 1965. Its purpose, as stated in the legislation, is:

> To strengthen the educational opportunities available to children in areas having concentrations of low income families and to encourage colleges and universities to broaden their programs of teacher preparation by --
>
> 1. Attracting and training qualified teachers who will be made available to local educational agencies for teaching in such areas:
>
> 2. attracting and training inexperienced teacher-interns who will be made available for teaching and inservice training to local educational agencies in such areas in teams led by an experienced teacher.
>
> 3. attracting volunteers to serve as part-time tutors or full time instructional assistants in programs carried out by local educational agencies and institutions of higher education serving such areas, and
>
> 4. attracting and training educational personnel to provide relevant remedial, basic, and secondary educational training, including literacy and communication skills, for juvenile delinquents, youth offenders, and adult criminal offenders.[20]

To achieve these purposes, the Teacher Corps recruits and trains college graduates and upperclassmen to be teachers in schools that serve children from low-income families. Also, the Teacher Corps is intended to encourage and promote changes within the institutions which educate children and those which prepare teachers. Grants are awarded of one to two years duration to those institutions of higher education (IHE) and local educational agencues (LEA) whose proposals to work together in pursuit of these goals are favorably reviewed by the National Teacher Corps office.

The first step in applying for a grant from the Teacher Corps is the submission of a concept paper jointly prepared by the IHE and the LEA. The concept paper outlines the general focus of the proposed project and the goals of the IHE and LEA in undertaking the venture. The University of Massachusetts and the Providence School Department submitted such a concept paper June 30, 1970,[21] which was approved by the Teacher Corps in August, 1970. This approval took the form of an invitation by the national office to submit a full proposal for a Sixth Cycle project to begin during the summer of 1971. This writer was not involved in the development of the concept paper. However, upon arrival at the University of Massachusetts in September, 1970, the writer agreed to coordinate the development and writing of the Sixth Cycle proposal itself.

In October, 1970, the National Teacher Corps distributed a set of guidelines which all proposal developers were required to use. Thus some of the management assumptions and strategies set forth in the proposal were

dictated by these guidelines. These requirements were many and comprehensive. Their impact upon the total design of the Sixth Cycle proposal was so great that they are set forth as Appendix C. The major requirements included institutional change goals at both the IHE and LEA levels, a preservice/inservice training program based upon a competency-based format and team-teaching, an active role by the community in the project, and an internship for trainees including teaching in the schools, working in the community and receiving university instruction.

Once a proposal is approved the proposal and subsequent amendments become project agreement by which the project must operate. Grants are awarded to both the IHE (usually the prime contractor) and the LEA, most often in accord with the following time frame:

1. Preservice Training (IHE Grant only): Provides costs of preservice training for corpsmembers' salaries/ stipends, IHE administrative support and any LEA costs.
2. First Inservice Year (IHE Grant): Provides cost of inservice instruction for corpsmembers, and IHE administrative support. (LEA Grant): Provides up to 90% of costs for corpsmembers' salaries/stipends, and all of LEA administrative support costs.
3. Intervening Summer - Same as preservice.
4. Second Inservice Year - Same as first inservice year.

Within a formula based grant ceiling the IHE receives costs plus 8 percent overhead, while the LEA receives up to 90 percent of corpsmember costs and 100 percent of all other costs but no overhead.[22] The usual staffing pattern approved by the Teacher Corps is:

IHE Director - up to 100 percent time

Program Development Specialist - 50 percent time (coordinates preservice and inservice training program)

Secretary - up to 100 percent time

LEA School Coordinator - 10 percent time for each Teacher Corps team

Community Coordinator - 10 percent time for each Teacher Corps Team

Secretary - 10 percent time for each Teacher Corps team

The Teacher Corps usually funds graduate programs or undergraduate programs for those who do not have teacher certification. Special programs with particular emphases have also been funded for migrant programs, Bureau of Indian Affairs schools, delinquent and offender populations (prisons and rehabilitation camps), and special programs in vocational education, early childhood education, career training for veterans, and for other persons seeking second careers.[23]

There is a quota for States based upon pupil enrollment specified in Teacher Corps legislation. For States whose quotas are too small to permit

viable projects (considered by Teacher Corps/Washington to be about 35 corps-members), allocations may not be available each year. Also, achievement of the principles set forth in the legislation takes precedence over distribution of programs; and, many States may not request Teacher Corps assistance within a given year.[24]

Since the Teacher Corps is designed to serve children in areas of high concentration of poverty (defined to be families with an annual income of $3,000 or less, or families receiving Aid to Dependent Children), the LEA must meet the following criteria:

> No school shall be served where the percentage of pupils from low-income homes falls below the average of the national poverty percentages; that average is 18 percent.
>
> No school shall be served where the percentage of pupils from low-income homes falls below the State's average. (This must be verified by the State Department of Education in giving approval to any program.)
>
> No school shall be served where the percentage of pupils from low-income homes falls below the school district average. If there are schools within a district where 50 percent of the pupils come from low-income families, such schools must be served before Corps-members can be assigned to schools with less than 50 percent poverty.
>
> Exceptions to the above criteria are possible in special situations, such as a local school district which is employing busing or some other method of desegregating schools, or in secondary schools which draw enrollment from feeder elementary schools eligible under the poverty criteria listed above.

All school districts must have on record a statement of compliance with the provisions of Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964.[25]

A college or university, to be eligible for a Teacher Corps project, must:

Be legally authorized within its State to provide a program of education leading to a Master's or baccalaureate degree, whichever is called for in the project proposal.

Be accredited by an association or agency recognized by the Commissioner of Education. (See Higher Education Directory, 1968-69Part 3, OE-50000-69.)

Have the faculty and other resources necessary to conduct an effective program.

Have on record a statement of compliance with the provisions of Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964.[26]

The proposal itself must be written in accord with the agency's proposal guidelines. The main components of the proposal include the following chapters:

I. Proper Proposal Summary Forms (provides statistical data and confirms eligibility).

II. Objectives for Institutional Change and Systematic Plan for Teaching Objectives.

III. Program Summary.

IV. Personnel Involved in the Development of the Proposal.

V. Competency-Based Teacher Education and Certification.

VI. Team Leader Training and Responsibilities.

VII. Preservice Program

VIII. University Inservice Program.

IX. Internship in the School and Community.

X. Corpsmember Recruitment, Selection and Evaluation.

XI. Staff.

XII. Program Evaluation and Research.[27]

School of Education, University of Massachusetts

The School of Education had four major characteristics which indicated considerable compatibility between its mode of operation and the goals of the Teacher Corps. First, the School had made a public commitment to the development of alternative teacher training programs. Second, it had developed in 1968 a Model Elementary Teacher Education Program (METEP)[28] which focused upon performance criteria as a major planning principle, a preservice-inservice training continuum, and a systems conceptualization for its implementation. This had been followed in January 1970 by a feasibility study on the METEP report.[29] Third, its Center for International Education was operating a Fourth Cycle Teacher Corps project in Worcester, Massachusetts. And fourth, the Dean of the School of Education and the Director of the Fourth Cycle Project at the University of Massachusetts seemed to have excellent rapport with the National Teacher Corps administration.

A careful review of the two METEP reports cited above indicated an impressive effort to conceptualize and articulate a performance-based teacher training model. However, it was unclear whether or not the School of Education

would continue to receive the Federal funds considered by the school necessary to impelcment major portions of the METEP model. (It subsequently did not.) With the beginning of the Sixth Cycle programs, the National Teacher Corps not only required all new projects to design and implement competency-based teacher training systems, but also assumed an institutional agenda of formally urging participating IHE's to adopt the competency-based model as the way to train teachers. The Dean made quite clear, however, that the competency-based model was legitimate to the School of Education only as an alternative, not as an ultimate model for all teacher training.[30] The competency-based model, a characteristic common to both METEP and Teacher Corps agendas, resulted in close cooperation between the writer and METEP representatives in developing the proposal for a Sixth Cycle project. Furthermore, the METEP model, which resided in the Teacher Education Center of the School of Education, provided an institutional repository for any successful competency-based education components resulting from the proposed project.

A Fourth Cycle Teacher Corps project had begun at the University of Massachusetts in September of 1969, and was scheduled for completion in December of 1970. It involved 25 former Peace Corps volunteers as interns (all but one from Africa) and several team leaders working in grades K-12 in Worcester, Massachusetts. The project's primary objective was to develop African Studies curriculum materials for integration into established subject content areas (English, science, history, music, etc.) throughout the Worcester School system.

The presence of this project provided valuable data for the development of the Sixth Cycle proposal, particularly by providing formative evaluations of project management, placement and use of corpsmember teams, curriculum development, selection and use of former Peace Corps Volunteers, the preservice/inservice training design, and an operational model of the partnership between the National Teacher Corps, the IHE (University of Massachusetts), the LEA (Worcester School Department), representatives of the Worcester communities, and corpsmembers.

Providence School Department

Providence, Rhode Island had received one of the first Teacher Corps projects (First Cycle) at a time when the agency was still in the process of deciding what it wanted to be. This project was characterized by various administrators within the Providence School Department as a "bust"[31] and a "complete disaster,"[32] and the project had been cancelled out prior to its scheduled completion. In short, the Teacher Corps had left a bad taste in the thoughts of some local school department personnel. The reasons for the first project's poor showing, as articulated,[33] included:

1. lack of clear Teacher Corps goals (nationally).
2. lack of clear project goals.
3. no involvement by school principals or teachers in deciding whether or not they wanted the project.

4. little involvement by school department personnel in planning or implementing the preservice training program.

5. poor project management.

The writer was also advised Rhode Island College had been the IHE responsible for directing the First Cycle project, and that they would not look kindly on the University of Massachusetts negotiating for another Teacher Corps project in Providence.

The Providence School Department itself had several characteristics which were important to consider in planning a Teacher Corps project:

1. The School Department was not fiscally autonomous. It was a line item in the Mayor's annual city budget; thus the School Department did not really control its own fiscal operations and planning.

2. The local teachers union was very strong and had promoted several strikes in recent years to further the interests of teachers.

3. School principals, supervisors, and other administrators had their own union, separate from the teachers' union, to further their interests.

4. The School Department had a history of short-term superintendents who never seemed to last very long.

5. The superintendency was vacant at the time planning negotiations were underway, and was being filled by the Deputy Superintendent in an acting capacity.
6. The Providence schools did not begin formal desegregation until the elementary schools were desegregated in 1967-68. The desegregation of the middle schools, focal point for the Teacher Corps project, would coincide with the project's arrival in the fall of 1971.
7. There was considerable antagonism between the school department and various community associations and organizations.
8. The Providence School Department had recently completed a revision of its African Studies curriculum in conjunction with Rhode Island College and was eager to see the Teacher Corps project as building upon this foundation rather than repudiating it.
9. Middle school principals had an extremely dominant role in determining what went on in their respective buildings, both instructionally and administratively.
10. The strongest interest in a Teacher Corps project was that held by the Social Studies Supervisor and the

Director of Curriculum for the Providence School Department.

11. There was a strong desire expressed by Providence School Department representatives to have a major, if not determining, voice in what the project would do and how it would do it.

12. There was a similarly strong desire expressed by the Director of Curriculum not to offend Rhode Island College by working with the University of Massachusetts, and that this was a situation in need of some kind of resolution.

In the eight middle schools themselves, white students were in the majority in all cases. Minority, or non-white, students formed about twenty percent of the middle school population. A review of the enrollment data for the 1970-71 school year also showed a surprising percentage of middle school students receiving welfare aid.[34] It was the intent of the school desegregation plan to place no more than thirty percent or less than ten percent non-white students in each of the eight middle schools.[35] While the statistics below indicated this was essentially the case in 1970-71, projected figures for subsequent years had been expected to alter these profiles considerably by increasing the minority populations in only three or four of the eight middle schools.

TABLE 1

PROVIDENCE MIDDLE SCHOOL ENROLLMENT DATA--1970/71: RACIAL COMPOSITION AND WELFARE RECIPIENTS

Middle School	Enrollment	% White	% Black	% Other	% Welfare
Gilbert Stuart	914	68.2	30.0	1.8	81.2
Roger Williams	709	68.8	30.2	1.0	61.2
Samuel Bridgham	600	75.0	25.0	0.0	55.3
Oliver Perry	975	90.0	10.0	0.0	52.4
Nathanael Greene	870	77.7	22.1	0.2	42.9
George West	1057	88.0	12.0	0.0	30.2
Nathan Bishop	775	72.2	27.7	0.1	27.7
Esek Hopkins	700	84.0	16.0	0.0	22.5

Rhode Island College

Rhode Island College has been the major supplier of teachers to the Providence School Department in recent years, and the institution most involved with the school department's teacher inservice education programs. A moderately sized public general college, it is located in Providence and as of September, 1970, it had 3,800 full-time and part-time undergraduate and 2,600 full-time and part-time graduate students.[36] Rhode Island College is state supported and coeducational, and claims its greatest influence to be in the area of public education as it is the state's largest single source of teachers and administrators.

Since Rhode Island College had been the prime contractor for the unsuccessful First Cycle project in Providence (1966), there was considerable sensitivity about and reluctance to the idea of another Teacher Corps project involving the University of Massachusetts. Some of this initial reaction took the form of informal complaints by Rhode Island College administrators to Providence School Department administrators about the school department's willingness to talk seriously with out-of-state colleges, particularly the University of Massachusetts, and the school department's failure to inform Rhode Island College about such negotiations.

At the same time, however, it was locally known that the then President of Rhode Island College, Dr. Joseph Kauffman, was a personal friend of Mr. Richard Graham, then Director of the National Teacher Corps, and that they had expressed some interest to one another about another Teacher Corps project

for Providence. There was also some interest among the teacher education faculty at Rhode Island College in competency-based education and its implications for the training of teachers.

Summary of Restraining and Facilitating Forces

Clearly the management assumptions and strategies utilized in the development of the Sixth Cycle proposal could not be divorced from the antecedent conditions within which planning took place. The following table summarizes the major restraining and facilitating forces present within these antecedent conditions of the planning environment.

Thus before serious planning for the project proposal could get underway, it was first necessary to have some understanding of the antecedent conditions which significantly affected planning options and alternatives. Chapter II will review how these conditions were actually incorporated into the development of the project proposal.

TABLE 2

SUMMARY OF RESTRAINING AND FACILITATING FORCES WITHIN THE INSTITUTIONAL PARTNERSHIP

Institution	Restraining	Facilitating
I. Teacher Corps	Proposal guidelines issued very late, many required procedures, some not applicable to local situation.	Comperehensive statement of Teacher Corps agency expectations through proposal guidelines.
	Proposed development time span very short--about 9 weeks.	Teacher Corps agency pleased with Worcester project, and has good relationship with School of Education representatives, clearly inviting a new proposal.
	Staffing patterns, planning models and intervention strategies questionable for Providence situation.	
II. University of Massachusetts	Proposal developer unfamiliar with Teacher Corps, School of Education or Providence School Department, as well as much of the conceptual jargon, e.g., affective education, competency-based education.	School of Education interested in competency-based education as alternative.
		Institutional flexibility for shaping content and process in proposal.
	School of Education and UMass planning roles and requisites very unclear.	Experience of Worcester project staff at UMass available.
	School of Education commitment to project support and follow through unclear.	Assistance of Worcester project staff at UMass available.

	Restraining	Facilitating
II. University of Massachusetts (continued)	Commitment of Center for International Education to project implementation unclear.	Fiscal and administrative support services available to undertake planning activities.
		Presence of UMass METEP models and staff familiar with competency-based approach to teacher training.
		Presence and commitment of Teacher Education Center Director to competency-based education provides institutional center for projects incorporation into School of Education
III. Providence	Experience with First Cycle Teacher Corps Project.	Strong input from Social Studies Supervisor and Director of Curriculum--influential within system.
	LEA concern about possible UMass-Rhode Island College conflict.	LEA representatives wanted strong role in proposal planning.
	School Department fiscally dependent on Mayor's office.	Previous curriculum development work in African Studies.
	Strong unions restricted somewhat options for use of teachers' and administrators' time.	LEA very receptive to idea of former Peace Corps Volunteers from Africa.
	Superintendency vacant--commitment of new superintendent to project uncertain.	LEA clearly interested in concept of team-teaching, individualized instruction and affective education.
	Antagonism between LEA and community groups.	
	Some LEA concern about nature and extent of community role.	

	Restraining	Facilitating
III. Providence (continued)	Community interest in project unclear.	
	Implications of competency-based education unclear to LEA.	

CHAPTER I--FOOTNOTES

[1]Harold Taylor, The World and the American Teacher (Washington, D. C.: The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1968), p. 88.

[2]Kenneth H. Blanchard and Paul Hersey, Management of Organizational Behavior (2d. ed. rev.; Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1972), pp. 34-35.

[3]Elsie R. Clapp, The Use of Resources in Education, Introduction by John Dewey, (New York: Harper & Row, 1952), cited by Charles E. Silberman, Crisis in the Classroom (New York: Random House, 1970), p. 471.

[4]Robert E. Stake, "The Countenance of Educational Evaluation," Teachers College Record, Vol. 68 (1967).

[5]"A Study of Title III Activities: Report on Evaluation," (Bloomington, Indiana: Indiana University, 1966), cited by Daniel Stufflebeam, Educational Evaluation and Decision-Making, (Itasca, Illinois: F. E. Peacock Publishers, Inc., 1971), p. 32.

[6]Daniel I. Stufflebeam, Educational Evaluation and Decision-Making (Itasca, Illinois: F. E. Peacock Publishers, Inc., 1971).

[7]Michael S. Scriven, "The Methodology of Evaluation," AERA Monograph Series on Curriculum Evaluation, Book I (Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1967).

[8]Robert E. Stake, "Generalizability of Program Evaluation: The Need for Limits," Educational Product Report, Vol. II, No. 5 (February, 1969), p.

[9]Ibid., p. 41.

[10]Ronald E. Bell et al., A Proposal for the Sixth Cycle Teacher Corps Contract-University of Massachusetts (Amherst, Mass.: School of Education, University of Massachusetts, November, 1970).

[11]Stanley Elam (ed.), Performance-Based Teacher Education: What Is The State of the Art? (Washington, D. C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, December, 1971).

[12]Ibid., p. 6.

[13]Ibid., pp. 1-2.

[14]Ibid., pp. 2-3.

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

[16]Ibid., p. 5.

[17]Ibid., pp. 6-11.

[18]Ibid., p. 11.

[19]Ibid., pp. 17-20.

[20]Teacher Corps, Teacher Corps Legislation: Public Law 90-35 as amended (Washington, D. C.: Teacher Corps, Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1970), p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

[21]Cynthia N. Shepard, Concept Paper for Cycle Six (Amherst, Massachusetts: School of Education, University of Massachusetts, 1970). (Mimeographed.)

[22]U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Teacher Corps Budget Guidelines: For Submission of Proposals of 1971-73 Programs And for Operation of 1970-72 Programs (April, 1970), p. 1.

[23]U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Teacher Corps Guidelines: Information and Guidance for Preparation and Submission of Proposals for 1971-73 Teacher Corps Projects (October, 1970), p. 11.

[24]U. S., Teacher Corps Guidelines, p. 12.

[25]Ibid., pp. 12-13.

[26]Ibid., p. 13.

[27]Ibid., Table of Contents.

[28]James M. Cooper et al. Model Elementary Teacher Education Program, A Final Report, Contract No. OEC-0-8-089023-3312(010) (Amherst, Massachusetts: School of Education, University of Massachusetts, 1968).

[29]James M. Cooper et al. A Feasibility Study on the Model Elementary Teacher Education Program: Phase II. A Final Report, Contract No. OEC-0-9-310417-4040(010) (Amherst, Massachusetts: School of Education, University of Massachusetts, 1970).

[30]Based on conversations between Dr. Dwight Allen, Dean, School of Education, Dr. Richard Jorgensen, Program Specialist, Teacher Corps, Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, and Mr. Ronald Bell, proposal coordinator in Amherst, Massachusetts during the fall of 1970.

[31]Based on personal conversations with Providence School Department representatives in the fall of 1970.

[32]Ibid.

[33]Ibid.

[34]Bell, et al., p. 9.

[35]Based on personal conversations with Providence School Department representatives in the fall of 1970.

[36]Bulletin of Rhode Island College: 1971/73 Catalog (Providence, R. I.: Rhode Island College, 1971), p. 3.

CHAPTER II

PROJECT DEVELOPMENT: MANAGEMENT ASSUMPTIONS AND STRATEGIES

This chapter reviews the major management assumptions and strategies which were incorporated into the project proposal submitted to the National Teacher Corps agency. A particular focus is provided upon the decisions, and reasons for those decisions, made by the proposal planning team in choosing from among various options with regard to questions of intervention strategies, management design, goal development, composition and roles of corpsmember teams in Providence schools and communities, teacher training approaches, and assessing those forces which would seem to facilitate or restrain project planning and implementation.

In addition to the writer, who coordinated the development of the proposal, other central planning figures in the basic planning team included Mr. Donald Driscoll, then Director of Curriculum for the Providence School Department, Mr. Felix Zarlengo, the Social Studies Supervisor for the Providence School Department, Mr. Raymond Giles, then a doctoral fellow with the Center for International Education at the School of Education, University of Massachusetts, and considerable advisory assistance from Mr. Joseph Blackman, then Assistant

Director of the Fourth Cycle Teacher Corps Project in Worcester, Massachusetts and a doctoral fellow in the Center for International Education, School of Education, University of Massachusetts.

The initial planning sessions with Mr. Driscoll and Mr. Zarlengo had resulted in three basic decisions:

1. The project would focus upon the development of African Studies materials to supplement those already developed by the Providence Social Studies Project.
2. The project would base its operations in the middle schools, particularly in grades six and eight as African Studies formed part of the curriculum at these levels.
3. The project would recruit applicants who already had personal experience in Africa, principally through Peace Corps and other organizations (e.g., African-American Institute, Cross-Roads Africa).

However, as the planners became more familiar with the Teacher Corps' mandate and operations, the prospect of experimenting with the concepts of individualized instruction, affective education, and team teaching became almost of equal interest to the planning group. Thus these concepts formulated a fourth item of focus in the listing above.

In assessing the agendas, constituents and politics of the proposed institutional partnership (the Teacher Corps, Providence School Department and University of Massachusetts; Rhode Island College was added later), it was clearly evident that careful planning for the project's intervention and management would be essential to any hope for the project's success. Each of the following sections outlines one of the basic management assumptions or strategies considered by the planning team.

Intervention and Management Strategies

Short Term/High Impact vs. Incremental Change Model

The usual Teacher Corps planning model, up to and including the Sixth Cycle, was incremental in nature. Proposal developers were asked to develop a management plan over a three to six year period.[1] However, the Teacher Corps agency only funded a project for one or two years at a time, and the agency could provide no assurance that a subsequent program would be approved. Submitted proposals were sent to various non-agency readers who rated the proposals and returned them to the agency with their recommendations. The agency then either adopted the views of these readers or incorporated them into the agency's own final recommendations for funding. This process was further complicated by normal personnel turnover within the agency. Those agency personnel strongly favoring a particular project might or might not be around when it came time to submit a proposal to continue that project.

A second problem with the incremental planning model for our situation was the wide range of intervening variables in the Providence situation. Examples included: (1) an acting Superintendent, (2) the rapid turnover of Superintendents in the past, (3) two competing unions (one for teachers, and one for administrators and supervisors), and (4) a school department fiscally dependent upon the mayor's office.

A third problem with the incremental approach was the institutional environment in the School of Education at the University of Massachusetts. With a rapid search for alternative models of teacher training underway, there was no strong institutional commitment to the incremental approach; rather, institutional change within the School of Education seemed characterized by sudden changes largely initiated and controlled by the Dean, and which were more oriented toward problems of the moment and less toward articulated objectives several years in the future.

In summary, then, the prevailing change environments of the three major institutional partners can be described as follows:

Teacher Corps - <u>incremental</u>* change model; sees careful planning spread over several years as producing most change at least risk.

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*These terms on this and the following page are those utilized by Stufflebeam to describe various decision-settings.[2] Incremental refers to small amounts of planned change; homeostatic refers to a maintenance of the status quo; and neo-mobilistic characterizes settings in which innovation and creativity receive priority attention and change is not limited by existing theory or knowledge.

Providence School Department - homeostatic* change model; considerable interest in maintaining status quo by unions and mayor's office; change is initially threatening to system as a whole.

University of Massachusetts School of Education - neomobilistic* change model; interested in large changes made fairly quickly, more willingness to take risks.

Obviously, the project could not propose to keep things essentially as they were--the homeostatic model. At the same time, the intervening variables outlined above did not make the incremental model very desirable. Thus the neomobilistic model, although not identified by such terminology at the time, was selected.

The advantages of a short term/high impact approach to the project seemed several:

1. By presenting the project as basically a one-shot opportunity to accomplish some specific objectives over a two-year period of time, it would be easier to get the initial involvement of necessary personnel in the project, and to maintain that involvement during the project's implementation--as opposed to getting and maintaining commitment over a three to six year period.
2. It simply wasn't realistic to plan beyond a two year period of time given the intervening variables of the

Providence School Department and the University of Massachusetts School of Education, and the lack of assurance from the Teacher Corps that further funding would be provided. The project could therefore identify and specify those project goals which seemed both realistic and achievable within a two year period.

3. The short term/high impact model should produce at least some change in the system, while the incremental model might get bogged down by the status quo forces and produce very little, if any, institutional change.

4. A high impact model could involve all eight middle schools, rather than just one or two. The potential for system-wide change was thus considerably increased in the eyes of the planners.

5. A two year project period could allow for one year of experimentation and one year for the revision, coordination and transference to the institutional partners those project outcomes judged to be desirable and worth retaining.

As summarized in the project proposal:

> In order to stimulate a project attitude towards the implementation of institutional change, the Sixth Cycle Proposal has been developed as an essentially self-contained project. Thus, all institutional participants in this project plan to make every effort to achieve the goals set forth in Section II within the 28-month period of time funded by the Teacher Corps. With so many variables affecting the long-range planning process in university and urban educational systems, a conscious attempt has been made to identify what may realistically be accomplished within a two year period of time, and then to structure project strategies and accountability accordingly. At the same time, it must be understood that additional goals may emerge in the course of implementing the Sixth Cycle Proposal.[3]

Short-Term Intervention Strategy

There were some additional advantages to a short-term intervention strategy. First, such a strategy would tend to promote a higher level of local (Providence) responsibility for the project. The writer was concerned about this because of repeated comments made by participants in the Fourth Cycle Project that the Worcester School Department tended to view their project as the University of Massachusetts' project. The distance between Amherst and Providence (about 90 miles) would also tend to foster local responsibility. Seoond, those in Providence concerned about possible long-term interests in Providence by the University of Massachusetts could see a definite end to the University of Massachusetts' role. Since this was a particular concern of some representatives of Rhode Island College, a short-term intervention strategy also

provided a platform to seek out local resources which could not only support the project onsite, but also provide followup services at the project's completion. Thirdly, this explicit phase-out of the University of Massachusetts' role after the second year of the project would help to resolve some of the political concerns engendered by our arrival in Providence, where the schools were strongly tied to local and area colleges for teacher training and other support.

Selection of a True Joint-Venture Management Model

The selection of a true joint-venture management model resulted from several concerns and considerations. The writer had seen Peace Corps programs in Africa repeatedly run into trouble because the agency had tried to run programs in another country and culture. There was no question but the project would have to be not only a joint undertaking initially, but also be managed cooperatively when implemented. The usual Teacher Corps model of prime contractor/ subcontractor (actually prime grantee/subgrantee would be more accurate) clearly implied a more authoritative and directive role for the IHE. Although the Sixth Cycle program guidelines support this concept of a joint-venture management model[4] the agency's behavior has more often indicated its preference for the more authoritative role by the IHE.[5] Implicit in the joint-venture model is a broader range of sharing in decision-making by project staff representing the institutional partnership of the project. While the usual Teacher Corps model of the LEA coordinating inschool and community activities and the IHE coordinating inservice training and university activities would be retained,

it would be retained in a more tentative state recognizing the interrelatedness and interactions of these functions. Thus the program, and even fiscal planning and management, would be cooperative in nature.

Although participants of the Providence School Department stated a desire for a strong voice in running the project, the writer feared that once underway, because of the press of other responsibilities, this strong voice would become a soft whisper saying, "You take care of it, University of Massachusetts." This would begin a cycle of declining involvement leading to declining commitment leading to declining involvement--in short, a University of Massachusetts project existing in Providence.

While a cooperative mode was essential for effective project management, additional specification of the basic roles and interrelationships among the institutional partners was equally essential. Therefore, in an effort to specify these roles and relationships, four major functional tasks were placed upon a responsibility chart to (1) clarify expected individual roles and (2) make clear to all the partners what their roles were across the partnership. The four tasks were I - Planning and Development of Project Design, II - Project Implementation, III - Project Evaluation, and IV - Institutional Decisions on Project Test Units. The development of these responsibility charts (Appendix D) was a useful process in that it forced a clearer conceptualization of what those roles and relationships might be. The charts made explicit, through their design and subsequent approval, a management model characterized by shared responsibilities between

the institutional partners, decentralized decision-making, and task specification.

These specifications and the joint-venture model, as well as the perceived complexity of the project, also led us to request full-time positions at the LEA level for the School Coordinator, the Community Coordinator and a secretary. Usually the Teacher Corps funds these positions on a formula of 10 percent for each team of corpsmembers. This would have meant 80 percent time if we followed this procedure. However, the writer was concerned both about needed levels of support and accountability. Previous experience indicated it was very difficult to get clear accountability from part-time positions, and the Fourth Cycle project's experience in Worcester tended to confirm this concern about competing job demands. This writer had seen too many situations where the incompletion of an 80 percent responsibility was attributed to preoccupation with another 20 percent responsibility and vice-versa, whether or not it was actually true. Thus our request for full-time positions with clearer lines of accountability.

Role of Rhode Island College

A decision was made by the planners to focus upon Rhode Island College as a local source for onsite project support. From our view there were concerns at Rhode Island College over the failure of the previous Teacher Corps project, the arrival of the University of Massachusetts in Providence with another Teacher Corps project of greater magnitude, and uncertainty over what the University of Massachusetts' long-term interests were in Providence. Our response to these

concerns was to invite them to become a partner in the enterprise. Just how much of a partner, and on what terms was uncertain to Rhode Island College. Initially, there seemed to be four motivations in support of a partnership between the college and the University of Massachusetts.

1. The University of Massachusetts could not by itself effectively provide onsite support to a project based in Providence. Local support resources would have to be identified and utilized. Rhode Island College had the local reputation and some of the resources to provide this support. And, while Rhode Island College was interested in cost-plus reimbursement, this seemingly could be negotiated to a cost-only arrangement.

2. To the extent Rhode Island College could identify project elements with which they were interested (e.g., competency-based education) Teacher Corps funds from the University of Massachusetts could help pay for Rhode Island College's involvement in these areas so long as Rhode Island College's efforts contributed to the Teacher Corps project and its goals.

3. If the project left anything behind of value in Providence, Rhode Island College would be in the position of being able to pick up on those activities in terms of skills/

support needs by virtue of their participation in the project.

4. Politically, Rhode Island College could involve itself with the project at whatever level of risk it considered acceptable. No involvement might be embarrassing since Rhode Island College had been involved with the failure of the first Teacher Corps project in Providence. Heavy involvement might be risky until the University of Massachusetts' institutional agendas were clear. Some involvement permitted a share in any project success but minimal responsibility, if any, should the project fail.

Although the proposed functional relationship was somewhat tenuous and fuzzy, Rhode Island College agreed to work with the project should the proposal be approved.

> University instruction will be provided by. . . the University of Massachusetts, Rhode Island College. . . and members of the instructional staff will work as a team in the development and assessment of instructional models.[6]

> Rhode Island College and the University of Massachusetts have agreed to cooperatively develop course arrangements in which credit may be made available toward graduate degrees.[7]

Pluralism of Project Goals

From the very outset of the proposal's development, it was clear that the agendas of the institutional partnership were somewhat varied and different in substance and focus. Rather than present a statement of project goals to which all partners had to agree, whether or not they were interested, the planning team decided to formulate proposed goals in accord with the interests expressed through each partner's representatives in the planning process. Thus project goals were proposed for Teacher Corps/Washington, the Providence School Department and the University of Massachusetts. Implicit goals for corpsmembers were evident in such overall goals as providing a relevant teacher training program and teacher certification. The advantages of adopting this pluralistic approach to goal formulation were several:

1. It allowed each partner to establish their own goals for the project without being bound by the goal needs of other partners.
2. All goals were project goals, but not all partners had to feel equally committed to all of them.
3. It permitted differing priorities of goals at different times among the partnership during the project's implementation.
4. It allowed project priorities to emerge as the result of the project's experience, not as the result

> of speculation or the best of intentions during the project's planning period.

Furthermore, it was clear that the corpsmembers themselves would bring goals and priorities to the project. Thus as the proposal noted, "At the same time, it must be understood that additional goals may emerge in the course of implementing the Sixth Cycle Proposal."[8] The project goals proposed are set forth as Appendix E.

Training Design, Team Roles and Team Composition

Preservice/Inservice Training Design

The usual Teacher Corps model, despite the assumptions of competency-based education, is in two distinct parts: preservice and inservice. During the preservice phase, the interns' status in the project is tentative. Following completion of the preservice phase, interns are selected into the project's inservice phase on a regular basis for the project's duration. This model was rejected in favor of a preservice/inservice training continuum with the following characteristics:

1. A self-contained program with a block curriculum rather than a course structure.
2. The specification of criteria or performance levels to measure desired competencies.
3. An opportunity for self-directed, self-paced learning through a modular or comparable design.

4. Corpsmember participation in planning and assessing their own performance during this period.

5. Continuous monitoring of intern and team leader progress with provisions for program modifications.

6. A university instructional staff working as a team.

Additionally, the planners took a different approach to the issue of selection during the preservice phase.

> As a general operating principle, preservice training will be viewed as a period of preparation and not as a period of justification. Rigorous screening of applicants, clearly articulated project goals, continuous feedback during preservice and effective counselling should not require a "final selection meeting" at the conclusion of the preservice period.[9]

Many of the intern candidates would be coming from prior Peace Corps training experiences. The selection models used by the Peace Corps have often generated negative feelings in trainees who felt these selection procedures had been characterized too often by fuzziness, secrecy, arbitrariness and unfairness; thus trainees often became preoccupied with concern about selection rather than concern about what training they needed to perform effectively.[10] In order to avoid any residue of suspicion and hostility about selection procedures from interfering with the preservice training program, and to remain consistent with competency-based education assumptions of a training continuum focused upon exit rather than entrance requirements, selection was not a part of the planning

for the preservice program. During the preservice program, this approach resulted in a much more open and task-oriented atmosphere than that which could have been anticipated by retaining the usual Teacher Corps selection model (which was borrowed from the Peace Corps, anyway).

Finally, to be effective, the preservice/inservice continuum would have to complement and supplement interns' activities within their schools, within community work and within their own individual objectives for professional development. Thus instructional components would have to be continuously evolving rather than predetermined by project or university staff.

Introduction of Teams Into Schools

Critical to the effective introduction of the Teacher Corps teams into the Providence middle schools was the involvement of regular school department personnel in the preservice training program. Of the nine weeks of training proposed for the interns, six weeks were proposed to take place in Providence with the participation of twenty middle school social studies teachers and eight social studies department chairmen. Also included within the six weeks were two weeks for eight middle school principals, the social studies supervisor, and the Director of Curriculum Development for the Providence School Department. In terms of the project's proposed goals for instutitional change, the project could not be solely a Teacher Corps project or a University of Massachusetts project; it had to be a project for the Providence School Department as well. Thus the need to structure substantial involvement by regular school department

personnel in the preservice phase, and to allow that personnel a substantive role in formulating the plans for the project's entry into the school system. Unfortunately, Teacher Corps/Washington disagreed with the necessity of this early involvement by the LEA and only approved five days of joint planning and training.[11]

Efforts to get Teacher Corps/Washington to reconsider its views were unsuccessful. The result was that the final week of preservice training was exceedingly hectic since (1) corpsmembers and regular teachers were meeting each other for the first time, (2) middle school principals were meeting corpsmembers for the first time, (3) regular school department personnel were bombarded with new terminology and jargon that had little meaning, or many different meanings, to them, (4) everyone was preoccupied with the opening of school the following week in Providence and all the things that had to be done before then, (5) some resentment was generated by what people felt to be an impossible task in getting everyone sufficiently prepared for the project's introduction to the school system, and (6) a teacher strike was in the making over the issue of teacher salaries which further distracted people from the training program. However, it was clear that it would have been disastrous for corpsmembers to enter their schools with no prior opportunity to meet and plan with regular school department personnel.

Integration of Teams Into Schools

A major concern of the planners was the relationship of the teams to regular school personnel within each middle school. It was not desirable to have

the Teacher Corps team developing materials and experimenting with instructional alternatives in isolation from other social studies teachers. Some kind of structure was needed that would encourage interaction between Teacher Corps teams and other social studies teachers. The most desirable model seemed to be one which encouraged joint planning and curriculum development activities, and provided for opportunities to draw upon each other's resources as classroom teachers. However, a basic problem in developing such a model was a strict union requirement that teachers be assigned responsibilities for not more than five periods a day and have a free period every day. Since there were only six periods in each school day, this drastically limited the alternatives available to the planners.

The intervention model finally proposed by the planners allowed a Teacher Corps team to be responsible for two social studies class periods each day, thereby relieving two other social studies teachers of one class per day. In place of this class the regular social studies teachers would join corpsmembers for one period each day in joint planning and curriculum development activities. Where possible the social studies department chairman in each middle school, who already had a planning period assigned, would schedule his planning period to coincide with these joint sessions. Additionally, the Teacher Corps team would form an available resource for one period each day during which corpsmembers could be available to other teachers with interests in African Studies or different approaches to teaching. It was the intent of this model to integrate

Teacher Corps team efforts with those of the 6th and 8th grade social studies teachers, and produce a multiplier effect by having corpsmembers and regular social studies teachers work together on a regular basis. Furthermore, African Studies materials would not be developed or left in a vacuum upon the project's termination, but would be materials with which some regular school department personnel in each middle school had a degree of familiarity and experience in utilizing.

Role of Evaluation

In brief, the role of evaluation for the proposed project was "to provide data for decision-making."[12] Evaluation would not be summative or judgmental in character, but be directed towards gathering data to assist that decision-making necessary to reduce discrepancies between project goals and project behavior. This was a new and different orientation to evaluation for the planning team, and there was some question about whether or not this approach could be functional, or was even realistic, in the highly politicized environment of Providence. In spite of these concerns, and some continuing scepticism, the planning team adopted this approach recognizing that its operational implications were still unclear. An additional factor, perhaps, in adopting this approach was the knowledge that the Office of Education rarely provided funding for any meaningful evaluation efforts within projects and the likelihood of sufficient project resources to make serious evaluative efforts was remote at best.

Formation of Teacher Corps Teams

A deliberate decision was made by the planners to formulate Teacher Corps teams "which contain individuals with the maximum diverse backgrounds in education, cultural heritage and overseas experience."[13] This model would not only provide a diversity of African experiences within each team, but also present the broadest array of skills on the team and give team members "the greatest opportunity to learn from each other and support each other as part of their team development."[14] The writer advocated this approach to team formation because of the experience of the Fourth Cycle project at the University of Massachusetts. The preservice program for this project allowed all participants to decide who they wanted to work with in teams. The preoccupation of team leaders and interns alike with this issue consumed much of the preservice training program, and interferred considerably with the training agenda. The planning team therefore opted for the alternative of building teams with diverse elements and tentatively assigned membership, allowing for later modifications of membership should that become necessary.

Recruitment of African Nationals

Following approval of the proposal by Teacher Corps/Washington, but prior to the project's implementation, the planners reached the conclusion that African Nationals needed to participate in the project if the African Studies materials to be developed were to have any real legitimacy. Central to this thesis was the thinking and direction of William Tutman, who had been hired as

Project Director and who had joined the planning team shortly thereafter. The planners then sought and received from Teacher Corps/Washington approval to recruit a number of African nationals as Teacher Corps interns.[15] Since most of the U. S. citizen applicants to the project with African experience had their experience in independent African countries, it was decided to recruit African nationals from non-independent African countries and add their unique perspectives to the development of African Studies materials for use in American schools. Teacher Corps/Washington's approval for non-U. S. citizens represented an unusual step for that agency since the Teacher Corps was a domestically oriented program. However, the addition of the African interns unquestionably provided a significant and essential contribution to the project's efforts. (In the project's second year, the Teacher Corps agency denied ever approving the presence of Africans in the project and attempted to take action that would force them out. Project staff were able to refute successfully the agency's denials but at great cost to both staff and corpsmembers in time, effort and diversion from other project responsibilities.)

Summary

The following chart summarizes the principal management assumptions and strategies of the project's initial development, the expectations of Teacher Corps/Washington with regard to those strategies, and the approval/disapproval action of Teacher Corps/Washington with regard to them.

TABLE 3

SUMMARY OF PROPOSED STRATEGIES AND RESPONSES BY TEACHER CORPS/WASHINGTON

Proposed Strategy	TC/W Approval Action	Usual TC/W Expectations
1. High impact change model	Approved	Incremental change model
2. Short term intervention	Approved	Long-range planning model
3. Joint-venture management model	Approved	Project Director has dominant role
4. Rhode Island College role in Inservice	Approved	IHE runs inservice
5. Pluralism of project goals	Approved	Goals are prioritized
6. Preservice/Inservice Continuum	Approved	Preservice and Inservice are separate
7. Teacher Corps Team responsible for class	Approved	Regular teacher responsible--Teacher Corps only assists
8. Strong LEA role in preservice	Limited Approval	No LEA role other than team leaders and LEA project staff
9. Role of Evaluation--Data for Decision-making	Approved	Outside expert model--summative/judgmental
10. Teacher Corps teams based on diversity	Approved	Unknown
11. Recruitment of Africans	Approved	U. S. citizens only

A review of the preceeding chart presents Teacher Corps/Washington as a very agreeable partner. However, it required extensive and forceful negotiations by the proposal planning team to win concessions from the agency's usual expectations in favor of the strategies proposed. As Chapter IV will discuss in greater detail, the continued pressure placed upon the ensuing project to conform to usual agency expectations, rather than to those strategies and processes approved by the agency in the project's original proposal and subsequent amendments, resulted in frequent conflict between project personnel and Teacher Corps representatives as to what the project should be doing.

It will be important, in Chapter IV, to look at the institutional behavior of the partnership with regard to both approved strategies and conflicting expectations. However, Chapter III first reviews the major literature about management theory and leadership concepts. This review provides a theoretical background against which both Chapters II and IV can be read more critically.

CHAPTER II--FOOTNOTES

[1]U. S., Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Teacher Corps Guidelines: Information and Guidance for Preparation and Submission of Proposals for 1971-73 Teacher Corps Projects (October, 1970), p. 21.

[2]Daniel I. Stufflebeam, Educational Evaluation and Decision-Making (Itasca, Illinois: F. E. Peacock Publishers, Inc., 1971), pp. 68-69.

[3]Ronald E. Bell et al. A Proposal for the Sixth Cycle Teacher Corps Contract-University of Massachusetts (Amherst, Massachusetts: School of Education, University of Massachusetts, November, 1970), p. 36.

[4]U. S., Teacher Corps Guidelines, pp. 60-62.

[5]Based on personal conversations and other communications with representatives of the National Teacher Corps Agency.

[6]Bell, et al., p. 70.

[7]Ibid., pp. 129-130.

[8]Ibid., p. 36.

[9]Ibid., p. 154.

[10]Based on personal observations of Peace Corps training program for Africa from 1965-1970.

[11]The result of program and fiscal negotiations with Teacher Corps/ Washington in the spring of 1971.

[12]Bell, et al., p. 177.

[13]Ibid., p. 114.

[14]Ibid.

[15]Letter from William L. Smith, Acting Director, Teacher Corps, Washington, D. C., March 18, 1971.

CHAPTER III

A REVIEW OF MANAGEMENT THEORY, LEADERSHIP MODELS AND SOME IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT

A systematic review of management theory and leadership models did not take place prior to project planning. However, the nature of ideas about leadership and their implications which began to emerge in the project led to periodic inquiries of the literature and other sources for clarification. Over the course of the project's implementation, a compatibility between recent research writings and project experiences began to become more and more evident.

Chapter III reviews the principal management theories which have evolved in the United States from the late 19th century to present, the emergence after World War II of new and different leadership models, and concludes with some implications for educational managment based upon those theories and models. It is the intent of this chapter to provide a theoretical background, based upon relevant research, against which the project's assumptions and procedures can be critically assessed. While standing slightly apart from other portions of the study, it nonetheless forms an essential foundation for the theoretical and actual implications of much of the project's leadership style and management design.

Management Theories

The systematic study of management theory in the United States can find its beginnings in the late 19th century and into the early 1900's. Although inquiry into the interrelationships between people, including leaders and followers, had existed previously in the field of psychology it was the writings of Frederick Winslow Taylor,[1] one of the most widely read theorists on administration in the 1900's, that set forth the basic premises of the Scientific Management Movement. Technological in nature, these premises postulated that the best way to increase output was to improve the techniques or methods used by workers. Taylor initiated time and motion studies in an effort to streamline and improve worker performance. Jobs were then reorganized in accord with the results of these studies, and workers became interchangeable parts within the new organization. The essential premise was that increasing administrative efficiency would increase production; thus workers were required to adjust to the administrative framework, rather than the administration adjusting to workers' needs. The focus of concern was on the organization's tasks, not its workers.

> The function of the leader under scientific management or classical theory was quite obviously to set up and enforce performance criteria to meet organizational goals. His main focus was on the needs of the organization and not on the needs of individuals.[2]

The Scientific Management Movement held sway until the late 1920's and early 1930's when other theorists, led by Elton Mayo and his associates, began what has since been called the Human Relations Movement. These theorists

postulated that production could not be maximally improved through technological means solely, but that it would also be beneficial for management to look into the human affairs of its workers. In 1924, Mayo began his efficiency studies at the Western Electric Company plant in Hawthorne, Illinois. Among his findings over the next ten years was that production rose in many instances simply because workers felt management was paying attention to them as people, not just parts in a huge machine. Specifically, Mayo found that when informal worker groups identified with management, production rose; and when workers felt their own goals were in opposition to management, production tended to remain at low levels. In the latter case, workers often felt as if they were victims of their work environment, helpless and confused, which Mayo came to call "anomie."[3] Mayo was convinced that anomie, while a product of society generally, was more often found in its extreme forms in industrial settings where management held negative assumptions about its workers; specifically, that workers' only interests were self-preservation and self-interest. These negative assumptions Mayo called the "rabble hypothesis."[4]

> The function of the leader under human relations theory was to facilitate cooperative goal attainment among followers while providing opportunities for their personal growth and development. His main focus, contrary to scientific management theory, was on individual needs and not the needs of the organization.[5]

Although Mayo's writings became most well known in the mid-1940's, Chester Barnard, in his book The Functions of an Executive,[6] indicated the need

for concern by management with both organizational tasks and human relations in 1938. It was also at this time that Alfred Adler, a former colleague of Sigmund Freud, published his book on Social Interest,[7] in which he set forth his views on the power motive or, as he interpreted power, the ability to manipulate or control the activities of others to suit one's own purposes. Adler felt this ability started in early childhood, but that as a child grew older it lost some of this ability as it was able to perform more tasks itself. In some cases, children would have a hard time adjusting to this reduction of power causing an inferiority complex or compensation efforts, two concepts introduced by Adler and now well known. Adler also felt his studies indicated that children who did not receive too much tension as they matured were more likely to transform power needs into social relationship needs and seek interaction with others in an atmosphere of openness and trust. Conversely, this transformation, Adler felt, tended to be delayed in individuals whose childhood had involved great tension and produced a lack of trust. Such individuals tended to continue wanting to structure and manipulate their environment and the people in it, rather than engage in efforts to develop trust and respect between themselves and others. Applying Adler's theories to organizational management, one can see a certain parallel between the outcomes of tension-filled childhoods and tension-filled organizations; each tend to be preoccupied with environmental manipulation over concern for relationships.

During the period of the mid-1940's to the late 1960's, a whole new array of management theories came into being. Among the most comprehensive, and perhaps one of the most significant, was Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory.[8] Maslow postulated that there were five basic levels of human needs: physiological, security, affiliation, esteem and self-actualization. Furthermore, these need levels tended to arrange themselves along a hierarchy in such a way that (1) physiological needs must first be satisfied somewhat before security needs become dominant, (2) security needs must then be satisfied somewhat before affiliation needs become dominant, and so forth down the hierarchy. Maslow's hierarchy is portrayed graphically as follows:

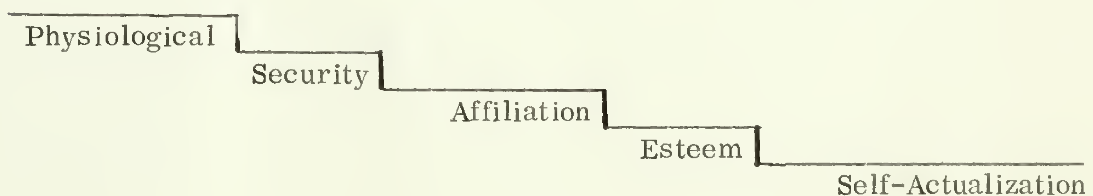

Figure 1: Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

In brief, physiological needs are those needed to sustain life, e.g., food, clothing, and shelter; security needs are related to the desire for self-preservation, and freedom from physical danger and basic psychological fears; affiliation needs are best represented by the need for acceptance to various social groups or individuals; esteem needs are those rooted in the desire for recognition and respect from others, i.e., satisfaction of esteem needs tends to produce feelings in individuals

of self-confidence, prestige, power and control; and self-actualization needs are those desires within an individual which stimulate a maximization of one's potential or produce an internal drive to become what one is capable of becoming.

A summary review of the motivational research into each of these need levels indicates: (1) while the satisfaction of physiological needs in our society is usually associated with money, extensive studies of the impact of money have found that money is so complicated an incentive that it is entangled with all kinds of needs besides physiological ones, and its importance is difficult to determine; (2) security needs are both conscious and unconscious, and formulated most strongly as a product of an individual's family environment; (3) affiliation needs are not only based on a desire for fellowship, but also a desire to have one's beliefs confirmed by seeking out those who share similar beliefs; (4) esteem needs seem most directly related to the two motives of prestige and power; and (5) self-actualizationneeds seem to be very strongly related to the motives of competence and achievement.

Esteem and self-actualization needs have seemingly been the subject of much of the management research efforts of the 1950's and 1960's. Prestige, or recognition by others, was probably best articulated and examined by Vance Packard in The Status Seekers,[9] and David Riesman in The Lonely Crowd.[10] Prestige seems to result from two kinds of power, position power and personal power. Although similar concepts were studied by Adler in the 1930's, Amitai Etzioni discussed their difference in more specific terms in 1961.[11] Etzioni's

concept of power is the ability to induce or influence behavior, and power is derived from either an organizational office, personal influence, or both. Thus one who influences the behavior of another because of his hierarchical status in the organization is said to have position power while one who drives his power from his followers is considered to have personal power. Some individuals may have both personal and position power and, conversely, others may have neither one.

As indicated previously in this chapter, self-actualization needs have been difficult to identify and understand. Achievement, or the need to achieve, has been most closely examined by David C. McClelland[12] since the early 1950's. McClelland's research, to summarize, indicates: (1) the need for achievement is a distinct human motive that can be distinguished from other needs, isolated and assessed in any group, (2) achievement-motivated people prefer to work on a problem rather than leave a solution to chance--they are not gamblers, therefore, and prefer moderate amounts of risk, (3) achievement-motivated people habitually spend time thinking about how to do things better and seek concrete feedback on how well they are doing, (4) middle-class families, more than other socio-economic classes, seem to breed children which are highly achievement-motivated, (5) achievement motivation can be taught and developed in people, and (6) those who are highly achievement-motivated tend to be more task than relationships oriented in their behavior.[13]

The concept of competence appears somewhat related to achievement-motivation, but seemingly embraces a broader spectrum of motivation. Competence implies, according to Robert W. White,[14] control over both physical and social environmental factors. Thus it would not be difficult, in my view, to subsume the need to achieve within the need for competence. In some respects competence seems to bridge esteem and self-actualization needs. If a sense of competence is achieved through recognition by others, esteem needs are brought into play. However, if a sense of competence is derived primarily through one's own self-assessment of accomplishment, self-actualization needs are foremost. A sense of competence, it would seem, could be derived from both internal and external sources; the strongest sense of competence would likely result from agreement between both internal and external assessments of one's performance. White's findings on the competence motive can be summarized as: (1) people with low feelings of competence will not often be motivated to seek new challenges or take risks, (2) the competence motive tends to be cumulative, (3) there is a point in time (age) when the sense of competence almost becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy, influencing whether a given experience will be a success or a failure, (4) the competence motive reveals itself in adults as a desire for job mastery and professional growth, and (5) in jobs where the environment is challenging but not overwhelming the competence motive in an individual can be expressed freely, but routine and closely supervised jobs tend to make the worker dependent on the system and thus frustrate people with high competence needs.[15]

Another major management theory emerging in the late 1950's and early 1960's was Frederick Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory.[16] Herzberg concluded, on the basis of intensive interviews with workers from eleven industries, that people had two different categories of needs which seemed independent of each other and affected behavior in different ways. He noticed that workers unhappy with their jobs, tended to be most unhappy with their job environment, or what Herzberg called hygiene factors. These hygiene factors might include such items as working conditions, company policies, interpersonal relationships, money, status and security. On the other hand, when workers were happy with their work, it seemed to be because of factors related to the work itself, or motivators. These motivators might include achievement challenging work, recognition for accomplishment, increased responsibility and the worker's own growth and development.

Blanchard and Hersey feel that Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory is sufficiently compatible with Maslow's hierarchy of needs, that they superimpose one over the other as in the model below:[17]

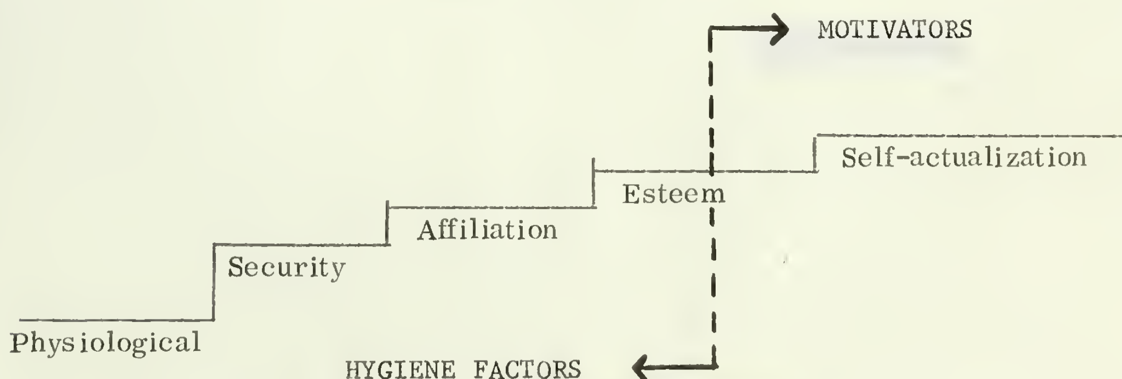

Fig. 2: Herzberg's Motivation-Hygiene Theory Superimposed on Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

According to Blanchard and Hersey, Maslow's physiological, security, affiliation and part of the esteem needs are all hygiene factors. Motivators include part of the esteem needs and all of the self-actualization needs. They divide the esteem level because they feel there are some differences between status per se (hygiene) and recognition (motivators). When hygiene needs of workers are satisfied, this tends to eliminate or drastically reduce dissatisfaction and work restriction, but appears to do little to motivate workers to improve their own performance. It takes the motivators themselves, or satisfaction of workers' motivation needs, to produce such results. Management, then, needs to consider a work environment which responds to both of Herzberg's dimensions--hygiene factors and motivators.

Perhaps the best known of the management theories to emerge in the 1950's is Douglas McGregor's Theory X-Theory Y.[18] In essence, Theory X contains the primary ingredients of the Scientific Management Movement of the early 1900's; that is, the basic assumption is that most people are not interested in assuming responsibility and, above all, desire security. Theory Y, on the other hand, is compatible with the principal assumptions of Elton Mayo and the Human Relations Movement of the 1920's and 1930's. It postulates that people are not inherently lazy and unreliable, and that they can be basically self-directed and creative at work if properly motivated. Managers who accept Theory X assumptions, tend to highly structure, tightly control and closely supervise their employees. Managers operating on Theory Y assumptions do not usually

structure, control or closely supervise the work environment for employees, but allow progressively more self-control to employees with a subsequent lessening of external control. McGregor felt that work is as natural as play and can be equally satisfying to people, but play is usually internally controlled and work externally controlled. Thus work tends to be considered as a necessary evil rather than a source of personal challenge and satisfaction.

McGregor's Theory X-Theory Y seems to polarize the same extremes management theorists have argued for fifty years--organizational task orientation versus employee relationships orientation, or opposites of a single continuum. Robert Tannenbaum and Warren H. Schmidt attempted to build on the Theory X-Theory Y continuum by constructing a three-stage continuum with Theory X representing authoritarian leader behavior, Theory Y as a democratic leader behavior and an extended continuum stage to include laissez-faire leader behavior.[19]

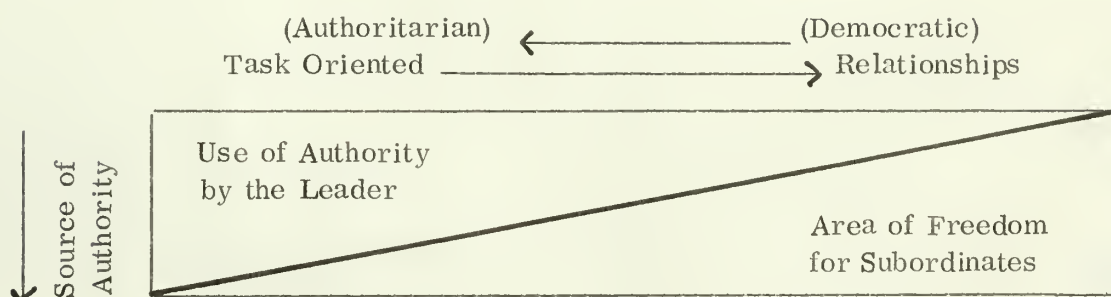

Fig. 3: Tannenbaum-Schmidt Continuum

Laizze faire leader behavior is not included in the model above as Tannenbaum and Schmidt felt that this really demonstrated an absence of leadership. The model attempts to demonstrate, however, the existence of many forms of leader

behavior between the poles of Theory X and Theory Y.

Rensis Likert's studies of many kinds of organizations also has produced a sort of continuum from Theory X to Theory Y kinds of management systems.[20] His continuum is divided into four basic stages which can be summarized as follows:

> System 1 - Management is seen as having no confidence or trust in subordinates since they are seldom involved in any aspect of the decision-making process. The bulk of decisions and the goal setting of the organization are made at the top and issued down the chain of command.
>
> System 2 - Management is seen as having condescending confidence and trust in subordinates such as master has towards servant. While the bulk of the decisions are made at the top, many decisions are made within a prescribed framework at lower levels.
>
> System 3 - Management is seen as having substantial but not complete confidence and trust in subordinates. While broad policy and general decisions are kept at the top, subordinates are permitted to make more specific decisions at lower levels. Communication flows both up and down the hierarchy.
>
> System 4 - Management is seen as having complete confidence and trust in subordinates. Decision-making is widely dispersed throughout the organization, although well integrated. Communication flows not only up and down the hierarchy but among peers.[21]

Likert's findings indicate the closer an organization's management style reflects System 4, the more likely it is to have a stable record of high productivity. Conversely, the closer an organization's management style reflects System 1, the more likely it is to have a sustained record of low productivity.[22]

There have been two other efforts to expand the Theory X-Theory Y continuum which bear further comment; both articulate, quite differently, the formulation of a Theory Z. Stephen Rhinesmith posits a Theory Z which is really a mixture of Theory X and Theory Y, and sets it forth as follows:

Theory X	Theory Z	Theory Y
Because of man's dislike of work, he must be coerced, controlled, directed or threatened with punishment to get him to put forth adequate effort toward achieving organizational objectives.	While man may not be self-motivated to work for organizational objectives, variations in personalities and job requirements necessitates varying forms of control and directiveness to ensure achievement of organizational objectives.	External control and the threat of punishment are not the most effective means of getting man to work toward organizational objectives. Man will exercise self-direction and self-control toward achieving objectives to which they are committed.[23]

Theory Z, according to Rhinesmith, simply indicates a managment system ought to be flexible, and use elements of both Theory X and Theory Y in accord with the variables within each organization.

The concept of Theory Z formulated by Abraham Maslow is drastically different in its assumptions and implications. Writing in 1969, Maslow differentiated between two kinds of self-actualizing people: (1) those with little or no experiences of transcendence, and (2) those in whom transcendent experiencing was important and even central.[24] By transcendence, Maslow provided a condensed statement of his use of the term while recognizing it had many meanings and applications:

> Transcendence refers to the very highest and most inclusive or holistic levels of human consciousness, behaving and relating, as ends rather than as means, to oneself, to significant others, to human beings in general, to other species, to nature, and to the cosmos. (Holism in the sense of hierarchial integration is assumed, so also is cognitive and value isomorphism.)[25]

Maslow stated that the first group of self-actualizers, the non-transcenders or the "merely healthy"[26] self-actualizers as he called them, fulfilled the expectations of McGregor's Theory Y. But the second group, the transcenders, not only fulfilled but also transcended or surpassed Theory Y.

> They live at a level which I shall here call Theory Z for convenience and because it is on the same continuum as Theories X and Y and with them forms a hierarchy.[27]

Transcenders, then, are much more often aware of what Maslow called B-Values;

> to be living at the level of Being; i.e., of ends, of intrinsic values; to be more obviously meta-motivated; to have unitive consciousness and "plateau experience" (Asrani) more or less often; and to have or to have had peak experiences

> (mystic, sacral, ecstatic) with illuminations or insights or cognitions which changed their view of the world and of themselves, perhaps occasionally, perhaps as a usual thing.[28]

The table on the following page is extrapolated from one utilized by Maslow in which he related the principal dimensions of his continuum for Theories X, Y and Z.[29] Maslow's Theory Z opens new dimensions to management theory previously not considered by management theorists, although similar dimensions of Theory Z do seem to exist in the fields of philosophy and religion, particularly some of the precepts of Zen and Taoism according to Maslow.

While there is still a great deal of fuzziness about many of the conceptual dimensions of management theory, Blanchard and Hersey feel that management can be defined as "working with and through individuals and groups to accomplish organizational goals,"[30] and that leadership may be defined as "the process of influencing the activities of an individual or group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation."[31]

Leadership Models

Until the mid-1950's, managers had the theoretical choice of being Scientific Management leaders or Human Relations leaders, or the practical choice of falling somewhere along the continuum between the two. However, in the mid-1950's three separate but related efforts to identify dimensions of leader behavior produced some conceptual and functional alternatives: (1) the Ohio State University leadership studies, (2) the University of Michigan leader-

TABLE 4

RELATEDNESS OF MASLOW'S THEORY Z TO OTHER THEORIES AND THEIR CHARACTERISTICS

	AUTOCRATIC	Custodial (MAINTENANCE)	Supportive (MOTIVATIONAL)	Familial Colleagues (COLLEGIAL)	Theory Z Organization; Organ-Transcending
Depends on:	Power	Economic Resources	Leadership	Mutual Contribution	Devotion to Being-itself & to B-Values
Managerial Orientation:	Authority	Material Rewards	Support	Integration	Assumption that all are devoted. Signal giver. Fellow workers.
Employee Orientation:	Obedience	Security	Performance	Responsi-bility	Admiration; Love; Acceptance of factual superi-ority.
Employee Psychological Result:	Personal Dependency	Organizational Dependency	Participation	Self-Discipline	Oblation; Self-sacrific.
Employee Needs Met:	Subsistence	Maintenance	Higher-order	Self-realization	Meta-needs; B-Values
Morale Measure:	Compliance	Satisfaction	Motivation	Commitment to Task and Team	Commitment to B-Values
Pay, Wages, Rewards:	Material Goods and Possessions	Security now and in the future	Friendship, Affection, Group belong-ingness.	Dignity, Status,Glory. Praise.Honor. Freedom. Self-actualization.	B-Values.Justice. Beauty.Goodness. Excellence,Per-fection,Truth, etc. Peak experiences.Pla-teau experiences.
Motivational Environment:	Extrinsic	Extrinsic	Intrinsic	Intrinsic	Fusion
		Relatedness to Other Theories			
McGregor:	Theory X		Theory Y		(Theory Z)
Maslow's Need-Priority Model:	Physiological	Safety and Security	Middle-order	Higher-order	Metaneeds; B-Values
Herzberg:	Hygiene	Hygiene	Motivational	Motivational	

ship studies, and (3) the group dynamics studies of Cartwright and Zander.

The staff of the Bureau of Business Research at Ohio State University developed test instruments designed to describe how a leader carries out his activities. What emerged were two basic dimensions of leader behavior: (1) initiating structure, or a concern for task achievement; and (2) consideration, or a concern for relationships between a leader and his followers.[32] Leader behavior, then, could be plotted now on two separate axes, rather than on the single continuum of earlier theorists. Four quadrants were formulated to show the basic combinations of initiating structure and consideration.[33]

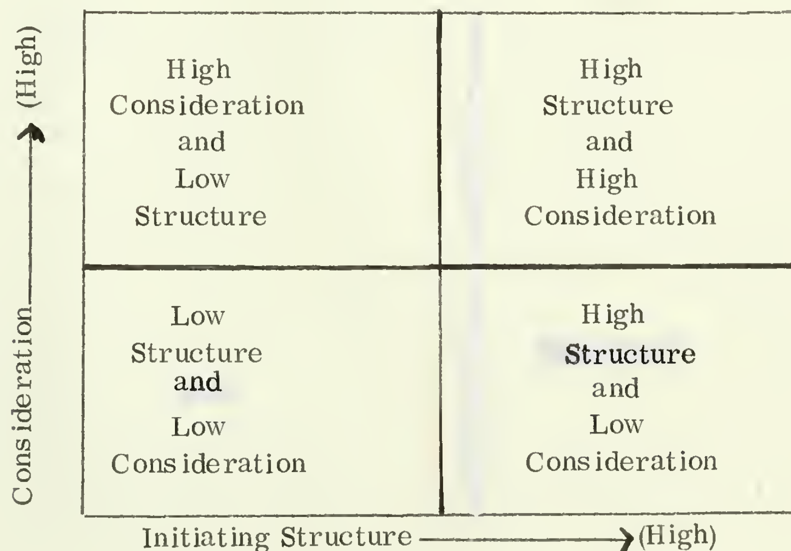

Fig. 4: Ohio State Leadership Model

Leadership studies at the University of Michigan identified two concepts very similar to those at Ohio State University: employee orientation (consideration) and production orientations (initiating structure). Thus these two independent research efforts yielded mutually reinforcing results. Further reinforcement was forthcoming in the late 1950's from the group dynamics work of Dorin Cartwright and Alvin Zander who, following numerous studies, felt that all group objectives could be placed into one of two categories: (1) the achievement of some specific group goal, or (2) the maintenance or strengthening of the group itself.[34] Again, these two categories seem fairly parallel with the Ohio State dimensions of initiating structure and consideration. In 1964, Robert Blake and Jane Mouton published The Managerial Grid,[35] which incorporated these two basic leader behavior dimensions into a model which identified five different types of leadership. Their model is depicted below:

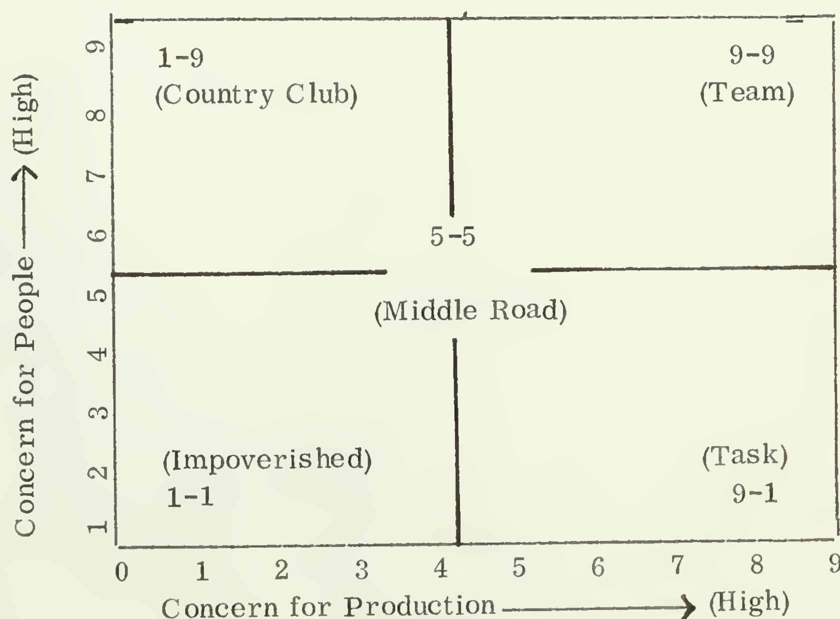

Fig. 5: Blake and Mouton Managerial Grid

The five leadership styles are characterized as:

> Impoverished - Exertion of minimum effort to get required work done is appropriate to sustain organization membership.
>
> Country Club - Thoughtful attention to needs of people for satisfying relationships leads to a comfortable friendly organization atmosphere and work tempo.
>
> Task - Efficiency in operations result from arranging conditions of work in such a way that human elements interfere to a minimum degree.
>
> Middle-of-the-Road - Adequate organization performance is possible through balancing the necessity to get out work while maintaining morale of people at a satisfactory level.
>
> Team - Work accomplishment is from committed people; interdependence through a "common state" in organization purpose leads to relationships of trust and respect.[36]

It is easily seen that the managerial grid can be superimposed upon the Ohio State model. And, since many theorists now agree that an effective leader must contribute to both group task and group maintenance efforts, some theorists concluded that the best leader was one demonstrating both high task and high relationships behaviors, and the worst leader was one demonstrating both low task and low relationships behaviors. Blake and Mouton made this assumption with their managerial grid and developed management training programs to move leaders from an impoverished style to a team style of leadership. However, research work by Paul Hersey, Fred Fiedler and A. K. Korman in the mid-1960's

disputes the concept of a best leader behavior or style as a set of traits. Hersey posits a concept of adaptive leader behavior which he describes as:

> The more a manager adapts his style of leader behavior to meet the particular situation and the needs of his followers, the more effective he will tend to be in reaching personal and organizational goals.[37]

Fiedler developed what he called a Leadership Contingency Model in which he felt there were three major situational variables which seem to determine whether a given situation is favorable or unfavorable to a leader: (1) the leader's personal relations with members of his group; (2) the degree of structure in the task which the group has been assigned to perform; and (3) the power and authority which the leader's position provides.[38] Fiedler defines the favorableness of a situation as "the degree to which the situation enables the leader to exert his influence over his group."[39] In the Leadership Contingency Model, there are eight possible combinations of these three situational variables. After applying his model to various group situations, Fiedler concluded that:

> 1. Task-oriented leaders tend to perform best in group situations which are either very favorable or very unfavorable to the leader.
>
> 2. Relationships-oriented leaders tend to perform best in situations which are intermediate in favorableness.[40]

According to Blanchard and Hersey, A. K. Korman gathered some of the most convincing evidence which dispels the idea of a single best style of leader-ship.[41] Korman made an effort to review all studies which examined the relation-

ships between the Ohio State behavior dimensions of initiating structure and consideration, and various measures of effectiveness. After reviewing more than twenty-five studies, Korman concluded:

> Despite the fact that "Consideration" and "Initiating Structure" have become almost bywords in American industrial psychology, it seems apparent that very little is now known as how these variables may predict work group performance and the conditions which affect such predictions. At the current time, we cannot even say whether they have any predictive significance at all.[42]

Korman published his findings in 1966, while Hersey's adaptive leadership concept and Fiedler's Leadership Contingency Model were published the following year in 1967. Also in 1967, William J. Reddin published his 3-D Management Style theory.[43] Reddin was the first management theorist to add specifically an effectiveness dimension to the earlier Ohio State dimensions of initiating structure (task) and consideration (relationships). Thus leadership behavior could now be plotted in three dimensional terms. The effectiveness dimension added by Reddin was to allow for a variety of leadership styles which may be effective or ineffective depending on the situation.

Reddin's 3-D theory laid the foundation for the Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model developed by Blanchard and Hersey.[44] They argued that if the effectiveness of a leader behavior style depends upon the situation in which it is used, it follows that any of the basic styles may be effective or ineffective depending on the situation. The difference between the effective and ineffective styles is often not the actual behavior of the leader, they said,

but the appropriateness of this behavior to the situation in which it is used. Thus Blanchard and Hersey see a basic leader style as a particular stimulus, and it is the response to this stimulus that can be considered effective or ineffective. It is this line of reasoning which led Blanchard and Hersey to the conclusion that leader effectiveness is follower-perceived. The effective leader, then, must be able to diagnose the demands of his decision environment, and either adapt his leader style to fit those demands or be able to modify some of the situational variables, keeping in mind the organizational goals of the situation.

In 1969, Blanchard and Hersey published their Life Cycle Theory of Leadership which postulated a curvilinear relationship between the dimensions of task, relationships and follower maturity as a means towards predicting the relative effectiveness of a particular leader style. Maturity is defined by Blanchard and Hersey to mean, in the Life Cycle Theory, "the relative independence, ability to take responsibility, and achievement-motivation of an individual or group."[45] The Life Cycle Theory postulates that as the level of maturity of one's followers continues to increase, appropriate leader behavior not only requires less and less structure (task) but also less and less socio-emotional support (relationships). Therefore, the theory suggests that leader behavior

> should move from: (1) high task-low relationships behavior to (2) high task-high relationships and (3) high relationships-low task behavior to (4) low task-low relationships behavior, if one's followers progress from immaturity to maturity.[46]

Thus the relatedness of task, relationships and follower maturity dimensions can be seen in Blanchard and Hersey's model set forth below.

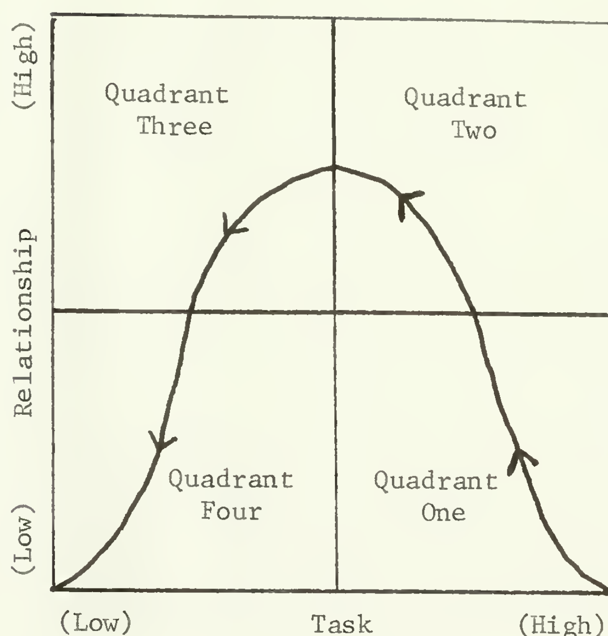

Fig. 6: Hersey & Blanchard Life Cycle Theory Grid

Another interesting aspect of the Life Cycle Theory is its implications for the span of control needed by supervisors with their followers. Blanchard and Hersey cite Harold Koontz and Cyril O'Donnell, who state:

> In every organization it must be decided how many subordinates a superior can manage. Students of management have found that this number is usually four to eight subordinates at the upper levels of organization and eight to fifteen or more at the lower levels.[47]

What the Life Cycle Theory implies is that the span of control should be a function of the maturity of the individuals being supervised. If upper level management can be assumed to function with greater maturity than lower level management, then the findings of Koontz and O'Donnell would be seemingly reversed. Upper level management could supervise more subordinates than would lower level management. What emerges would be a very interesting management model quite unlike those functioning at present.

Some Implications for Educational Management

The relationships of knowledge to behavior has intrigued learning theorists, educators, statesmen and politicians, military commanders, businessmen and parents, among others, for centuries. It remains a vital and central issue for educational management today. The teaching of children and the training of teachers seem to take place within two contextual frameworks, the differences between the two characterized at times as philosophical, pedogagical, political or merely theoretical. Context A, to so label it, states that teachers should teach what it is known that learners should learn; while Context B states that teachers should teach learners how to find out what it is they should learn and how to learn it. There are some rough parallels which may be observed between Context A and Theory X, and Context B and Theory Y assumptions. Both context A and B seem to profess the expansion in learners of their potential for increasing the range of rational behaviors in responding to inevitable change. Implied in Context A and Theory X is a direct relationship between knowledge and behavior;

while Context B and Theory Y seem to imply a more indirect relationship.

The first major implication is in the nature of change itself. According to Blanchard and Hersey, there are four basic levels of change in people: (1) knowledge changes, (2) attitudinal changes, (3) individual behavior changes, and (4) group or organizational performance changes.[48] They depict these levels of change and the time relationship and relative difficulty involved in making each of these levels of change in the following model:

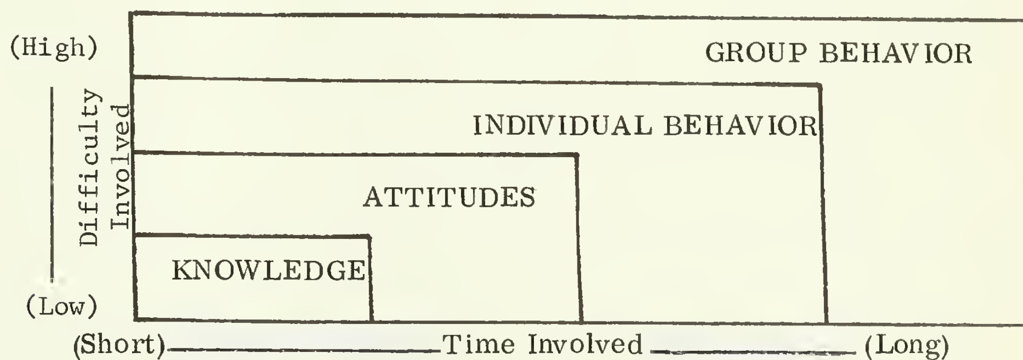

Fig. 7: Levels of Change

According to this model, knowledge changes tend to be the easiest to make. Attitude changes can result from the placing of value (positive, negative or neutral) on knowledge. This in turn can lead to a change in individual behavior and, ultimately, organizational behavior; but each step is progressively more difficult and takes more time than the preceding one if the change cycle is basically non-coercive. A coercive change cycle can reverse this progression as well as the time involved to produce change. Blanchard and Hersey depict these two change cycles as participative, depending upon personal power, and coercive, depending upon position power, and portray the cycles as follows:[49]

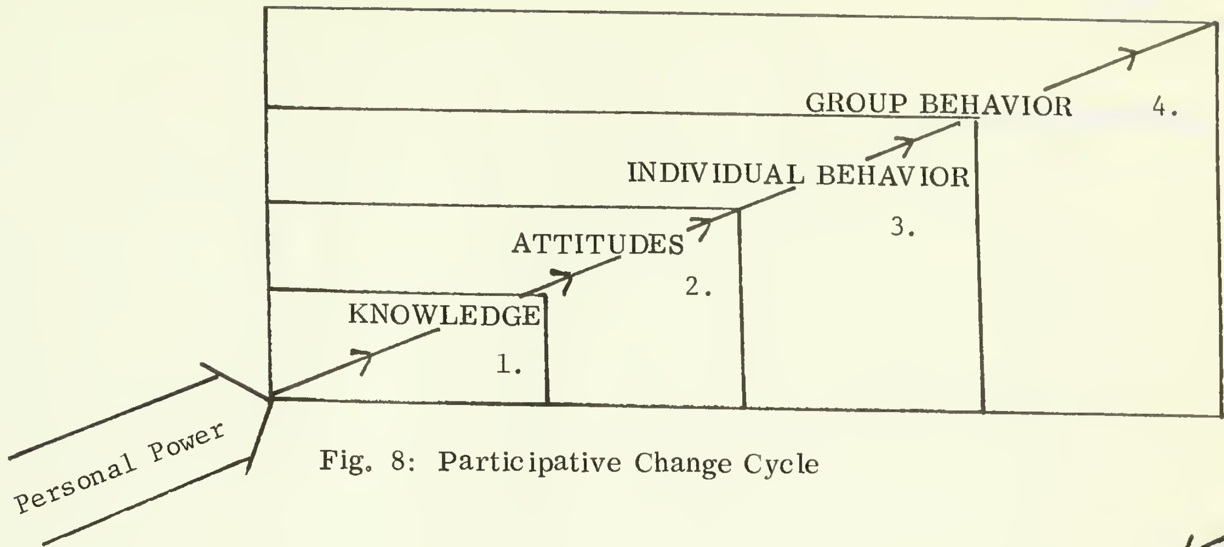

Fig. 8: Participative Change Cycle

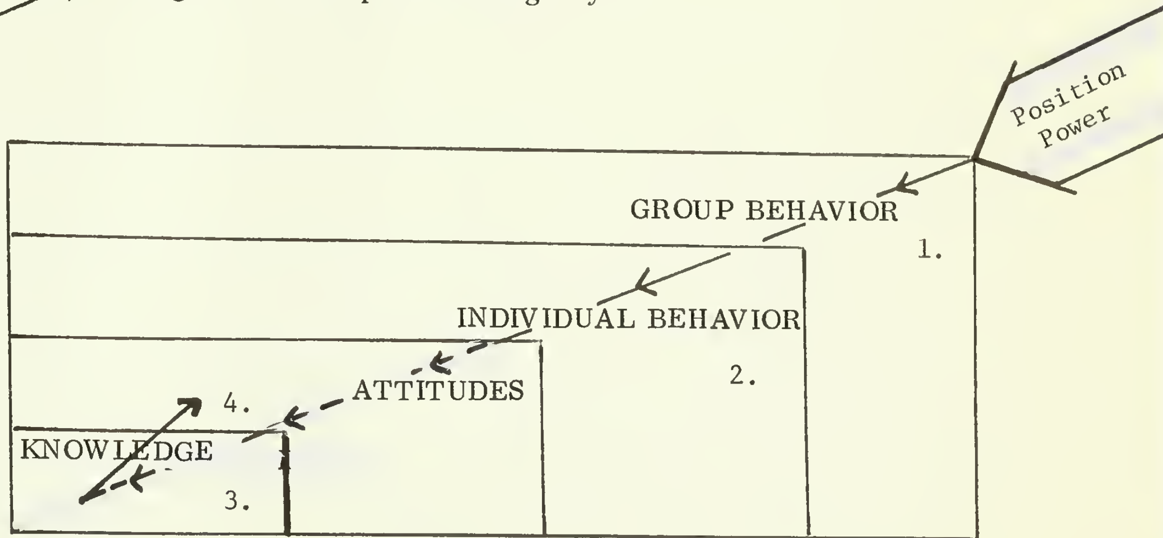

Fig. 9: Coercive Change Cycle

Blanchard and Hersey indicate the participative change cycle tends to be more appropriate for working with mature groups, while the coercive change cycle might be more productive with immature groups. This would be compatible with the premises of their Life Cycle Theory of Leadership. The main differences between the effectiveness of the two change cycles, they feel, is (1) the participative cycle takes longer and tends to produce longer-lasting change since participants are more committed to the changes, and (2) the coercive change cycle

takes less time, produces change which is less long-lasting and may well leave an attitudinal residual which is hostile to the change. In an educational environment, then, the choice is between behavior modification within a coercive environment which is likely to be speedy and temporary with hostile residual attitudes, or behavior modification within a participatory environment which will take more time but produce longer-lasting and more positive effects.

In training teachers, there would seem to be far greater value in developing a learning environment which is participatory, and in which knowledge, attitudes and behaviors can be exhibited more openly and honestly, rather than the contrived behaviors likely to result from a coercive change cycle. This was the choice made, at least, by the Teacher Corps project. It is interesting to note that a coercive change cycle seems to result when (1) an educational institution is operating at the lower levels of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, and (2) when educators with position power feel they know what learners need to learn and use their position power to promote this, and there is disagreement or lack of goal congruence with these perceptions by learners themselves.

The second major implication for educational leadership is in the nature of leadership itself. Management research indicates quite clearly that effective leadership is a function of leader behavior, follower behavior and the intervening variables of the decision environment. Thus more popular notions of leadership as a set of desirable traits, or consistent leadership style, are both faulty and of limited effectiveness. Educational leaders, therefore, need to be

aware of what leadership style is most comfortable to them, which is most dominant in their behavior, and which is most likely to be effective within a given situation. Blake and Mouton's managerial grid is a useful diagnostic tool to determine one's attitudinal preference, or predisposition, toward a particular leadership style. The Ohio State and Leader Effectiveness models indicate how people behave, and therefore provide a view of how a leader actually performed in a given situation. Both attitudinal and behavioral leadership models can provide useful feedback data to educational leaders. Application of Blanchard and Hersey's Life Cycle Theory model would also posit an effectiveness dimension to one's leader behavior.

A third significant implication, and perhaps the most important skill of all, is the need for educational managers to diagnose accurately the environment in which leadership and followership are taking place. In essence, this environment comprises three sets of variables: (1) leader behavior as an input variable, (2) follower behavior as an output variable, and (3) situational factors as intervening variables. It is the intervening variables which make diagnosing the decision environment so difficult. Also, intervening variables tend to represent long-term goals while output and input variables tend to represent short-term goals; the source of inherent conflict in many instances. Intervening variables tend to express themselves along three dimensions: (1) goal behavior, (2) goal-directed behavior, and (3) values orientation. Also, intervening variables will generate managerial conflict to the extent congruence

does not exist between leaders and followers along these dimensions.

The first step then is to identify those goals, goal-directed behaviors and values that exist between leaders and followers. Leader behavior in the absence of this information can only be speculative, somewhat arbitrarily developed and of erratic effectiveness. In actuality, leaders diagnose their decision environment with varying degrees of accuracy, with the result that their leadership has varying degrees of effectiveness. To the extent leaders lead solely on the basis of their own diagnosis of the decision environment, they seriously limit the likelihood of their leadership being effective.

For educational administrators, teacher trainers and classroom teachers, the implications are obvious. For a leader to lead solely on the basis of follower demands is similarly faulty, in that the leader may then provide no real leadership at all; appropriate in some situations, but not likely to be appropriate in all. Both elements of intervening variables, leader diagnosis (internal) and follower diagnosis (external), must interact with one another within a framework of shared goals if any leadership is to be effective on other than a somewhat random basis. The most accurate diagnosis of the decision environment will be that shared to the greatest degree by leaders and followers, even though what is shared is the differences between the perceptions of leaders and followers. In a multi-cultural setting diagnosis of the decision environment is particularly difficult, for the likelihood of values conflict is even greater than that in a more homogeneous cultural setting. But the role of the leader is to

diagnose, as accurately as possible, what intervening variables exist in a given decision situation if his leadership is to have the greatest potential for effectiveness.

A fourth major implication for educational managers is the role of conflict. Once the intervening variables of a decision environment have been identified, conflict resolution may have to occur before any organizational or group leadership can be effective. A common misperception in educational management is that voting is a democratic process designed to resolve conflict; whereas, in actuality, it is more often a decision-making process designed to impose majority views upon minority dissents. Conflict may still exist after the voting process has been completed. And yet voting is utilized in the educational environment perhaps more than any other procedure, with the possible exception of arbitrary decision-making by educational managers, as a conflict resolution process.

A consistently minority viewpoint resulting from voting or arbitrary decision-making has to produce effects in followers similar to those produced by a Theory X environment and a coercive change cycle. The precepts of academic freedom and majority rule appear to be in direct conflict with one another. In a multi-cultural educational environment, not only must goals themselves be recognized but goal-formulation itself in an organizational sense be studied as a process. In doing so, the concept of conflict needs re-examination in terms of both its positive and negative aspects, and new alternatives con-

sidered by educational managers to either resolve or legitimately recognize conflict in goals, goal-directed behavior and value orientation in various decision environments.

A fifth major implication for educational leadership is the purpose of education itself. The effectiveness of leader behavior must be related to the goals of education. Robert Glaser, writing in the June 1972 issue of the Educational Researcher, identifies two different educational modes in the U. S. which he calls selective education and adaptive education.[50] According to Glaser, a selective mode of education is characterized by minimal variation in the conditions under which individuals are expected to learn. An adaptive mode of education assumes that the educational environment can provide for a wide range and variety of instructional methods and opportunities for success. It is Glaser's view that the U. S. has produced a selective educational mode while aspiring toward an adaptive one. Such a conflict between educational aspiration and outcome carries clear managerial problems for the educational leader: he must either operate within the predominant selective mode or be continuously at odds with it in an effort to produce an adaptive mode.

The manager desiring a work environment which is predominantly Theory Y, but who works in one predominantly Theory X, has much the same set of problems and assumptions to consider. In the selective mode, there is little if any latitude allowed for differing input variables resulting from differing cultural backgrounds of students. In a non-adaptive environment for learning,

according to Glaser, "cultural deprivation is defined in terms of a set of experiences that establishes a discontinuity between preschool experiences and school requirements."[51] Whereas in an adaptive environment, Glaser states, "it would be assumed as a matter of course that the values, styles, and learning processes that the child brings to school are of intrinsic worth. These modes of behavior have, in fact, been extremely functional in the child's environment, and an adaptive setting would work with these assets of the child's functioning as a basis for a program of education."[52] Glaser recognizes that the nature of a society determines the nature of the educational system that it fosters, and educational systems tend to feed into existing social practices. If that is so,

> then an adaptive educational system carried to its ultimate conclusion may be out of joint with the present social structure. An adaptive environment assumes many ways of succeeding and many goals available from which to choose. It assumes further that no particular way of succeeding is greatly valued over the other. In our current selective environment, it is quite clear that the way of succeeding that is most valued is within the relatively fixed system provided. Success in society is defined primarily in terms of the attainment of occupations directly related to the products of this system. School-related occupations are the most valued, the most rewarding, and seen as the most desirable. However, if an adaptive mode becomes prevalent and wider constellations of human abilities are emphasized, then success will have to be differently defined; and many more alternative ways of succeeding will have to be appropriately rewarded than is presently the case.[53]

Finally, the educational manager needs to recognize that the educational environment in which he works with others is, in reality, only a temporary environment or society, somewhat tenuously related to preschool, post-school and out-of-school societies from which students enter. It seems inevitable, even in a temporary society, that conflict shall exist in our society and in our schools within a climate of constantly shifting demands. Educational managers may wish, therefore, to consider also the views of Warren Bennis and Philip Slater[54] whose position is that democracy is the only system that can successfully cope with the changing demands of contemporary civilization. What is important in their statement is the conceptualization they set forth of democracy as:

> A system of values--a climate of beliefs governing behavior--which people are internally compelled to affirm by deeds as well as words. These values included:
>
> 1. Full and free communication, regardless of rank and power.
>
> 2. A reliance on consensus, rather than the more customary forms of coercion or compromise to manage conflict.
>
> 3. The idea that influence is based on technical competence and knowledge rather than on the vagaries of personal whims and prerogatives of power.
>
> 4. An atmosphere that permits and even encourages emotional expression as well as task-oriented acts.
>
> 5. A basically human bias, one that accepts the inevitability of conflict between the organization

> and the individual, but that is willing to cope with and mediate this conflict on rational grounds.[55]

Summary

This review of the literature strongly suggests that educationa leaders, to be effective, must understand different change cycles, be able to use appropriately situational leadership styles, diagnose accurately the decision environment, utilize alternative conflict resolution processes--all within an identified mode of education that shares common goals held by leaders and followers. It is no wonder, then, that effective educational leaders are rare; but the rarity seems to be identifiable as a lack of skills, not of mystical traits or unlimited power, and the relative absence of goal congruence resulting from delimited efforts to reconcile minority values in a society and its schools in which majority views are overwhelmingly exclusive and dominant.

The Teacher Corps project, while starting with many different viewpoints, evolved into an educational endeavor in which the prevailing interests of its participants were centered around Context B and Theory Y assumptions, participative change cycles, situational leadership, more positive views of the inevitability of conflict, adaptive modes of education, and the dimensions of a democratic environment listed by Slater and Bennis immediately above. Chapter IV continues this study by reviewing some of the management strategies utilized by the project, while Chapter V analyzes the emergent roles of competence and consensus as prime dimensions of project leadership.

CHAPTER III--FOOTNOTES

[1]Kenneth H. Blanchard and Paul Hersey, Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources (lst ed.; Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1969), p. 61.

[2]Ibid., p. 62.

[3]Elton Mayo, The Social Problems of an Industrial Civilization (Boston: Harvard Business School, 1945), p. 23.

[4]Ibid., pp. 34-56.

[5]Blanchard and Hersey, p. 62.

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CHAPTER IV

MANAGING THE PARTNERSHIP: STRATEGIES UTILIZED FOR BUILDING INSTITUTIONAL PARTNERSHIPS AND NEGOTIATING INSTITUTIONAL CONFLICT

It is the purpose of this chapter to describe the major management activities of the Sixth Cycle Teacher Corps project with a focus on those strategies utilized for building instititutional partnerships and negotiating institutional conflict. The implementation of field-based teacher training programs usually involves the collaboration of several different institutions. Difficulties are often encountered in developing a management framework in which the sharing of institutional goals and the reconciling of institutional conflict permit effective operations. This chapter looks at the overall management structure of the Teacher Corps project as it got underway, the relationship of project staff to the institutional partners in the project, the principal management strategies and their modifications throughout the project's various grant periods, and some particular issues affecting fiscal managment operations. The chapter concludes with a typology of conflict resulting from an analysis of the project's interactions with its institutional partners.

The management activities described are not always compatible with the theories and their implications contained in the summary section of Chapter III, for some of that information was not fully recognized during the project's

implementation. However, the activities and structures described are selected because of their significance in affecting the project's operations.

Management Design

Management Structure

Although a joint-venture management model was approved for the Teacher Corps project, the explicit operationalization of this had been only partially realized in the project proposal. The two basic dimensions of the joint-venture model were (1) management within the project (internal), and (2) management across the institutional partnership (external). Management within the project was to be coordinated by a core staff consisting of one full-time and two part-time staff at the University of Massachusetts and two full-time staff within the Providence School Department. A full-time secretary in each location provided additional administrative staff support. An Advisory Council consisting of project, school and community representatives was also developed to aid the project's planning and implementation.

Several considerations affected this core design. First, the original Project Director-designate, who had assisted the development of the original project proposal, resigned prior to the proposal's approval on March 15, 1971. Repeated delays by Teacher Corps/Washington in deciding whether or not the proposal would be approved made it imperative for the director-designate to respond to other employment offers. A new Project Director was subsequently identified and hired, joining the project full-time in June, 1971. The program

Development Specialist, basically responsible for organizing and coordinating the preservice/inservice program, resigned at the end of the preservice period (August, 1971), and another Program Development Specialist was identified and hired, joining the project in August, 1971, permitting some overlap in the position.

At the LEA level, the School Coordinator and the Community Coordinator participated in the preservice program to become familiar with the concepts and approaches proposed for experimental use in the Providence middle school classrooms. It became increasingly evident that the School Coordinator only partially understood many of the proposed concepts, was basically in opposition to them, and was not in support of major project goals. During the final week of preservice training, in a meeting with middle school principals, social studies teachers and other administrative officials of the Providence School Department, he charged that the preservice program had not sufficiently prepared the interns for entry into the middle schools. Amid much consternation, the principals consulted with their respective social studies teachers and designated Teacher Corps teams for a morning of discussions. The result of these deliberations was a decision by all the principals that all the interns were adequately prepared and were ready to go to work. The School Coordinator immediately resigned and was replaced two months later (November, 1971) by another School Coordinator. Needless to say, entering the middle schools without a full-time school coordinator knowledgeable and supportive of project goals, seriously hampered the team's entry into schools.

In the fall of 1971, Rhode Island College was added to the management structure outlined above. Although Teacher Corps/Washington had approved the involvement and participation of Rhode Island College in implementing the project, no monies were directly provided Rhode Island College from Teacher Corps/ Washington. In order to establish a working relationship between the project and Rhode Island College which was functional and consistent, the University of Massachusetts staff agreed to reimburse Rhode Island College for the half-time instructional services of one of their faculty.[1] Rhode Island College had previously identified Dr. Walter Crocker as a person whom they wanted to join their faculty, but Rhode Island College did not have sufficient funds to employ him full-time. The willingness of the University of Massachusetts to reimburse Rhode Island College for Dr. Crocker's half-time services permitted (1) Rhode Island College to hire a faculty member in whom they were very interested, (2) the University of Massachusetts to make available to project members a person who could coordinate onsite instructional service and inschool support, and (3) a direct operational link between the project and Rhode Island College.

From November, 1971 to September, 1972, this core staff stayed intact in terms of its personnel, which also included a half-time social studies resource teacher. In September, 1973, the School Coordinator assumed full-time responsibilities as one of four segment chiefs for the Providence School Department, and the Community Coordinator resigned her position. In consultation with project personnel the School Coordinator retained his representative

functions but delegated his day-to-day responsibilities to an LEA management team formulated and filled by other project personnel, this reorganization is described later in the chapter.

The turnover in core staff personnel in the early stages of the project clearly had its effects. On the negative side, there was concern within the Providence School Department about possible lack of continuity and the entry into middle schools of Teacher Corps teams with no School Coordinator. While there was general relief among corpsmembers that they would not have to work with the now-resigned School Coordinator, they saw his role as an essential one and were concerned about the absence of the support his role was to provide. Also, corpsmembers were concerned about the change in Program Development Specialists, as this was the major coordinating role in their degree and teacher certification program with the university, and the replacement person was new to a very complicated program. Thus there was considerable pressure placed on the University of Massachusetts staff to respond to the anxieties and needs of both corpsmembers and school department personnel.

On the positive side, the project would not have to work with a School Coordinator clearly opposed to project goals, from whom objections rather than needed support would have been more likely to appear. Also, the addition of Dr. Crocker from Rhode Island College provided badly needed coordination for onsite instruction and technical support to corpsmembers in their classrooms. While staff turnover initially created some real problems and pressures, it

is the assessment of this writer that the project gained far more than it lost; but the short-term pressures were considerable.

Relationship of Project Staff to Institutional Partners

Project staff did not exist, of course, in a vacuum from their institutional employers. At the University of Massachusetts, project staff were responsible to the Dean of the School of Education through the Director of the Center for International Education, who was the University's principal investigator for the grant, and to the Assistant Dean for Special Programs. In the Providence School Department, the School and Community Coordinators were responsible to the Social Studies Supervisor who reported to the Director of Curriculum who reported to the Superintendent. The school management design in Providence underwent several changes. By the second year of the project (1972/73) the LEA project staff was responsible to the Experimental Programs Administrator who reported to the Planning and Program Development Coordinator who reported to the Superintendent. At Rhode Island College, Dr. Crocker was subsequently promoted to Assistant Dean for Innovative Programs and reported directly to the Dean, Educational Services Division, Rhode Island College.

With the exception of the three staff members at the University of Massachusetts, project staff were comprised of people who had a vested interest in maintaining their employment with their institutional employer at the end of the project. The Project Director, Assistant Project Director and Program

Development Specialist were all soft-money appointments at the University of Massachusetts, and none of the three was interested in long-term employment at the University. This allowed those staff members to be less influenced by institutional politics and agendas, and thereby increased their flexibility in negotiating institutional conflict both at the University and among the partnership.

Another major consideration was the prevailing management environments of the institutional partners themselves. Those environments are summarized below according to this writer's perceptions of their institutional behavior and how each institution saw itself. These perceptions were necessarily subjective, but they formed a basis for interacting with the institutional partners by the writer and others. The numbers reflect Likert's scale of management systems set forth in Chapter III:* System 1 indicates management has no confidence in subordinates, and decisions and goals are made at the top of the organization and issued down; System 2 indicates management has a condescending trust in subordinates who are permitted to make some decisions within a prescribed framework, but most decisions are made at the top; System 3 indicates that management has a substantial trust in subordinates and, while policy is set at the top, subordinates are permitted to make decisions within policy and engage in two-way communication up and down the hierarchy; and System 4 indicates that management has complete trust in subordinates, decision-making is widely dispersed

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*A full discussion of Likert's scale of management systems appears on page 77, of Chapter III.

throughout the organization, and communication is not only up and down the hierarchy but among peers.

TABLE 5

CLASSIFICATION OF MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS AMONG INSTITUTIONAL PARTNERSHIPS

Institution	Group's Self-Image	Writer's Perceptions
Teacher Corps/Washington	3	2
School of Education, University of Massachusetts	4	2+
Providence School Department	3	1+
Rhode Island College	3	2

Over the last two years these environments have not necessarily remained stable. The Providence School Department moved from a System 1 towards a System 2 as decision-making became more consultative and decentralized. Rhode Island College has seemed to remain at about a System 2 level; at least this writer observed no significant changes in institutional behavior. The School of Education, on the other hand, appeared to move backwards from a System 3 level of two years ago to its present System 2 level. This resulted primarily from a more authoritarian leadership posture by the school administration produced by a diversity of interests and needs among faculty and students

beyond that which the school administration was willing to recognize. The result was a general tightening up in school-wide decision-making by restructuring the school framework within which faculty and students were permitted to participate. Teacher Corps/Washington also appeared to move from a System 3 level of two years ago to a System 2, primarily because of a change in its national directorship and a more conservative political climate.

The project's efforts to develop a prevailing management environment for its own internal use, and one which permitted effective functioning with other environments, was complicated by the relationship of the IHE/LEA project staff to Teacher Corps/Washington. This relationship was continually unclear. Although the Teacher Corps agency implemented its programs through a grant award procedure, representatives of the agency consistently attempted to interfere with and direct the grant's implementation through directives, memos, onsite visits and the withholding of procedural approvals necessary to the project's continued funding. The agency continually presented project staff with a perception of the project as <u>their</u> project, run by <u>their</u> project staff, for <u>their</u> interns in accord with <u>their</u> views of the moment. Project staff consistently rejected this presentation of agency views, and pointed to documents, amendments, letters and memos of record previously agreed to by the agency as its mandate for operation. This relationship remained a difficult one throughout the project's implementation and will be further reviewed in a subsequent portion of this chapter.

Implementation Strategies

<u>Preservice Management</u> (July-August, 1971)

During the preservice training period, July and August of 1971, most of the management of the project fell to the University of Massachusetts staff. This was somewhat natural in that they had most of the available information about the project's design and goals. The LEA staff (School and Community Coordinators) was not familiar with many of the basic concepts around which the project was focused, *e.g.*, team-teaching, competency-based education, affective education. Similarly, team leaders and interns were newly assembled and, for the most part, unfamiliar with many of these concepts as well as the project design itself. Thus staff responsibilities tended to be most heavily focused upon the University of Massachusetts. Their responsibilities were undertaken however, within a predominantly Theory Y, or participatory, environment. The need to involve those affected by decisions in their formulation was seen by University of Massachusetts staff as both necessary and desirable if staff leadership was to provide a model consistent with the project's management design.

For the most part, project management was carried out by project staff in accord with previously and publicly stated goals and processes. When new issues affecting the project arose, efforts were made to involve concerned project personnel (staff and corpsmembers) in both problem-analyzing and problem-resolution activities. Two group methods were utilized in doing this: (1) a committee structure and (2) project meetings. Project personnel concerned about a particular project activity were encouraged to meet together in an effort

to help formulate a satisfactory response to that concern. Thus a number of ad hoc issue-oriented groups or committees formed throughout the preservice period to provide needed input into the management structure. Some issues were of sufficient concern that most or all project personnel were affected. On these occasions, project meetings were held with all project personnel invited to attend and participate.

The preservice period was characterized, then, by a great deal of structure initiated by University of Massachusetts project staff. This structure, however, was open to modification by other project personnel when (1) more viable structures could be identified and (2) more effective learning/management alternatives could be formulated and implemented. Furthermore, the structure initiated was principally focused on a core of preservice activities encompassing about six hours a day, five days a week. All other preservice activities were optional with corpsmembers being encouraged to initiate their own structure to receive access to project resources and services most likely to meet their needs. For example, as the preservice program progressed, modifications were made in scheduling, subject content and even in the choice of instructors. Special sessions were set up for groups which had special interests they wanted to pursue, and both individual and team counselling was available at practically any time. It was perhaps indicative of the availability of services to corpsmembers, as well as the pressure felt by everyone to get prepared for entry into the schools, that voluntary training activities were usually in evidence from

mid-afternoon to after midnight throughout the preservice period.

First Inservice Year (September, 1971-June, 1972)

With the entry of the Teacher Corps teams into the eight middle schools of Providence, and the beginning of the academic school year, project management was characterized by LEA staff (school and community coordinators) assuming basic responsibility for the school and community activities of corpsmembers in Providence, and the University of Massachusetts project staff coordinating the inservice training program. Over all project coordination was provided by the IHE Project Director and the LEA Coordinator.

Several factors inhibited the implementation of this plan. As already indicated, the LEA School Coordinator resigned his position at the end of the preservice program. His responsibilities were temporarily assigned to the Providence Social Studies Supervisor who already had a full-time job. A full-time replacement was not employed until two months later. Second, close and constant communication between the IHE and LEA was essential if (1) the transfer of the teams from preservice status to on-the-job status in the middle schools was to be accomplished as productively as possible, (2) the school and community activities of corpsmembers were to be integrated into and complementary with the inservice training program, and (3) there was to be sufficient conceptual clarity and continuity in the new approaches to teaching/learning being attempted by corpsmembers to permit a legitimate and sufficient opportunity for their survival

and experimentation.

Third, a team approach towards meeting project management needs seemed to hold higher promise than staff roles defined primarily by title and institutional affiliation. Thus while the LEA staff retained their basic responsibility for the school and community activities of corpsmembers, and the IHE staff was principally responsible for the corpsmembers' inservice training program and over all project coordination, efforts were made to match project management needs with available skills among the management team with less emphasis on purely titular functions.

Project-wide decision-making during the first inservice year continued to rely on the project meeting and the issue-oriented committee structure for direct influence of the management system. Project meetings were held almost weekly as corpsmembers found themselves involved with a wide variety of complex issues related to their participation in the project. The chief characteristics of the project meetings were:

1. They were open to project personnel and anyone interested in the project.
2. They attempted to share as much information as possible with participants when considering issues of concern to them.
3. Efforts were continually made to reconcile differences in making decisions rather than rely on a strict majority rule procedure.

4. Long meetings of three and four hours were not uncommon.

Project meetings provided maximum opportunity for participation and communication within the project, and both were vital issues to corpsmembers. Because the meetings were usually quite long and involved issues of varying degrees of concern to individuals, some participants felt that project meetings favored those who were highly verbal, aggressive and had the patience to endure lengthy meetings. However, throughout the fall and winter, corpsmember participation in project meetings was high; but, in the spring, project-wide attendance began to fall off. At this point, teams were encouraged to have at least one of their members present at project meetings to communicate the views of the team with regard to specific issues, and to act as a communicator by conveying back to the team decisions and discussions resulting from project meetings.

The management team and the project meeting were the principal decision-making structures for the project during the first inservice year, with the management team operating within established policies, procedures and priorities, and the project meeting functioning to review, modify and establish new policies, procedures and priorities where needed to further project goals. The work of both the management team and the project meetings were supplemented by a committee structure involving both ad hoc and ongoing committees involving various project personnel. The committees were voluntary in nature, and

encompassed a wide range of project-related issues. Among the most important of those groups were (1) the Committee of Concerned Black Interns, which sought to focus project concern on the issues of racism, the Black perspective in education and the needs of Black and other minority students; (2) the African Content Committee, which guided the project's thinking about the focus of African Studies in the inservice program and in curriculum development efforts; (3) the Exits Requirements Committee, which took on the job of identifying, at least tentatively, those competencies essential to urban middle school teaching; (4) the Volunteer Component Committee, which developed and successfully negotiated a project amendment resulting in over fifteen thousand dollars of additional Teacher Corps money for a variety of community-based education activities; (5) the Staff Monitoring Committee, which helped define project staff roles and monitored staff performance. The number and diversity of these committees, about twenty over the two year period of the project, permitted the project to expand the range of its activities and concerns, and allowed individuals and groups to pursue concerns of special interest to them. While some corpsmembers participated in none of these committees and others participated in perhaps too many, the total effect of the committees was to significantly increase both the scope and involvement of corpsmembers in project decision-making, and to extend the total impact of the project's management system.

Intervening Summer (July-August, 1972).

The summer between the two academic year periods of the project is one in which two basic expectations of corpsmembers are held by the National Teacher Corps Agency: (1) The continuation of the inservice training of corpsmembers by the IHE, and (2) the involvement of corpsmembers in community-based education activities within the LEA site.[2] There is usually little involvement by the LEA in the intervening summer and no grant monies are allocated to the LEA for this period. The management plan for the University of Massachusetts-Providence project, however, maintained the need for LEA participation in the summer program.[3] Thus the staff management team for the project was kept intact.

The management of the project's summer was designed to maintain its essential institutional partnership. At the same time, options for corpsmembers were wide open and their participation in determining project activities for the intervening summer equally essential. Thus project personnel approved the formulation and submission to Teacher Corps/Washington of a summer amendment which:

1. maintained the institutional partnership.
2. stated the extent and nature of the planning by each of the eight Teacher Corps teams for summer activities in both inservice training and community-based education.

3. described proposed criteria and decision-making procedures for reaching final decisions on summer activities.

4. proposed budgets and supporting rationale.

Central to the amendment was the following project position:

> Project activities may be on any of these levels: project-wide, team and individual. These activities will be based upon three over-all priorities.
> 1. Community-based activities acceptable to the partnership.
> 2. Inservice activities negotiated between interns, University of Massachusetts and Rhode Island College.
> 3. Continuation of activities directly related to project goals for institutional change within the Providence School system, including those activities mandatory for the project's effective transition to the second school year's programs in the Providence middle schools.
>
> Explicit throughout this amendment is the requirement that the institutional elements of the present partnership--the University of Massachusetts and the Providence School Department--be maintained financially and functionally if project goals are not to be seriously impaired.[4]

Each team then agreed to provide information about their summer interests in the following areas:[5]

1. Present Community-Based Education Activities

2. Curriculum Development

3. Participation in On-Going Community Activities

4. Design of Alternative Community Activities

5. Training of Providence Teachers

6. Personal and Professional Growth Needs of Project Members

The next step was to determine criteria by which decisions could be made, and to establish a Summer Planning Group to coordinate further planning and implementation.

A Summer Planning Group was set up with representatives of each institutional partner and at least one representative from each of the eight corpsmember teams. The writer functioned as the University of Massachusetts representative in the Summer Planning Group. This group held a meeting, to which other project personnel were invited, for the purpose of implementing proposed criteria for approving community-based education activities and inservice training activities for the summer. A subsequent meeting was held with the project's Advisory Council for a review of the proposed criteria. The Advisory Council approved the criteria with some minor modifications, and corpsmembers were requested to submit their summer plans in accord with the approved criteria. These criteria were:

Criteria for Community-Based Education Activities

A. Identification of needs by community

B. Project visibility

C. Community responsiveness

D. Corpsmembers competencies

E. Carryover after corpsmember terminates his participation

F. Extension of successful school year educational activities

G. Parent-school interaction

H. Increasing adult responsibility to community

I. Consciousness raising in the community

J. Community involvement of regular Providence teachers

K. Parent leadership

L. Increasing the relevance of education for the community

M. Growth potential for corpsmembers

N. Develop more positive self-image within community youth

O. Promote inter-racial harmony

P. Increase political awareness of community

Q. Growth potential for community participants

R. Involvement of community groups in reaching decisions about community-based education activities

Criteria for Inservice Training

A. Meet individual project member's needs for professional growth.

B. Meet Providence school system's needs for trained, innovative teachers.

C. Meet Providence school system's needs for relevant, competency-based social studies curriculum.

D. Meet Providence school system's needs for opportunities.

E. Meet Rhode Island College's needs for opportunity to examine and participate in alternative models of inservice education.

F. Meet University of Massachusetts' master's degree requirements.

G. Meet certification requirements in Massachusetts and Rhode Island.

H. Meet Teacher Corps needs for achieving project goals.[6]

Corpsmembers' summer plans had to be consistent with at least one of these criteria, and not work against the interests of other approved criteria. The decision-making process in reviewing and approving summer plans was as follows:

1. The Summer Planning Group reviewed proposed summer plans of corpsmembers against stated criteria.
2. If the proposed plans contained information which was either insufficient or unclear, the plans were returned to respective corpsmembers with a request for more information. Such plans were neither approved or disapproved, but placed in a pending category.
3. If the proposed plans contained sufficient and clear information the Summer Planning Group decided whether the plans were approved or disapproved. An attempt was made to achieve consensus on such decisions, but where this was not possible a significant majority vote was decisive. Voting results in which only one or two votes formed a simple majority were generally viewed as unacceptable, and generated further discussions about why group members were responding differently to the same proposed plans. These discussions usually resulted in either a significant majority vote or a request

to the corpsmember concerned for more information.

4. If a proposed summer plan was disapproved, the Summer Planning Group provided the corpsmember concerned with a written statement of why the plans had been disapproved. The corpsmember could then accept this decision and submit new or revised plans, or meet with the Summer Planning Group to reconsider the information provided and the disapproval decision.

5. If there was no agreement between the Summer Planning Group and the corpsmember following the appeal for reconsideration, the issue would be submitted to the project's Advisory Council whose decision would be binding. (This was never necessary.)

Once all summer activities had been approved, a draft budget was developed which proposed a distribution of available project resources to carry out these activities. The Summer Planning Group had purposely separated the issue of validity from that of funding for proposed summer activities. In a few cases no project funds were requested and, in a few others, non-project funds were already available. Thus the Summer Planning Group approved all activities subject to the availability of project or other resources if needed. The proposed budget for the summer was then reviewed in a project meeting, modified, and subsequently approved. As the project's resources were not sufficient to

support fully all the activities proposed by corpsmembers, several compromises had to be made; however, those directly affected by possible adjustments had the opportunity to participate in the project-wide discussions of the proposed budget and to offer alternative solutions. Most importantly, all involved in the summer were able to participate, if they chose to do so, in making the final decisions on the content of the summer budget. Thus all the information about proposed activities, resource allocations, criteria utilized and compromises between needed and available project resources were both public and determined by the project as a whole.

While this process was a very orderly one, it was also very time consuming. It required about six meetings by the Summer Planning Group of three to five hours each to review all the planned summer activities of corpsmembers, get additional information where required and negotiate any conflicts. Actually, conflicts were very infrequent as almost all plans submitted by corpsmembers conformed to the criteria adopted. In only one instance was a plan formally disapproved. Those involved were informed of the committee's decision and reasons, and invited to meet with the committee if they wanted to pursue the issue further. They did later meet with the commitee, where the issues were successfully resolved, and the committee then approved the revised plans.

Approved summer activities were many and varied. Most of them involved either individuals or small groups of corpsmembers. Examples included: (1) organizing and coordinating a summer community school at one of the middle

schools; (2) teaching Black Studies at the Adult Correctional Institution, in both minimum and maximum security sections; (3) organizing a city-wide African Arts Festival for Black youth; (4) tutoring under the auspices of various community agencies; (5) organizing and operating Project Exodus, a program to get inner-city kids out to nearby park and recreation areas; (6) pursuing curriculum development work in Providence or in Africa; (7) developing a handbook listing community information and referral services; (8) working in day care centers; (9) teaching English as a second language; and (10) organizing voter registration and parent visitation programs. In most cases, corpsmembers pursued inservice instructional programs closely related or complementary to their approved community activities.

An important dimension to the intervening summer period was the addition of thirteen new interns to the project. During the first inservice year period, the project had negotiated approval from Teacher Corps/Washington to fill vacancies created by corpsmembers completing and/or leaving the project by the end of the intervening summer with minority applicants.[7] The recruitment and selection of these new interns was coordinated by the Committee of Concerned Black Interns. Corpsmembers worked with project staff and other LEA personnel on developing and implementing an abbreviated preservice training program in August, prior to the beginning of the project's second inservice year period in September, 1972. Additional funds were negotiated from Teacher Corps/ Washington to undertake this recruitment and training.

Second Inservice Year.

During the early summer of 1972, it became apparent that the School Coordinator for the Teacher Corps project would assume new responsibilities in September as one of four Segment Chiefs for the Providence School Department. Under a new management plan within the Providence School Department, the City of Providence was divided into four geographic areas. Each area was to be administered by a Segment Chief, the position to which the School Coordinator was to be promoted. Since joining the project in November of 1971, the School Coordinator had become a vital and dynamic force in the project's management. The anticipated vacancy of his critical position forced a re-examination of the LEA coordinator's role in terms of the overall management design, the project's experience to date, and the direction the project expected to take in its second year of operation.

Another factor contributing to this re-examination was the fact that the Providence School Department itself had instituted a new internal reorganization plan[8] to become effective by September, 1972. This broad reorganization had eliminated the Social Studies Supervisor's office that had served as the base of operations for the LEA staff. The School Coordinator had functioned under the authority of this office, and the support and resources available through it had been a major factor in the operational style of the School Coordinator. The new re-organization plan placed the Teacher Corps project under the overall guidance and authority of the Experimental Programs Administrator. This new office was to be

headed up by a person yet to be named and included responsibility for a variety of programs. These combined factors generated concern that:

1. The day-to-day operation of the project would lose valuable time while the new Experimental Programs Administrator gained familiarity with the project.
2. The task of providing the necessary communication links between the project and the Providence School Department would be complicated by the initial lack of clarity about the role priorities and operational style of this new office and its occupant.
3. This communication problem would be compounded by introducing into this relationship a new School Coordinator.

A further concern evolving from the review of the School Coordinator vacancy was the broad scope of the coordinator's role as it had evolved out of the major demands of the project, and the coordinator's ability to respond to those demands. In reviewing the role of the School Coordinator, five specific operational functions were identified: (1) project coordination, (2) community coordination, (3) administrative procedural functions, (4) classroom support, and (5) institutional liaison or representational functions. To find a replacement possessing all these skills was highly unlikely; and, in view of the fact the project would likely continue for only nine months, it would be difficult to get a

major commitment from such an individual unfamiliar with the project.

Other major factors were actively considered in the development of a new management plan for the second inservice year. As indicated in the second inservice year amendment:

> A third consideration has to do with the effort to consistently turn as many project decisions as possible to those people who carry responsibility for the day-to-day work of the project. The people who at this point have the best understanding of the project, its goals and potential, are groups of corpsmembers who have agonized through its initial months of trial and error. It is essential that the project design find ways to maximize the contribution of corpsmember resources in its management decisions.
>
> A fourth major consideration is that the understanding that the scope and nature of University of Massachusetts' intervention in operational matters would remain minimal. One strategy frequently discussed but to date minimally effected is that of shifting technical guidance emphasis from University of Massachusetts to Rhode Island College. Rhode Island College should assume responsibility for the part of the project that could be expected to remain at the end of the two-year period through Dr. Walter Crocker. To date, he has demonstrated interest and has proceeded to assume the major responsibility for classroom support for the project. The limits of Rhode Island College's involvement in this aspect of project implementation are largely set by the limits of project resources. With more assistance, Dr. Crocker could easily assume full responsibility for the day-to-day guidance of classroom instruction and of the support functions associated with collection, quality control and dissemination of instructional modules.[9]

In brief, the management plàn proposed for the second inservice year of the project:

> Seeks to avoid problems implicit in the loss of the present school coordinator. This loss would entail a loss of familiarity with the project, the school department, the community, and the diverse personalities and complex historical development of the project. In addition, the plan seeks to realign the functions of the institutional partners to reflect a more definitive allocation of responsibilities for meeting major project needs.[10]

The new overall management design is depicted graphically on the following page. Essential to its design are three major dimensions: (1) the retention of the institutional partnership between Rhode Island College, Providence School Department and the University of Massachusetts; (2) the differentiation of job roles in accord with the functional competencies identified by project personnel to be most crucial its successful implementation; and (3) the transference to corpsmembers of greater and more direct responsibility for the management of the project. As the respective roles and responsibilities of the proposed job roles were critical to this new management design, they have been set forth in full in Appendix F. The project's rationale for the new management model was summarized as follows:

> It is the collective judgment of project personnel that the proposed new management model includes the following dimensions:
>
> 1. It is derived from project experience.

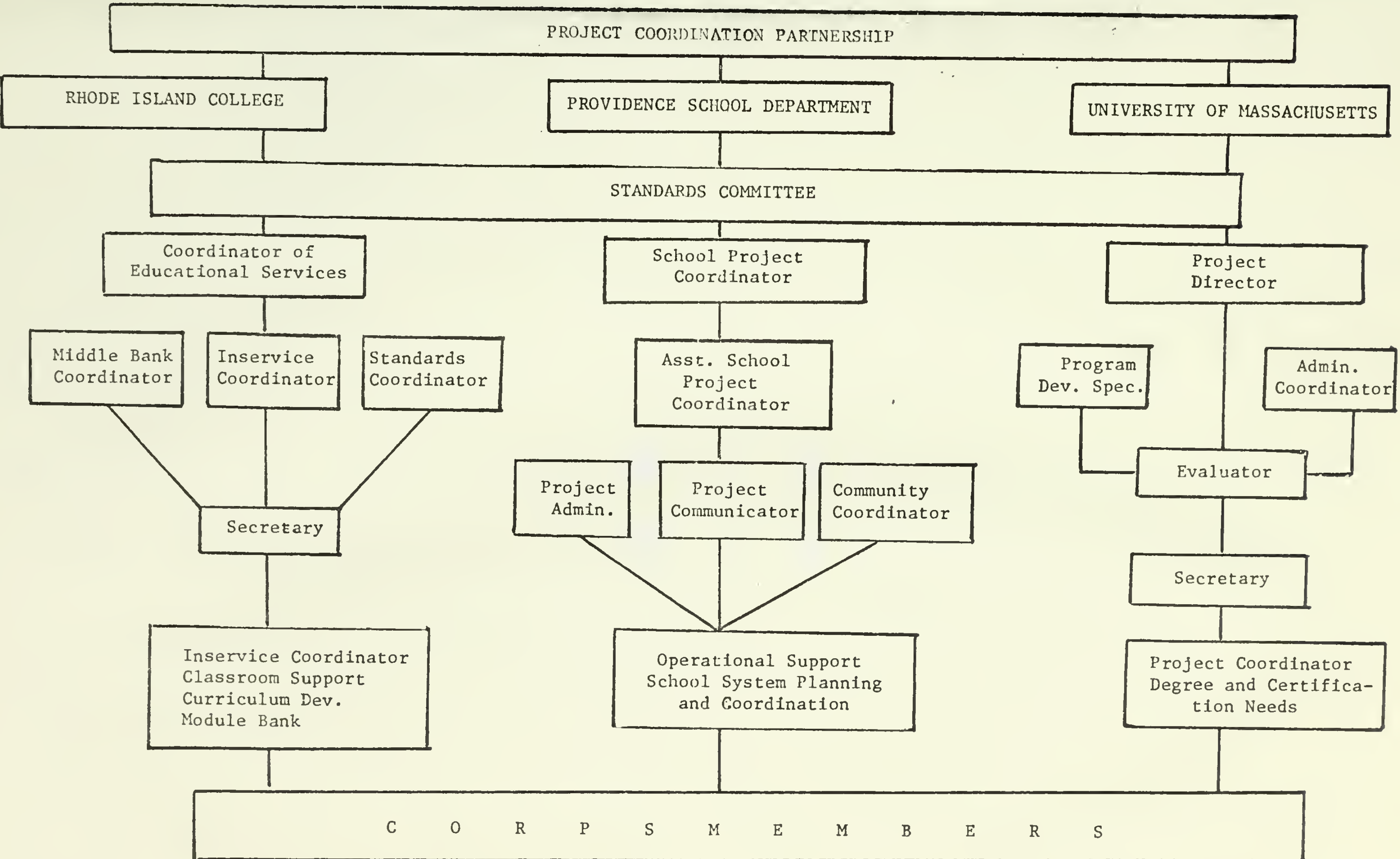

Figure 10: Management Team Functions—Second Inservice Year

2. It is designed to meet the needs of this project at no additonal cost to the project.

3. Positions are functional in description and combine a flexible series of the full-time and part time responsibilities.

4. The plan is consistent with the project's goals for institutional change.

5. The plan differentiates responsibilities within a competency-based format thereby maximizing individuals' skills and their impact upon and through the project.

6. The model affords new professional learning opportunities to corpsmembers, and places a larger amount of project management directly in their hands.[11]

Once the proposed new positions were established, those project personnel interested in filling any of the positions were invited to submit a proposed job description for themselves, a proposed salary range, a statement as to why they wished to seek the position and what skills they felt they had to offer, and whether their job should be full or part-time. Explicit in these invitations were (1) the need to stay within the project's fiscal resources and priorities; (2) the view that the proposed job roles, while professional, would allow project members to try out some newly developed or newly defined skills, and (3) the project probably could not pay people what they were worth, but could pay more than the present intern stipend rate of $90 per week. A series of project meetings were held for the purpose of determining which applicants the

project wished to hire, for what job responsibilities, and at what salary. The following table summarizes the results of those meetings.

At first glance, this may look like a very top heavy staff structure for a project of 56 corpsmembers. However, it must be remembered that the project was engaged in a variety of complex and substantive agendas: (1) the creation and implementation of a competency-based teacher training program, (2) the creation and testing of curriculum materials in African Studies and other content areas, (3) the pursuance of institutional change goals for both the IHE and the LEA, and (4) the development of a teacher training program which met the needs of trainees, as well as those of trainers. The usual Teacher Corps staffing structure might have sufficed for any one of these agendas, but for the combination it was clearly inadequate. Furthermore, the usual allocation of project resources has been a top-down process with managers informing followers of their options. In this case, resource allocation and fiscal priorities were determined by the project as a whole.

The dollar costs for this management structure were only slightly more than that originally budgeted for administrative positions. The project had an advantage in formulating this structure in that team leaders retained their salaries, but some were able to restructure their functions at no additional costs to the project. Interns could use these new management positions as training grounds for further refinement of related skills and still retain their involvement in degree and certification programs, but they had to pay their own

TABLE 6

EXTENDED MANAGEMENT TEAM--SECOND INSERVICE YEAR

Function	Name	% Time	Previous Position
I. Rhode Island College			
Coordinator of Educational Services	Dr. Walter Crocker*	50	Inservice Instructor School Support
Module Bank Coordinator	Oscar Nkomo	100	Intern
Module Bank Coordinator	Gloria Strazar	100	Intern
Inservice Coordinator	Jerome Frieberg	100	Team Leader
Standards Coordinator	Marcia Reback	50	Social Studies Resource Teacher
Secretary	Eileen Kinney	100	None
II. Providence School District			
School Coordinator	Herb Williams*	100	LEA Coordinator
Asst. School Coordinator	Pearl Spears	100	Team Leader
Project Administrator	Linda Thompson	100	LEA Project Secretary
Project Communicator	Diana McNair	100	Intern
Community Coordinator	James Alexander	100	Intern
III. University of Massachusetts			
Project Director	William Tutman*	100	Same
Administrative Coordinator	Ronald Bell*	50	Same
Program Development Specialist	Mary Alice Wilson*	50	Same
Evaluator	(Unfilled)		
Secretary	Anne Gates	100	Same

*The Staff Monitoring Committee had previously recommended the retention of

tuition and fees at the University of Massachusetts if they accepted other than an intern stipend in their new positions. Not all of these options would be available to other teacher training projects, but they were in this instance and the project made use of them.

The chief outcomes of the new management model were to expand the decentralization of management throughout the project, to shift increasing responsibility to onsite personnel in Providence and to increase the number and quality of management services available to the project.

In the implementation of the new management design, several small but important modifications were made. First, the project decided that the task of coordinating the development of the module bank required two full-time people. Second, the community coordinator resigned in the early fall to accept employment outside the State of Rhode Island. Rather than seek another individual with city-wide contacts in the community--such an individual had been extremely difficult to find--the project decided to enter into a relationship with the Providence Corporation to provide both instructional assistance in community-based education and coordinative assistance to corpsmembers in community-based education activities. The Providence Corporation was a locally developed non-profit organization engaged in a wide variety of city-wide social action and community education programs. On an informal basis staff members of the Providence Corporation had participated in and assisted other Teacher Corps activities and had some familiarity with what the project was doing in Providence. Thus one

of the continuing difficulties in assisting corpsmembers in community-based education activities--that of city-wide contacts with grass roots groups--was considerably alleviated by the direct involvement of the Providence Corporation in the project's community related activities.

Third, the proposed evaluator's position was not filled. The evaluator-candidate did not wish to be considered a formal part of the project management structure. Also, since the project did not provide sufficient resources, in his view, for ongoing evaluation activities an ad hoc arrangement was agreed to by which the evaluator was available as a consultant for certain specified activities. Fourth, the Inservice Coordinator asked to be relieved of his responsibilities at the end of the fall semester, and he was replaced by a former intern previously promoted to team leader. Thus, except for these modifications, the management team remained intact for the second inservice year.

During the early fall of the second inservice year, the project continued to rely on the project meeting as the central decision-making body affecting project-wide activities. However, later in the fall, the Project Director proposed an alternative decision-making structure as participation in project meetings had fallen off considerably during September, October and November. He proposed:

> . . . a model that may help assure full participation of views while at the same time limiting the time demands on all concerned.
>
> The crux of the model is that the management team be formally designated authority and responsibility to make decisions on behalf of the project on all matters where there is no conflict with existing decisions and policies.[12]

The specific procedures proposed were reviewed by the management team and forwarded to the project with minor modifications. Following a project meeting in January, 1973, the new decision-making proposal was approved. In summary, the procedures were as follows:

1. The management team would make those decisions which did not conflict with existing project priorities and commitments; decisions would be made by consensus within the management team.
2. The management team would meet at times to make decisions which did not conform to present priorities and commitments. If this was necessary:
    a. The project would be informed of the agenda ahead of time.
    b. Each team would select at least one representative to communicate agenda items for consideration.
    c. All other project members who wished to attend could do so.
    d. All those present would participate fully in the decision-making process of the meetings.
    e. The project would be informed in writing of the decision reached in the meetings.

3. Management team decisions could be considered by the full project at any time.

4. Actions of the management team would be reviewed by the total project once a month at a general meeting where additional issues could be raised for discussion.

The net effect of this system, as proposed, was to:

1. Concentrate decision-making among those with most time to be informed and accountable for implementation (Management Team).

2. Establish a formal representative system for participating in the decision leading to routine decision-making (team representative).

3. Provide a check on shifts in policy and project direction by periodic review and discussion of all participants.

4. Relieve some of the time pressure on schedules of participants without loss of decision-making voice.[13]

This system of project decision-making was in effect throughout the remainder of the second inservice year. The increased roles of competence and consensus as prime dimensions of project leadership are discussed further in Chapter V.

Fiscal Constraints.

The fiscal management of the project experienced three basic kinds of problems. First was the format of the agency's budget forms itself.[14] This format, which indicates the nature and type of items to be funded, was developed

early in the agency's history when the primary focus of the Teacher Corps was training teachers for disadvantaged areas. As a national surplus of teachers in some areas began to develop, the agency shifted its primary focus to that of institutional change within teacher training colleges and local school systems located in disadvantaged areas. However, the budget format used by the agency was never modified to reflect this change. Thus many project activities directed towards institutional change had to be funded and justified as a part of corps-members' inservice training.

Second, separate grants were allocated to the LEA and IHE which is standard Teacher Corps practice. Although this in itself was not a problem, the separate grants prescribed different items for funding and the monies in the two grants could not be interchanged with one another. Thus one project with one set of project goals had to utilize two separate and distinct grants which could not be functionally combined into one operational budget. Third, these two grants had to be implemented within the existing policies of the receiving LEA and IHE. These institutional policies and procedures often were in conflict with approved program activities. There were other related problems in that (1) Rhode Island College received no direct funding, (2) the Providence community or its representatives received no direct funding, and (3) no funds were provided for project evaluation. At the same time, the grant terms and conditions prohibited subcontracting activities without the prior approval of Teacher Corps/Washington.

The problem of an inadequate budget format was essentially, but not completely, resolved by specifying any program activities about which there were any question and seeking approval from appropriate Teacher Corps/Washington representatives. The problem of separate grants was resolved in large measure by the involvement of both LEA and IHE recipients in the development of each other's budget for each grant period. This joint planning not only made explicit what each recipient's funds were, but also permitted the incorporation of each other's views in formulating the budgets and a cooperative view to prevail in administering them.

The problem of implementing the budgets within existing IHE and LEA policies proved considerably more troublesome. In Providence, the School Department is a line item in the Mayor's budget, thus project disbursements had to conform not only to the school department's policies and procedures, but also those of the city hall administration. At the University of Massachusetts, funds had to be expended within the regulations of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts and the policies of the University administration. The most serious problem, overall, was in getting sums of money to where they could be utilized most efficiently in furthering project objectives without all the administrative tangles of the sub-contracting process.

This initially became a need during the first inservice year (1971-72) when the project needed to have on hand a sum of money at Rhode Island College to locally support project activities, particularly the inservice training of

corpsmembers by local personnel. The University of Massachusetts, however, had no way to do this except by either a subcontract or reimbursement after the fact, the latter an alternative unacceptable to Rhode Island College. After several consultations with the Chief Accountant at the University of Massachusetts, we worked out a system which was, in effect, a method of advance-reimbursement.

It was clear that the project would reimburse Rhode Island College for its services to the Teacher Corps project and that the usual reimbursement procedures would involve a great deal of paperwork as numerous standard invoices were processed. To avoid the heavy paperwork and facilitate the entire reimbursement process, we placed on deposit at Rhode Island College a sum of money from which the college could reimburse themselves for those services and materials previously specified in an exchange of letters. In this way, the college was free to spend monies within approved categories, still accountable to the University of Massachusetts for validating their expenditures, but only two paper transactions were necessary--the initial exchange of letters placing the relevant monies on deposit at Rhode Island College and the financial report from Rhode Island College validating their expenditures and returning unused funds.

By accepting this arrangement, Rhode Island College was agreeing, in effect, to administer a portion of the University of Massachusetts' Teacher Corps funds for specified services at no cost to the University of Massachusetts--but the process was one of reimbursement rather than that of a subcontract. This procedure was subsequently validated by both the Assistant Controller and

Controller of the University of Massachusetts.[15]

With this precedent established, the project was able to utilize it on several other occasions to facilitate the provision of services to the project. For example, an amendment to the LEA grant provided monies to be expended in support of a community-based education project, called the Volunteer Component, in which non-school department community personnel were partially subsidized for engaging in a series of community-based education activities. However, the procedures for paying these community people through the LEA were so cumbersome and time-consuming, that people were continually on the receiving end of long-delayed payments, questions of validity in terms of their activities, and often had to initiate negotiations with the LEA to get paid. At the beginning of the subsequent grant period, the amendment funds for this activity were switched to the University of Massachusetts, at which point we entered into an advance-reimbursement relationship with the Providence Corporation through an exchange of letters and the depositing of the amendment funds with them.[16] As a non-profit social action agency engaged in a wide variety of community programs in Providence, the Providence Corporation had both the expertise and procedural machinery to effectively support the Volunteer Component by making timely and accurate payments to those involved. In each of these preceding cases the advance-reimbursement process allowed the project to more effectively meet program goals by getting funds to the local level for implementation at no additional cost to the project.

Another major fiscal management problem was the preservice/inservice training continuum. Usual Teacher Corps/Washington practice was to budget instructional personnel costs in accord with a listing of individual instructors, the percent of time they worked with the project, and what they were going to do.[17] In the project's competency-based model, this procedure was too confining. If interns were to have a real say in determining what they would learn, and the curriculum was to be modularized, then it was not possible to determine months in advance which instructors would be needed for how much time. The original proposal made this point:

> The development of budgets for competency-based education programs present some unusual problems. The problems are seen most readily in two major areas: developmental planning needs and instructional implementation. Developmental planning needs are increased due to the need to create new instructional environments either little used or never used in most teacher education programs. Moreover, those competency-based modules now extant will require modification and adaptations to the unique needs of the proposed project. Thus there will be an increased demand upon project participants during the planning period, and increased need for financial support to assist those activities.
>
> Budgeting for competency-based instructional needs is even more difficult. Instructors may or may not teach "courses" for a "semester" which meet on a "regular schedule." Therefore, instructional components of the preservice and inservide budgets have been developed on the basis of the following formulae:

<u>Pre-Service</u>

$$\frac{\text{Calculated number of instructional hours}}{108} \times \$3,750$$

(The average instructional load for the summer session is 108 instructor hours; the average salary paid for this amount and period of work is $3,750.)

<u>In-Service</u>

$$\frac{\text{Calculated number of instructoral hours}}{90} \times \$6,000/\text{semester}$$

(The average instructional load for a semester is 90 instructor hours; the average salary paid for the academic year is $12,000.)[18]

Use of the preceeding formula allowed the project to estimate the number of instructional hours necessary for a particular training period, the average cost of instructors (assistant professor level) for this amount of time within the School of Education, and thereby provided a ballpark figure which formed a pool of instructional funds. These funds then had a clear rationale for use, were not tied to specific instructors, and were drawn upon as needed. This system worked exceedingly well for the project as it permitted great flexibility in the hiring of preservice-inservice instructors. Chapter V explicates further how this system facilitated the role of corpsmembers in the hiring of their own instructors.

One clear advantage of this system was that the project did not have to buy unessential services. Instead of hiring an instructor for a semester, the project purchased only those services most central to training needs and avoided those costs which might be considered down-time and produce no benefit to the

project. Furthermore, training services were purchased from anyone who had the skills to meet specific training needs, thus avoiding the problem of being locked into an institutional salary structure which may or may not conform to the presence of competencies useful to the project. One additional outcome of this system was the continual under-running of projected instructional costs each training period, providing further indication of the cost-effectiveness of the procedure. This was particularly important as the surplus were usually re-programmed if needed for other costs.

One additional fiscal process is worthy of comment: the generation of fiscal surpluses by the project. Usual agency practice within the Teacher Corps has been to request commitment to hire statements from the LEA to hire interns at the end of a project. These statements vary considerably in scope and degree of commitment, but tend to produce a similar result: at the end of a project, all interns are looking for a job simultaneously. Rather than wait until the end of the project, interns were encouraged to apply for jobs for which they were qualified during the second inservice year. The value in doing this was (1) interns could plug into the school system at an earlier date and thereby be more assured of a regular job at the end of the project, (2) such interns could remain with the project until they completed their M.Ed. degree, and (3) interns employed by the school department no longer received federal stipends, thus generating fiscal surpluses within the LEA Teacher Corps budget. By mid-May 1973, these surpluses were in excess of $53,000. This provided a source of funds for future programming,

which turned out to be needed, and also reduced the amount of LEA cash contribution (10% minimum required by federal law) to the project--money which the LEA could also re-program.

As the end of the project approached, it was clear that an orderly closeout of the project and a smooth transition of project outcomes to the LEA required services and activities beyond the projected termination date of June 23, 1973. The presence of surplus funds at the LEA allowed this extention to be funded. Basically, the project's argument was the desire to use already allocated funds for already approved program goals, but over a longer time span than that which was previously planned. This argument ultimately prevailed, but only because surplus funds had been generated and were available. A similar situation existed at the University of Massachusetts, where the presence of surplus funds facilitated an extension of training for those interns who had joined the project in August, 1972, and had not yet completed their graduate degree and teacher certification requirements.

Having reviewed the principal management strategies utilized by the project, it is useful at this point to analyze in more specific terms the kinds of conflict which influenced project activities.

A Typology of Conflict

With three institutional partners (RIC, Providence School Department, University of Massachusetts) implementing a grant provided by a fourth institution (Teacher Corps/Washington) to train yet another group (corpsmembers), conflict

was quite naturally more prevalent than consensus. Thus much of the task of project management was directed towards identifying discrepancies between project goals and that project behavior which was seemingly nongoal-directed. Once it had been determined that a discrepancy existed, the first point of possible conflict, it was extremely useful to determine what kind or kinds of conflict were producing the discrepancy. In implementing the Sixth Cycle Teacher Corps project, this writer identified seven basic types of conflict which produced discrepancies between project goals and project behavior. They were, by type, (1) goal, (2) legal, (3) policy (4) procedural (5) perceptual (6) political, and (7) druthers. A brief description of each type is summarized below.

Goal: Goal conflict exists where there is a lack of consensus or explictness about the project's goals. This can result from the imposition of unstated or unacceptable goals or lack of clarity in the goals themselves. Also, goals can sometimes be confused with goal-directed behavior, e.g., the goal is acceptable but the goal-directed behavior is controversial.

Legal: Legal conflict exists where there are contradictions between State and Federal requirements for implementing the grant, and where the receiving institution makes demands upon the grant contrary to the intent and terms of the grant. Obviously, legal conflict also exists in any project activity clearly unlawful.

<u>Policy:</u> Policy is that departmental action which implements a legal mandate. Thus policy itself is usually fixed in preference and malleable in fact. This distinction becomes crucial when the reason for an institution not doing something is given as policy. As used by institutional administrators, policy tends to be used as fact rather than the momentary preference it usually is.

<u>Procedural:</u> Procedures implement policies which implement a legal mandate. Procedural conflict occurs when there is no legal or policy conflict apparent, but no procedural delivery mechanism exists. Thus institutional responses to legitimate legal and policy mandates can bog down for lack of procedural mechanisms to realize those mandates. Again, to many institutional administrators, legitimately legal and policy mandates can only be implemented through procedural mechanisms already extant and operative.

<u>Perceptual:</u> There are two kinds of perceptual conflict: Observant and Creative. Observant-perceptual conflict occurs in its simplist form when two people look at a red ball, and one sees red while the other sees green. In its more complex form people may view a particular project activity, <u>e.g.</u>, team-teaching, and disagree over what they observed. This observant-perceptual conflict can lead to diverse perceptions of project activities, <u>e.g.</u>, as goal-directed vs. non-

goal directed, and of the priorities of goals themselves. In applying this to an institutional management situation, observant-perceptual conflict can lead, for example, to disagreement over whether or not an operative procedure is suitable for implementing a particular policy or legal mandate. In the absence of clarifying action, observant-perceptual conflict will produce considerable confusion.

Creative-perceptual conflict occurs when there is perceptual agreement about what needs to be done, but the manager cannot think of a way to do it that does not violate his self-perception of what he is able to do. Often, the basis for creative-perceptual conflict lies hidden in observant-perceptual conflict despite verbal protestations to the contrary. Once observant-perceptual conflict has really been resolved, the resolution of creative-perceptual conflict is much less difficult. For example, when the writer approached university officials about finding a way to get monies transferred to Providence for onsite use by the Teacher Corps project, their initial responses were that it could not be done (creative-perceptual), and that it probably did not need to be done anyway (observant-perceptual). After extended discussions they finally agreed that such a transfer made sense (resolving the observant-perceptual conflict), but could not think of a way to do

it except by sub-contracting which was very inefficient. Finally, we agreed upon the advance-reimbursement procedure described earlier in this chapter, and that resolved the creative-perceptual conflict (and the university's procedural conflict at the same time).

Political: Political conflict occurs when the goals of institutions are not compatible with one another. It can be either explicit or hidden, but political conflict is seemingly far more influential in its hidden form. The process for detecting political conflict in its hidden form is through (1) observing continued discrepancies between an individual's or institution's stated goals and their behavior, and (2) checking out information provided by institutions or their representatives which is continually unclear, incomplete and deceptive.

Druthers: Druthers conflict is somewhat related to goal confusion, perceptual conflict and political conflict, but set apart somewhat by its intentionality and its moral base. It reveals itself managerially when an administrator acknowledges the legitimacy of legal and policy mandates, implementing procedures, existence of perceptual unanimity, and lack of political conflict, but will take no action because of a personal belief that he would druther not. Druthers conflict is, therefore, usually arbitrary in nature.

The types of conflict described above- goal, legal, policy, procedural, perceptual, political and druthers--were not usually present independently, but at the point of initial conflict tended to be grouped with one or more other conflict types. It was only when clarification or resolution efforts began did individual types of conflict become more easily identified.

Of the kinds of conflict described above, the most persistent and troublesome to the project have been perceptual conflict and political conflict. And, in a managerial sense, these two types of conflict tend to have a direct inter-active relationship with one another. Perceptual conflict can usually be resolved by seeking clarification of events and concepts; yet political conflict is maintained by obfuscation and confusion. In a managerial climate where goals and procedures are unclear, those with access to decision-making processes gain political power. Any attempt to clarify goals or procedures automatically threatens the political power of some managers. Thus the reduction of perceptual conflict may directly threaten political power distribution, which has a vested interest in maintaining perceptual conflict, and thereby increase political conflict rather than aid in its reduction. It is extremely important to recognize this relationship between perceptual and political conflict, and its implication for educational managers.

Observant-perceptual conflict is very troublesome managerially because it diffuses project energies, unintentionally for the most part, by pursuing different goals and goal-directed activities which project participants perceive

to be similar or the same. Through careful and continued efforts to seek clarity in sharing concepts and observing events, observant-perceptual conflict can be reduced--but the clarification process has to be accepted as both legitimate and ongoing in order to maximally reduce such conflict. Clearly, this is made difficult by those who prefer to govern their behavior by political and/or druthers priorities.

Political conflict is troublesome because the manager is continually operating in an environment clouded by unclear priorities, partial information and, at times, information which is deceptive or deliberately misleading. At times, the effects of political conflict can be ameliorated simply by getting complete and accurate information when it has been previously withheld. Other times, political agendas will arbitrarily override accurate and complete information--a case of institutional druthers.

It is necessary, I believe, to discuss the issue of intentionality versus inability as it relates to the management of conflict. The initial effects of intentionality and inability in conflict-producing situations tend to be the same; however, their resolution may differ. Intentionality is that condition which produces an action or behavior resulting from choice; while inability produces behavior which is essentially involuntary. Conflict generated unintentionally through an inability to formulate an effective conflict-resolution mechanism can usually be resolved through the provision of demonstrably accurate information. The information has to be verifiable because the cause of the conflict is usually

perceptual in nature. However, intentional conflict is less easily resolved for its bases seem to lie in political or druthers motives which are less influenced by accurate information.

In reviewing the conflict which most frequently occurred both within the project and between the project and its funding agency, three predominant patterns of conflict emerge:

1. Conflict generated by lack of goal congruence, usually resulting from unstated goals interferring with explicit goals and/or perceptual conflict over the content and meaning of explicit goals.
2. Conflict resulting from the unintentional confusion about the cause of conflict, _e.g._, citing legal restrictions where the cause is actually something different, such as procedural or perceptual.
3. Conflict resulting from the deliberate confusion over the cause of the conflict, and the subsequent shifting of the conflict cause to another type when the first cause has been resolved, _e.g._, the cause is cited to be legal until it is demonstrated that there is no legal basis for the conflict and the cause is then cited to be of another type.

The first kind of conflict is self-explanatory and discussed in Chapter VI. The second kind of conflict occurs when a manager is unfamiliar with the mandates and options of his own position and/or his employing agency. For example, Teacher Corps/Washington advised the project that we were in conflict with their agency over the use of team leaders as teachers of record in Providence classrooms.[19] Initially, such use of team leaders had been approved by Teacher Corps/Washington in the project's original proposal. To even bring up the issue as an agency concern more than a year later was in violation of the working terms of the grant. At a January, 1973 meeting between project staff members and Teacher Corps/Washington representatives in Washington, D. C., Teacher Corps/ Washington representatives stated that the issue was a legal one; that the use of team leaders as teachers of record was prohibited by the Teacher Corps' legislative mandate. The writer had previously secured and read a copy of the Teacher Corps legislative mandate and informed those present there was no such reference in the legislation. At that point, we were informed the issue was a matter of agency policy as outlined in the Sixth Cycle program guidelines. The writer had also re-read the program guidelines, similarly found no reference prohibiting the use of team leaders as teachers of record, and so informed those present. One of the Teacher Corps/Washington representatives present immediately reviewed the program guidelines herself and stated she also could find no such reference.

Up to that point, the reasons provided for the conflict had been cited as first legal, then policy. No functional explanation had been offered or forthcoming. With the negation of legal and policy restraints, a Teacher Corps/Washington representative then finally stated that the reason team leaders could not be teachers of record is that the agency could supplement, but not supplant, existing LEA teachers. In other words, the agency saw no way by which team leaders could be teachers of record without supplanting regular LEA teachers. Thus our conflict was no longer one of legality or policy, but procedural and perceptual. The project director was then able to provide the accurate data which demonstrated how team leaders in Providence could function as teachers of record without supplanting regular LEA teachers. This resolved the procedural and perceptual conflict regarding this issue among those present, except for one Teacher Corps/ Washington representative who then moved to the druthers type of conflict. He clearly did not personally approve of the use of team leaders as teachers of record, but had no legal, policy, procedural or perceptual basis on which to support his position. The issue was therefore resolved in favor of allowing team leaders to function as teachers of record in Providence.

The purpose of citing this example is to demonstrate the second pattern of conflict referred to earlier: unintentional confusion over conflict type. For the most part, this writer believes the Teacher Corps/Washington representatives involved in the example above really thought the use of team leaders as teachers of record was prohibited by the agency's legislative mandate and the Sixth Cycle

program guidelines. They had, in effect, confused the interpretations and usual practices of their agency with fact. Consistently, throughout the implementation of the project, Teacher Corps/Washington representatives raised concerns about the project's activities in terms of their conformity to the agency's legal mandate, policies, and procedures. In most cases the root causes of these conflicts were generated by Teacher Corps/Washington representatives who held perceptual and political viewpoints different from those held by the project. At times, as related above, the perceptual differences manifested themselves by unintentional confusion of conflict type by employees unfamiliar with the mandates and options of both themselves and their employing institution in carrying out their responsibilities.

The third basic pattern experienced by the project was the deliberate confusion of conflict type in an effort to avoid a conflict resolution. This took the form of deliberately mis-leading the project as to the cause of a conflict and subsequent resolution options. It was not always possible to know when such action was deliberate. It was possible to track the interactions and communications between the project and other groups or individuals in order to (1) check out that information with other available data, (2) get a sense of responsiveness as characterized by clarity and fullness in communication, and (3) determine the extent to which the behavior of individuals and institutions was consistent with their public statements and agendas. Wide discrepancies in the behavior of intelligent people or groups in these three areas usually signalled intentionality rather than inability.

Perhaps the most difficult intentional confusion to identify was the presence of perceptual conflict, *e.g.*, the claim by an administrator that a desired action was not taken because he or she did not understand clearly what was to be done. Unintentional perceptual conflict was usually resolved by providing clarification and additional information if needed; whereas intentional perceptual conflict, rather than being resolved by clarification or additional information, usually generated additional conflicts when resolution attempts were undertaken.

The resolution or limiting of conflict is most likely to occur when (1) the type of conflict is accurately identified and (2) the conflict is not deliberate and thereby more susceptible to rational efforts to clarify and resolve. Deliberate or not, however, the most important step is the accurate identification of conflict type when initiating or undergoing conflict resolution efforts.

CHAPTER IV--FOOTNOTES

[1]Letter from William Tutman to Dean Eleanor McMahon, Educational Services Division, Rhode Island College, August 19, 1971.

[2]U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Teacher Corps Guidelines: Information and Guidance for Preparation and Submission of Proposals for 1971-73 Teacher Corps Projects (October, 1970), p. 8.

[3]Summer Amendment, Sixth Cycle Teacher Corps Project: University of Massachusetts and Providence School Department, Providence, Rhode Island (Amherst, Massachusetts: School of Education, University of Massachusetts, February 14, 1972), p. 1.

[4]Ibid.

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

[6]Ibid., pp. 31-32.

[7]Letter to William Tutman from Dr. Richard Jorgensen, Program Specialist, Teacher Corps, Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, March 10, 1972.

[8]Charles M. Bernardo, A Proposal for the Restructuring of the Providence School System, Providence, Rhode Island (Providence, Rhode Island: Providence School Department, November 2, 1971). (Mimeographed.)

[9]Second Inservice Year Amendment, Sixth Cycle Teacher Corps Project: University of Massachusetts and Providence School Department, Providence, Rhode Island. (Amherst, Massachusetts: School of Education, University of Massachusetts, July 1, 1972), pp. 51-52.

[10]Ibid., p. 52.

[11]Ibid., p. 50.

[12]Memorandum to Management Team from William Tutman, November 29, 1972, p. 2.

[13]Ibid., pp. 2-3.

[14]U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Teacher Corps Budget Guidelines: For Submission of Proposals of 1971-73 Programs and for Operation of 1970-72 Programs (April, 1970).

[15]Letter from Ronald Bell to Mr. John O'Neil, Coordinator for Program Development and Research, Rhode Island College, Providence, Rhode Island, dated April 7, 1972.

[16]Letter from William Tutman to Mr. Charles Fortes, President, Providence Corporation, Providence, Rhode Island, dated October 16, 1972.

[17]U. S. Teacher Corps Budget Guidelines, p. 11.

[18]Ronald E. Bell et al. A Proposal for the Sixth Cycle Teacher Corps Contract-University of Massachusetts (Amherst, Massachusetts: School of Education, University of Massachusetts, November, 1970), p. 182.

[19]A letter from Mr. Richard Jorgensen, Program Specialist, Teacher Corps, Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, dated November 3, 1972.

CHAPTER V

THE EMERGENT ROLES OF COMPETENCE AND CONSENSUS AS PRIME DIMENSIONS OF PROJECT LEADERSHIP

This chapter describes the way in which the dimensions of competence and consensus increasingly influenced project leadership with regard to corpsmember and school teams, the management for the project, project decision-making, the preservice/inservice program, resource allocation and the identification of competencies considered essential for effective teaching in urban middle schools. The emergence of competence and consensus as prime dimensions of project decision-making was evolutionary in nature, and due to five major factors: (1) the philosophical and procedural clarity of the Project Director in his views of how people learn and work with one another, (2) the compatibility of these dimensions with the assumptions of competency-based education theory, (3) the discrepancies among project personnel between their assigned role functions and their ability to perform role-tasks at times, (4) the effectiveness of the dimensions in responding to the needs of and demands upon the project, and (5) the increasing levels of acceptability and desirability accorded these dimensions by corpsmembers.

The continual ability of the Project Director to engage other project personnel in efforts to achieve conceptual clarity and to promote integrity in

project behavior was, in this writer's view, of paramount importance among these five factors. This would in no way infer that the Project Director had in mind a grand design of some kind to which other project personnel were expected to conform. Rather, it was his analytical pursuit of clarity and integrity which stimulated the project to seek for itself behaviors which were derived from experience rather than experts, from clarity rather than conformity, and which had integrity rather than mere influence.

This initial impetus was supported by the extended logic of competency-based education; it is extended logic because it is both implicit and largely unrealized in present writing about competency-based education. That logic, in summary form, is this: if competency-based education is to focus upon the development and demonstration of explicit competencies, then explicit competencies should also be identified and brought to bear on the determination of what is to be learned and how it is to be learned. Thus competence should be explicitly determined rather than merely inferred by virtue of title, age, sex, ethnic background of educational history. If it is not, then the likelihood of confusing appearances with a demonstrable reality is great. This conflict between inferred, or presumed, competence and actual competence arose early in the project's implementation within several team structures.

Team Leadership

Corpsmember Teams

The team teaching model set forth by Teacher Corps/Washington was

one in which the team leader performed as a master teacher and interns as teacher trainees.[1] As the master teacher, the team leader was responsible for coordinating and supervising all aspects of the team's activities. However, many of the interns selected for the University of Massachusetts-Providence project had teaching experiences comparable to those held by some team leaders; in many cases, interns possessed much broader cross-cultural experiences than those of team leaders. With the project's thrust toward African Studies curriculum development, team leaders were at an additional disadvantage. Only one team leader had any African experience, and that was only for a period of about six weeks. Clearly interns would be much more competent in articulating African experiences than team leaders.

Team leaders were selected through a process prescribed by Teacher Corps/Washington, which was modified slightly to meet union regulations in Providence. Job descriptions were posted and Providence teachers were invited to apply. It was Teacher Corps/Washington's expectation, but not a requirement, that all team leaders would come from the ranks of the local school district. The agency's assumption was that such a person would have a vested interest in remaining with the school district after the project was finished. By staying he could provide both continuity and an increased commitment to institutional change goals. However, this meant the likelihood of selecting team leaders with African experience was minimal. After extensive interviews, Providence selected six team leaders from within the school department and two team leaders from

outside Providence, one of whom had African experience. Due to the lateness in the school year by which the project had been approved, many potential team leader applicants in Providence had already made commitments for the summer preservice period and had not applied. While more experienced team leaders might have been selected if the project had received approval earlier, this would not have resolved the inherent conflict between the Teacher Corps team-teaching model, which was leader-dominant, and its policy of encouraging competency-based education programs.

The Project Director, therefore, initiated a re-shaping of the team leader role which was based more on what team leaders actually could do and less on what others thought they should do. This was not easy to do for a number of reasons. First, the team leaders had applied, interviewed and been hired for a job described in terms of the master teacher role, and they had become accustomed to thinking of the job in those terms. Second, the idea of a team leader as the person in charge of a team was a model with which the team leaders were most familiar. Third, the team leaders expected to be held accountable by the Providence School Department in terms of the job descriptions for which they had been hired. A fourth reason was the desire by some team leaders, at least initially, to maintain their position power. Since many interns had competencies similar to those held by team leaders, the position power implied by the title of team leader provided some security. Otherwise, team leader competencies might be challenged too directly by interns. When this initial challenge occurred,

as it eventually did within all the teams, team leaders either relied on their titular authority or negotiated with interns for those services they could best provide.

Different teams went through different rates and sequences with those challenges to team leaders' authority. It was clear that the concept of leadership for some team leaders was so linked to factors such as age, experience and title that any other approach to leadership directly challenged long-held and deeply ingrained beliefs. Furthermore, these beliefs were usually reinforced by the expectations and the behavior of regular school department personnel. It took some time before most team leaders recognized the legitimacy of a leadership style based upon the competence to perform and began to modify significantly their team leader behavior. However, by the end of the first inservice year, all corpsmember teams had settled on a leadership model which recognized different competencies among team members as a major basis for determining team leadership. This model came to be known within the project as _revolving_, _floating_, or _competency-based_ leadership.

Another contributing factor to the focus upon individual competencies was the nature of the teams themselves. Project staff had intentionally divided the eight team leaders and 46 interns into eight teams which were as diverse as possible in terms of (1) experience in Africa in geographical terms, (2) White American/Black American /Black African representation among team members, (3) male/female mix, (4) experience in Africa in vocational terms, _e.g._, teaching,

public health work, community development, agriculture, and (5) special secondary skills, e.g., agriculture, home economics, language skills, subject specialities. These assignments were not rigidly fixed, but if someone wanted to join another team they could not do so unless the teams involved jointly agreed. This included arranging for a mutually agreed upon replacement for the departing team member. If team members could not resolve a membership problem, they could turn to project staff for assistance. The essential point here, however, was the deliberate diversity of experiences and competencies within each team, which required more careful attention by teams to what individual members could do.

The focus upon competencies within teams was reinforced even more by a shift in preservice training from individual to team competencies. At the beginning of the preservice training period, the training focus had been on the development of minimal competencies common to all corpsmembers considered essential to entering the middle schools in the fall. The wide diversity of experiences, competencies and goals among the corpsmembers, and the growing need to spend more training time in team building activities, led to the formulation of team competencies considered essential for entering the schools in September; that is, not all team members had to have all the competencies, but all the competencies had to be present on the team before they entered the schools. Thus team membership was differentiated, but according to competencies rather than fixed role functions.

School Teams

During the last weeks of preservice training, references to the team came to be regarded by most as referring to the team of corpsmembers within each middle school. In a further attempt to integrate team and school activities, project staff instituted the concept of school teams. A school team consisted of all personnel in each middle school directly involved with Teacher Corps project activities. In most cases, school teams consisted of the following personnel:

Principal

Social Studies Department Chairman

Affiliate Teachers--usually two

Teacher Corps Team Leader

Teacher Corps Interns--usually five

Originally, preservice training plans had anticipated several weeks for the school team to work with one another. This time was to allow for a sharing and understanding of project goals, introducing the project's new concepts and jargon, getting to know one another as people as well as professionals, and planning for the beginning of the project's activities in each middle school. Unfortunately, Teacher Corps/Washington had insisted on no more than five training days for the school team to work together. The result was that most corpsmember teams entered the middle schools to work with individuals on the school team who had received only the briefest opportunity to get to know and understand the project and the people in it.

Quite naturally, attempts to differentiate according to competency within school teams ran into difficulty for a number of reasons. Most middle school personnel had a fixed view of leadership as flowing directly from titular authority; in other words, reliance upon position power was very prevalent. Some non-Teacher Corps members of the school team viewed the project's leadership model as invalid; others felt it was valid theoretically, but not practical or possible in the middle school environment. Also, the concept of leadership based upon competence was too new to most corpsmembers. Most had been conditioned by previous experience to accept position power as either inevitable or natural. The shift away from this conditioning constituted a threat to some, since competencies had to be explicit and not assumed. The training period had been too short to permit most corpsmembers to modify their own behavior in this regard. Thus they could not initially maintain competency-based leadership within their own corpsmember teams and thereby present a consistent model of the concept for regular school department personnel.

Often the conflict between titular authority and leadership based upon competence had to be negotiated in terms of some sacrifice to short-term goals for the benefit of sustaining long-term goals. For example, if the corpsmember team or a member of that team were sufficiently threatened, then the imposition of position power was often tolerated in order to ensure the maintenance of some functional presence within the school. Negotiations between competency-based and authority-based leadership continued throughout the project's duration,

but as corpsmembers became clearer about the concept and it became more valid to them, they began to increase their negotiation skills and to decrease the extent to which position power affected their own behavior.

Management Team and Project Decision-Making

The concept of a team approach to project management had been implicit in the true joint-venture management model approved in the original project proposal. However, the initial differentiation of staff responsibilities had been role-oriented rather than competency-based; that is, responsibilities had been assigned to roles for which individuals had been identified only tentatively or not at all. However, once individuals were identified, hired and worked together, differentiation of staff functions became increasingly based upon their individual competencies rather than the titles they held.

In retrospect, this resulted from several major factors. First and foremost was the philosophical leadership exhibited by the Project Director. He consistently focused attention on the ineffectiveness of role performance in which individuals were either unwilling or unable to formulate clear goals or to engage in behavior essential to the fulfillment of goals. Another factor was the continual review of project demands on project staff in terms of (1) which staff members had the competencies and willingness to respond to specific demands, (2) which staff member would assume responsibility for seeking a competent response to a specific demand if the necessary competency was not present

among staff members, and (3) which staff members were willing to develop new competencies in order to respond to specific categories of demands. This process was aided by the continual review of staff performance by corpsmembers both formally and informally. The formal review was carried out by a staff monitoring committee made up of corpsmembers.

An interesting set of problems emerged that dealt basically with the problem of authority. As the writer had worked closely with Providence School Department personnel in developing the project proposal, and the Project Director had joined the project several months later, there was an initial preference held by some in Providence to deal with him on most matters rather than with the Director, whom they knew less well. At the same time, as the project got underway, some project and project-associated personnel preferred to deal with the Project Director on most matters simply because he was the Project Director. It was continually necessary throughout this period to balance demands with available skills. The same held true for the Project Director. Although he did have the additional responsibility for coordinating the entire project, this did not mean that he himself had to respond to all demands made of him. However, he did have to see that responsible demands were responded to by an appropriate segment of the project.

As the management team continued to evolve and modify its functions, this interaction between competence and authority de-emphasized the usual expectations of power being distributed through a vertical hierarchy. Instead,

authority and power were more frequently attributed to a horizontal structure within which demonstrated competence was a prime consideration in determining leadership within a specific situation. This resulted in a requirement within the management team for continual assessment of staff competencies, an explicit determination of staff functions and staff performance which was more clearly accountable.

To do this, however, took a great deal of time and energy inside and outside management team meetings. At times there was pressure within the management team meeting to accept more arbitrarily defined functions and responsibilities, such as those stemming primarily from a position power source. This pressure tended to result from limitations of resources and time, and also from an initial lack of unanimity within the management team about the need for spending a great deal of time in reaching shared views about specific situations and recommended decisions. However, the management team increasingly sought to match individual staff competencies with project needs. After some initial hesitations, this produced work responsibilities more in line with what people could do, and relieved some of the pressures placed upon staff members to perform functions for which they were not competent. Thus members of the management team were increasingly oriented to their strengths, which produced increased job satisfaction for those involved, while maintaining essential support services to the project.

Many of the elements discussed above were also active ingredients in decision-making which affected the project as a whole. The project meetings initiated at an early stage in the project, during the preservice period, were forced to confront the problem of how decisions were going to be made. The most prevalent behaviors exhibited by corpsmembers were to be democratic or, in cases of confusion requiring immediate action, deferential to the implied position authority of staff members. However, an examination of these two behaviors indicated possible outcomes of questionable acceptability. First of all, being democratic in decision-making meant to most corpsmembers majority rule. This was a natural enough position for most White corpsmembers to adopt as their experience with the majority rule approach to decision-making could be assumed to have produced results which were generally acceptable to them. But for most Black American corpsmembers, the concept of majority rule had produced a White-dominated society in which non-Whites were continually placed in minority positions inimicable to their best interests. The adherence to a majority rule process in a project dominated numerically by Whites inherently contained the same threat to minority interests as that in American society at large. Also many Whites in the project, including the writer, had not seriously explored the implications of a majority rule system which usually existed at minority expense. Most of the African interns, furthermore, had grown up in countries which were White dominated and non-independent. At the same time, there was some danger in stereotyping these three groups as rigid and separate in their interests.

Concurrent with these issues and concerns were the project's goals related to the development of alternative forms of classroom management and more effective cross-cultural communication and understanding. If project staff imposed decisions, this was tantamount to teachers telling students in classrooms what they must do. If majority rule was implemented, minority interests might well suffer. Rather than accept the assumptions of majority rule, project members examined these implications in an effort to find a more viable form of decision-making. What emerged was a decision-making process oriented towards the development of a non-coercive consensus, and which attempted to recognize difference not in terms of better or worse, but as the legitimate product of diverse life experiences.

While simply stated, this process ran contrary to value sets prevalent among many project personnel, corpsmembers and staff alike, which indicated: (1) majority rule at minority expense as both inevitable and unalterable in a democratic setting, (2) difference as a condition to be assigned judgments of better or worse, and (3) responsibility as a variable quality dependent upon one's position or titular authority, e.g., project staff should be more responsible for project activities than corpsmembers. The increased reliance upon acknowledged competence and consensus-oriented decision-making required continual negotiation with these predetermined value sets. With its emphasis upon the clarification of difference prior to seeking resolution, the process also required greater efforts to attain and articulate conceptual clarity and, in many instances, the rationale

for one's own value orientation. At times, these efforts were threatening or frustrating to individuals, at least initially, for the following reasons:

1. Some project personnel had higher levels of competence in verbal skills, producing in others less articulate a sense of being dominated not by reason but by fluency.
2. Some project personnel were more aggressive than others, producing again in some a sense of being dominated not by rationality but by forcefulness.
3. Some project personnel had little previous experience with personal value clarification and felt threatened by the process.
4. Some project personnel were impatient and frustrated over the time it took to make major project decisions; that is, they felt striving for conceptual clarity in decision-making and its requisite demand for time was theoretically desirable but neither pragmatic nor expeditious.
5. Some project personnel were less willing than others to share responsibility and accountability for project activities, *i.e.*, staff should be more responsible than interns.

Despite these circumstances, the project's participants generally accepted the consensus-oriented decision model for project decisions as one which seemed to have the greatest potential for working to the best interests of both project-wide and individual goals. Furthermore, the participation of project personnel in project meetings would be based on their explicit competencies and the merits for their ideas; at least more so than on individual characteristics such as title, age, and salary level. "More so" is more accurate, I believe, than "instead of" as the adopted model could not ignore the effects of the participants' previous experiences in decision environments no matter how desirable the new model was considered to be.

This decision model, which might now be termed the competence-consensus model, was largely operative in project meetings from the later stages of the preservice program, through the first inservice year and the intervening summer in project meetings, and influenced other project decision-making activities particularly in corpsmember teams, issue-oriented committee groups and staff management meetings. At the time of its reorganization during the second inservice year, the management team gave serious thought about whether or not to go beyond consensus-oriented decision-making and implement consensus-based decision-making within the management team; that is, they debated whether or not all management team decisions should be by full consensus. Several discussions of this issue by the management team led to their decision to adopt a consensus-based model in the late fall of 1972, but with the recognition that a

more complete operationalization of the concept of consensus was necessary.

Occasional discussions about consensus and consensus decision-making over the next several months began to delineate more clearly some desirable dimensions. In the spring, the writer presented to the project management team an operational model for consensus decision-making. This model was discussed and subsequently adopted by the management team for its own decision-making processes. The model was defined as follows:

A. Consensus-oriented decision-making is that which assumes, acknowledges and utilizes the following dimensions:

1. Participatory decision-making; i.e., an authentically democratic approach.

2. A high level of honesty in communication and reasoning.

3. Reliance on horizontal power rather than vertical power; that is, the minimization of position power by assessing ideas on the basis of their own merit and not on the basis of the status of the originator.

4. Substantial efforts to reconcile differences through non-coercive means.

B. Consensus is achieved when:

1. All decision participants presenting minority views agree that their views have received a just and reasonable hearing by the majority,

2. All decision participants agree to permit a common group action.[2]

There are several requisite features to the effective use of this model. A high level of honesty in communication and reasoning means that decision participants' behavior is governed by rational thought and the sharing of information and feelings affecting decision alternatives. There is a determination to minimize decision-making based upon ignorance or confusion. This may seem an obvious behavior, but the willingness of project members and members of the institutional partnership to proceed at times in confusion and ignorance was startling. Proceeding in confusion seemed to permit less accountability in personal behavior in some instances, since such behavior could be readily excused, if necessary, on the basis of being confused at the time of the behavior. In one or two extreme examples, individuals seemed to prefer a climate of confusion in order to avoid personal accountability. This was not true, however, of those on the management team. A high level of honesty in communication and reasoning allowed reliance on horizontal or personal power to be a responsible action within the management team. Thus vetoing or filibustering were non-existent, since neither were responsible behaviors within the consensus model adopted.

Two additional factors which greatly facilitated the use of the consensus model by the management team were genuine respect for one another within the team and well developed group process skills among team members. Both considerably aided efforts to reconcile or resolve conflict.

Preservice/Inservice Program

While competence and consensus, as prime dimensions of project leadership, affected decision-making within the preservice/inservice continuum, they were also dimensions which influenced the design of the instructional program itself. Initially, the course of graduate study for the corpsmembers' M. Ed. program had been set up within a block curriculum format; that is, most corpsmembers were expected to take the same courses, including previously specified options, in order to complete both M. Ed. and teacher certification requirements. Although it was anticipated that individual corpsmembers would be able to have considerable freedom within course titles, the titles themselves constituted in their aggregate the basic package leading towards the graduate degree. Thus the preservice training period began with all interns enrolled for two hours of social studies methodology and four hours of practice teaching. Preservice training activities were many and varied, but always took place within these two course titles. For some corpsmembers, their previous educational training and experience was such that they did not need more semester hours in either social studies methodology or practice teaching. However, no options were available to them at this time. In similar fashion, the course content for the first inservice semester (fall, 1971) was grouped into three basic courses: Curriculum Development, Special Problems in International Education, and independent study contracts in the areas of Practicum in Methodology, Practicum in Practice

Teaching, Practicum in Community-Based Education, and another Practicum which encompassed an array of individual contracts. Interns could enroll for up to twelve semester hours and most enrolled for three, four or five of these basic courses.

While these course offerings represented increased flexibility, they were still tied essentially to the block curriculum model. However, during this fall semester, three events occurred which drastically altered both the content and the management of the inservice program. First was the realization that the block curriculum model was simply inadequate in meeting the diverse training needs of the interns. Second, the School of Education was setting up a prototype model for a completely modularized curriculum which would replace the School's course structure by the fall of 1973, thereby permitting a much more highly individualized packaging of graduate study and more institutional flexibility in both delivering and recognizing such graduate study. The Teacher Corps project offered itself to the modular curriculum program in the spring, 1973, for the purpose of pilot-testing the proposed management scheme for implementing the completely modular curriculum program in the fall of 1973. This offer was accepted and partially implemented. Third, through the modular curriculum project's developmental efforts, it became possible in the late fall of 1972 to grant retroactive credits. This meant that interns who felt that they had gone beyond the scope of their fall semester's learning objectives could now negotiate with project inservice staff for additional credits.

The combination of these three factors--the inadequacy of the block curriculum model, the pilot-testing of the modular curriculum project's management design through the Teacher Corps project, and the ability to give credit retroactively--resulted in the total scrapping of the block curriculum model. In its place was created an inservice model based upon individual learning contracts for each intern. The content of these learning contracts was limited only by four basic dimensions:

1. Content must relate to project goals.
2. Content must relate to either M. Ed. or teacher certification requirements (or both).
3. Content must relate to an explicit competency essential to effective teaching or other educational role; e.g., educational administration, proposed development, fiscal management, politics of education.
4. Content, in the aggregate of all corpsmembers, must not demand more than the project's available resources.

Thus, beginning with the spring semester of 1972, interns could negotiate their own program of graduate study within the four basic restraints set forth above. Content clusters of individual learning contracts in like or similar areas of content replaced the course structure previously utilized.

Instead of prescribing courses in advance, clusters emerged from and represented the sum of individual negotiations with each intern.

Of major significance in the new inservice model were the roles of competence and consensus as they were operationalized within the model. The underlying assumption of the block curriculum model was Theory X in nature, and essentially permitted the process of acquiring teacher certification to dominate the choice of training content. The learning cluster/individual contract model, however, was essentially a Theory Y environment. The first model assumed competence by teacher trainers to determine what it was teacher trainees needed to learn in order to meet minimal levels of effectiveness, i.e., to be certified. The second model sought to identify those competencies essential for teaching effectiveness. In this model, the determination of what was to be learned, how it was to be learned, and why it was to be learned was the product of negotiation between teacher and student; this negotiation was characterized by open dialogue, explicitness and the minimization of position power. Thus the opportunity for students to actively collaborate in the determination of their learning objectives received much greater explicit and behavioral recognition from teachers than in teacher training environments which were more characterized by a Theory X environment.

In brief, the project's inservice program shifted from its earlier dominant focus on meeting degree and certification requirements to a focus more directly aligned with efforts to seek, conceptualize and train for teaching

competence. This does not mean that degree and certification requirements were ignored. They were recognized as essential institutional dimensions for receiving degree and teacher certification, but only as indirect indices for determining actual teaching competence. Thus the newly formed inservice model explicitly recognized, programmatically as well as conceptually, the distinction between meeting institutional requirements and developing teaching competence. The result was four basic categories of inservice activities: (1) those directly related to institutional requirements for degree and teacher certification (example: Social Studies Methods); (2) those directly related to specific teaching competencies, but only indirectly related to institutional requirements (example: group dynamics); (3) those not related to any institutional requirements, but seemingly related to the process of developing teaching competence (example: racism in education); (4) those not directly related to teaching, but to other educational roles (example: proposal development).

Along with the role of competence in determining learning objectives, the concept of consensus was a necessary and concurrent factor at three levels within the new inservice model. The first level was the learning contract negotiations between teacher and student. These negotiations had to result in clear, non-coercive agreements between the two parties if the learning objectives negotiated were to have their greatest validity and highest potential for goal-directed behavior by both teacher and student. Learning objectives formulated unilaterally and imposed upon others could not hope to produce a high level of

goal-directed behavior for lack of goal congruence, as pointed out in Chapter III. Thus continual efforts were made to achieve consensus in these negotiations in order to facilitate actual learning. The second level was the effort to identify a set of minimal competencies necessary for producing effective urban teaching at the middle school level. The third level was the need for an effective means of budgeting, allocating and monitoring the fiscal resources of the project which recognized the project's growing diversity.

Identification of Minimal Teaching Competencies

In the early winter of 1971, the project had committed itself to seeking the identification of those competencies which were minimally necessary to effective urban teaching at the middle school level. To this end an Exits Committee was established and began meeting in December, 1972. Explicit in the committee's organization was the need to recognize, as equitable partners in its mission, the viewpoints of Rhode Island College, the University of Massachusetts, the Providence School Department, team leaders and interns. Thus the core membership of the committee over the next eighteen months was as follows:

Dr. Walter Crocker	Assistant Dean, Innovative Programs, Educational Services Division, Rhode Island College
Dr. Mary Alice Wilson	Program Development Specialist, Teacher Corps-School of Education University of Massachusetts
Herbert Williams	LEA Coordinator-Teacher Corps Project Providence School Department
Pearl Spears	Assistant LEA Coordinator and Team Leader-Providence School Department
Marcia Reback	Social Studies Resource Teacher, Providence School Department
Stephanie Ince	Former Team Leader and Acting Planner, Human Relations and Cultural Studies, Providence School Department
Ina Stene	Intern-Teacher Corps Project

This group working together, with additional interaction with other project personnel, formulated modules for thirteen minimal competencies. Each module included a statement of the competency, a support folder of resources with varied avenues for exploration and skill development, and a validation process based upon the demonstration of the specific competency being acquired. Multiple copies of these modules were developed to ensure interns reasonable access to the materials.

In developing their rationale for the minimal competencies selected, the developers stated:

> We have emphasized throughout the necessity for internal consistency among goals, theories, strategies and behaviors. . . .
>
> We have tried to recognize that the responsibilities of the teacher are global and include responsibilities to students, parents, colleagues, and the larger community. The focus in this effort has been to define, in precise terms, those competencies essential to the fulfillment of these basic responsibilities. We have attempted to suggest many varied methods for achieving these competencies, leaving to the individual the final option of developing alternatives to one or more of these minimal competencies. Validation will be of the specific competency and not of the methods used to achieve it.[3]

Described below are summarized statements of each of the thirteen minimal competencies identified as essential to effective urban middle school teaching. A more complete description is included as Appendix G.

1. Professional Growth and Goals: Students are requested to examine and clarify their professional growth and goals, and formulate a program within the context of the Teacher Corps project. This is to include plans for work in school, in the community and in academic activities, and relate to the student's goals. Possible pitfalls are to be anticipated and alternative activities suggested.

2. Learning Theory: Students are to demonstrate knowledge of learning theories and articulate those which supported their teaching-learning goals. This can be done by defining learning theory, tracing its origins and applicability to American education, and by contrasting and comparing two very different learning theories citing tenets of each and their implications for the classroom.

3. Description and Assessment of Learning Patterns: Students are asked to demonstrate their ability to describe learning patterns, using one of four approaches (a cognitive approach, theories of developmental stages, a sociological approach or a self-image approach), and their ability to use assessment tools.

4. Curriculum Development: Students are requested to demonstrate a knowledge of systems of curriculum development. This is to be done by articulating a system or systems which supports the learning theories supporting the student's teaching-learning goals.

5. Teaching Strategies: Students are asked to derive a teaching strategy or strategies from the learning theories and systems of curriculum development which support their teaching-learning goals; and, they are asked to demonstrate one of these strategies in the classroom and participate in evaluating (1) its effectiveness and appropriateness in meeting their teaching-learning goals and (2) its consistency with their learning theories and systems of curriculum development.

6. Use of Resources: Students are requested to demonstrate the use of resources consistent with their teaching strategies and to participate in evaluating (1) the effectiveness and appropriateness of the way the media was used in terms of meeting goals and (2) the consistency of the use of resources with their learning theories. (All students are expected to demonstrate proficiency in operating a 16-millimeter projector, a video-tape recorder, a filmstrip projector, an overhead projector, a cassette tape recorder, a reel-to-reel recorder and an opaque projector.)

7. Management Techniques: Students are asked to demonstrate the use of management techniques consistent with their teaching strategies. (Management refers to space utilization, traffic patterns, standard classroom procedures, i.e., classroom management.) They are also requested to participate in evaluating (1) the effectiveness and appropriateness of their management technique in terms of meeting goals and (2) the consistency of the management techniques used with their learning theories.

8. Philosophy of Competency-Based Education: Students are requested to analyze the philosophy of competency-based education, describe its actual implementation to date in their classrooms, and identify constraints which militate against its full implementation.

9. Module Design: Students are asked to implement, evaluate and submit two competency-based modules or module clusters.

10. Feedback Techniques: Students are requested to use or develop feedback techniques for continuous

evaluation of the consistency between their goals and practices, using a combination of self-diagnosis, pupil feedback, peer evaluation and/or supervisory input.

11. Change Agentry: Students are asked to develop, implement and assess a plan for institutional change, and demonstrate the ability to organize and manage both material and human resources toward specified changes.

12. Racism/Sexism: Students are asked to demonstrate knowledge of racism (or sexism) and its effects in education by (1) defining the terms racism and institutional racism, (2) describing the impact of personal and institutional racism on educational systems, and (3) describing the implications of personal and institutional racism with respect to peer and pupil-teacher relationships and in at least one of the following areas: curriculum development in general, curriculum development in African Studies, affective education, community-based education, classroom management, or Project (Teacher Corps)

governance. (For sexism, same as foregoing but substitute sexism for racism.)

13. Community-Based Education: Students are requested to define the concept "community-based education" and participate in a community-based education project consistent with their definition.

With so many instructional alternatives available to interns, as well as the number of interns, some system was needed to coordinate the process of validating competencies. The Standards Committee developed a list of individuals in the Providence area who possessed at least one of the thirteen competencies, who held a professional certification, and who were willing to act as validators. For validation through the submission of materials, interns were provided the following instructions:

1. Make your intent to work on a certain competency known to the Standards Coordinator.

2. If you wish to pre-assess out on any competency, see support folder for pre-assessment procedures.

3. Send your materials to the Standards Coordinator to initiate action on validation.

4. Validation team will work with your materials.

5. An appointment may be made for you by the Standards Coordinator with the validation team if clarification or remediation is necessary, or upon your request.

6. The Standards Committee will act upon the recommendations of the validation team.

7. The Standards Committee will send you copies of any communications concerning your validation process.[4]

For live classroom demonstrations, video-taped presentations or other demonstrations to the validation team, interns were to follow these procedures:

1. Make your intent to work on a competency known to the Standards Coordinator.

2. Call Standards Coordinator to set up appointment for validation team or bring tape and materials to Veazie (a school in which the Standards Coordinator had an office).

3. An appointment may be made for you by the Standards Coordinator with the validation team if clarification or remediation is necessary, or upon your request.

4. Competencies, 5, 6, 7, will be validated at the same time unless special arrangements are requested. (See list on pages 186-187.)

5. The Standards Committee will act upon the recommendations of the validation team.

6. The Standards Coordinator will send you copies of any communications concerning your validation process.[5]

Although these thirteen competencies represented a consensus of the Exits Committee, were the result of hundreds of man-hours of labor, and received strong support from various segments of the project, they never received the formal acceptance of the entire project. To many individuals, the minimal competencies represented the most basic and essential skills necessary to

effective teaching. Without them, no quality control could be assured. To others, the minimal competencies represented a desirable but not exclusive set of teaching skills to which there were other probable alternatives. In essence, they were desirable and useful, but should not be required of all interns. The debate between these two viewpoints went on for several months between April and September, 1972. Consensus was never achieved on the mandatory nature of the minimal competencies. The result was that interns were strongly encouraged to achieve the recommended minimal competencies, but they were not required of all interns. However, all interns had to relate their learning activities to <u>some</u> specified competency, whether or not it was one of the recommended thirteen.

Despite the lack of project consensus regarding the extent to which the minimal competencies should be mandatory and required of all interns, the competencies did represent a more explicit and specific set of desirable teaching characteristics than had existed previously within the project. The minimal competencies also represented the produce of a collaborative effort, and one which was somewhat unusual in that it embraced viewpoints not generally sought in such efforts. The teacher trainers (Rhode Island College and the University of Massachusetts), the teacher consumer (Providence School Department) and the teacher trainees (team leaders and interns) had all been provided opportunities to advocate their views and negotiate differences in the effort to crystallize a set of minimal competencies. The results, while not endorsed by all project participants, significantly increased the conceptual clarity and skill specification

of those characterostics likely to produce effective teachers at the middle school level. The disparity between the explication of these competencies and the teacher certification requirements for Rhode Island and Massachusetts are only too evident to any who read them.

Resource Allocation

With the new inservice model, interns could participate in highly individualized programs of graduate study and teacher certification. This level of diversity and individualization made the budgeting and allocation of project resources considerably more difficult. It was necessary to develop some equitable and effective way to allocate and monitor the use of these resources which would meet the approval of the diverse interests now recognized programmatically within the project. During the first inservice year, budgeting to meet interns' instructional demands was largely a task the writer performed in consultation with other project staff personnel. The operational budget for the intervening summer period was formulated by the writer in consultation with some interns, and presented to the project for its approval. Thus prior to the second inservice year interns were beginning to be more actively involved in budgeting and approving the use of the project's fiscal resources. As interns were now taking the initiative in determining what course content they needed and which instructors they wanted to hire, it was logical to take the next step and place the project's projected resources before them and have them determine the best way to budget and allocate them.

In July, 1972, the writer participated in a meeting open to all project personnel for the purpose of blocking out major inservice commitments for the 1972/73 academic year beginning in September. Those participating in the meeting, which ran nearly five hours, included three team leaders, fourteen interns, one school department representative, and the project secretary. The writer began the meeting by distributing copies of the 1972/73 proposed budget and a breakdown of comparative costs resulting from the 1971/72 budget. After explaining questions about the budget's format and limitations of flexibility, the writer essentially acted as a consulting resource for the rest of the meeting.

The interns and others present systematically went through numerous variables affecting the budget, discussing pros and cons, and reached a consensus on the basic expenditures to be obligated. The meeting was a long and difficult one, but the participants took the task seriously and evaluated numerous compromises before reaching their final consensus position. The result was a setting of project and fiscal priorities. These priorities were further refined as the summer progressed and fall content needs for the inservice program became more explicit. Appendix H is an interim report on inservice monies dated January 25, 1973. It indicates the actual inservice content areas, funding levels and instructional coordinators approved by the interns for the fall semester of the second inservice year (1972) and their projected budget for the spring semester (1973).

Two additional features of this report are worth noting. The first is the designation of instructional coordinators. These coordinators were responsible for seeing that needed instruction within designated content areas was available; coordinators themselves may or may not have performed in instructional roles themselves. In any event, coordinating and/or instructional roles were based on the ability to do the job. Thus coordinators/instructors included not only university professors but also project staff, school department representatives, team leaders and interns themselves--all selected with the approval of those they served.

The second feature was the budget coordinators designated for the spring semester (1973). During the fall semester, many of the budget expenditures necessary to support instructional activity were processed and coordinated through the University of Massachusetts. One difficulty with this arrangement was that instructional coordinators and their students did not always know the budget status of their specific content area. Therefore, a budget coordinator was designated for each content cluster who could (1) approve expenditures within that content cluster and (2) monitor expenditures with regard to the approved budget. Budget coordinators were provided a memorandum about the use of inservice funds which outlined (1) legal limitations and (2) recommended procedures for hiring consultants and purchasing materials.

The result of this arrangement was the placing in the hands of onsite personnel the fiscal and procedural machinery necessary for implementing their

expenditure. Some budget coordinators kept more careful records than others, and a central monitoring point was set up with the project administrator in Providence, who entered each expenditure into a master ledger. This permitted a quick check of the project's inservice budgetary status and an onsite point for followup and clarification when needed.

A Summary View of Competence and Consensus

As competence and consensus evolved into prime dimensions of project leadership, they increasingly affected all aspects of the project's structure and activities. The result was a management style somewhat holistic in its philosophy, but increasingly characterized by several interrelated and discrete components. These components were:

1. A leadership model based upon competence to perform rather than titular or role authority.
2. A decision-making model which was highly decentralized, and which maximized conflict resolution in seeking consensus through non-coercive means.
3. An assessment model focused upon the continual clarification of goals, the identification of discrepancies between project goals and behavior, and the generation of data for decision-making which was descriptive and non-judgmental.

4. A communication model which emphasized openness and the sharing of project-related information with all project participants.

5. A philosophical model which emphasized clarity and accountability, and sought to minimize arbitrary or irrational behavior.

In this writer's view, such a program management environment placed the project in conflict with the predominant management environments of the instructional partnership itself, as has been stated in Chapter IV. At times, project and/or individual survival seemingly dictated the acceptance of fuzzy or arbitrary dictates, but these times were surprisingly few. Far more often these conflicts resulted in a clearer understanding of the project's goals and activities, a subsequent disinclination to interact with the project in an arbitrary manner, and the development of conceptual and administrative bases within the institutional partnership more facilitative of project goals. The process of continually seeking clarity usually generated some conflict. This conflict occurred most often where there were efforts, individual or institutional, to impose demands upon the project which were either arbitrary or fuzzy in nature, or where the institution had different but legitimate goals which were clear.

As this writer reviews the history of those conflicts in which he was a participant, it is my firm conviction that the benefits of the project's management

style, as it evolved, far outweighed what some may view to have been its costs. If nothing else, it produced for some a different educational management model which was effective, and in which the usual ingredients of professional ego, politics, whimsy and paternalism were minimized in favor of clarity, competence, consensus and non-coercion. And while there were short-term costs in time, lapses in communication and occasional frustration, the long-term benefits were worthwhile and fruitful.

CHAPTER V--FOOTNOTES

[1]U. S., Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Teacher Corps Guidelines: Information and Guidance for Preparation and Submission of Proposals for 1971-73 Teacher Corps Projects (October, 1970), pp. 29-30.

[2]Memorandum to Management Team from Ronald Bell, undated, 1973.

[3]Minimal Competencies for Teaching Interns: A Performance Based Teacher Education Model, Vol. I (Providence, Rhode Island: Sixth Cycle Teacher Corps Project sponsored by the University of Massachusetts, the Providence School Department and Rhode Island College, 1973), p. 1.

[4]Ibid., p. 16.

[5]Ibid., p. 18.

CHAPTER VI

PROBLEMS OF GOAL-SETTING, ASSESSMENT AND EVALUATION

This chapter reviews some of the problems of goal-setting, assessment and evaluation that occurred within the project. The first part reviews these problems on the individual, team and project-wide levels, and describes the project's distinction between assessment (as basically a descriptive process) and evaluation (as largely a judgmental process). The second part of the chapter describes three processes used by the project to generate data for decision-making. The chapter concludes with a brief summary.

Implementation Problems

The Teacher Corps project, while recognizing the need for effective evaluation systems, had only the statement of an approach, limited staff experience and scarce resources to guide its initial efforts in approaching the task of project evaluation. The approach was one of generating descriptive data for decision-making, rather than seeking or placing inherent values on specific activities. Only one project staff member had any formal training in evaluation, and no grant funds were provided for project evaluation although they had been requested. The difficulty of project evaluation was complicated further by a wide array of unprioritized project goals, and the distance between the University's office in Amherst, Massachusetts and the site of the project's

activities in Providence, Rhode Island. In spite of these restrictions, a variety of data-generating activities were implemented by the project. To underscore their descriptive nature, the term evaluation was eventually dropped and the term assessment was substituted.

This turned out to be a wise decision for two other reasons. First, many interns had previous experiences with evaluations which had left a residue of negative feelings. This was particularly true of those interns who had been Peace Corps Volunteers. Second, the word evaluation was so laden with emotion within the eight Providence middle schools that any activity perceived to be evaluative, i.e., judgmental, triggered feelings of anxiety and, occasionally, even hostility. By simply not using the word evaluation, it was much easier to establish a dialogue with corpsmembers and others directed towards the generation of descriptive data. The difference between descriptive and judgmental uses of data was, however, one which usually took some time to establish as it was not uncommon for corpsmembers and Providence middle school personnel to confuse the two or to see them as one and the same.

This approach had an additional advantage in that it was consistent with the thinking of several writers and practitioners in the field of educational evaluation who have advocated a more descriptive approach to evaluation. For example, as Stufflebeam notes, Tyler's widely accepted definition of evaluation has been that of determining the congruence between performance and objectives.[1] Stufflebeam himself set forth a definition of educational evaluation as the process

of delineating, obtaining and providing useful information for judging decision alternatives,[2] and identifies the three major steps in the evaluation process as delineating, obtaining and providing [information].[3] The project's use of the term assessment reinforced its difference from popular perceptions among project participants of evaluation as a totally judgmental process.

In most cases, data-generating mechanisms emerged in response to needs held by project members, either individually, by team or project-wide. A climate became established in which assessment of project activities was the responsibility of all project members and not only that of staff members. However, because there were limited resources for evaluation efforts and a relative lack of evaluative training within the project, an internal project evaluator was identified by the project in the fall of 1971. This individual aided the project's thinking about what kinds of data would be most useful for project decision-making and how to collect it. Since the project could not hire an evaluator per se, the project staff decided that it would be useful to offer corpsmembers an inservice opportunity to learn about various evaluation philosophies and methodologies. This was well received by several corpsmembers who entered into such study and then practiced on the project. Thus we were able to generate badly needed data about various project activities.

Assessment activities over the course of the project were varied in purpose and approach. No one particular methodology or methodological approach prevailed. While several mechanisms operated at various levels, the

levels most easily and usefully identified are individual, team and project-wide.

Individual Level

Two inservice processes were directly related to data production at the individual level: the use of individual study contracts and validation of the minimal competencies recommended for all interns. Since individual study contracts specified the learning objectives for each intern, it was a relatively easy matter to determine when those objectives had been achieved since they all had to be demonstrated in one form or another. This was also true in determining whether or not an intern had achieved one of the specified minimal competencies. However, these two processes were augmented by opportunities for personal development conferences and goal clarification exercises.

The purpose of personal development conferences was to "provide the basis for formulating individual progress statements and to determine the assistance, if any, required to facilitate further development."[4] The intern could select one or two staff members, and anyone else he or she desired, to sit down together for the conference. It was recommended that each intern participating in a personal development conference have at least two others present to avoid the likelihood of advice that was too indicative of a single viewpoint. The stated assumptions of the conference were that:

1. The individual is the most informed person on what is going on inside her/his head. (Goals, motivation, intentions, etc.)

2. The individual is one (but only one) valid observer of his external behavior.[5]

The general approach was to explore with each intern their stated goals, resource needs, problems and plans from the point of view of the intern, and to offer perceptions in those areas where the intern was interested in an external perspective. The conferences were voluntary and were introduced by the project staff in the fall of 1972. Only a small number of interns requested personal development conferences initially, but as time went on more occurred as interns found use for them.

The other specific methodology utilized was a goal clarification procedure which the project evaluator provided for the interns. Through a series of specified steps, interns stated their perceptions of desirable project goals, team goals and individual goals. These perceptions were then compared with one another and with the project's written goal statements. By completing this process, interns could more easily and explicitly discern congruence or discrepancy between stated and desired goals at the individual, team and project levels.

Team Level

The most common assessment activity at the team level was the use of an outsider, or non-team member, as an observer or consultant to aid the

team in goal clarification, conflict resolution and progress assessment. This was usually a project staff member or someone directly associated with the project. At times, however, teams would hire their own external consultant and hold a weekend retreat in order to assess their activities and reach group decisions on various courses of action. Project staff saw these retreats as a legitimate team assessment process and approved the costs involved; however, it was generally expected that all team members would participate and that a statement of goals for the retreat would be developed in advance.

Two other team assessment mechanisms were undertaken in the first year of the project. The first was a review of school team activities in each middle school. The second was an attempt to identify and clarify the appropriate team leader style for each of the eight Teacher Corps teams. This second activity is described in detail in a subsequent portion of this chapter.

The participants in the building review included principals, department chairmen, affiliate teachers, team leaders, interns, project staff and three non-project associated students from the University of Massachusetts to act as recorders and to prepare reports on the reviews. The purpose of the building reviews was communicated to all participants on January 19, 1972, in a memorandum from the School Coordinator:

> The purpose of this review is to determine what changes need to be made at this point in time in order to maximize the effectiveness of the Teacher Corps presence in the middle schools. . . . In addition to suggesting modifications for the project,

> it is anticipated that this review will also serve to communicate differing perceptions of the present status of the project. . . that the results of this review will have implications for our summer program. . . (and) that the final process for developing second year plans will grow out of the review.[6]

The memorandum included a plan for project review, a questionnaire and a tentative schedule of activities. The need to share differing views within each building of what teams were doing was particularly necessary since (1) the project was so diverse in its activities that participants and observers saw the project in terms of the particular activities they were either implementing or observing, and (2) the project was making use of many new concepts whose meanings differed greatly among people, _e.g._, team-teaching, revolving leadership, modules, competency-based education. Interviews were scheduled, in most cases separately, with the building principal, the Teacher Corps team, and affiliate teachers including their department chairman. The agenda for these interviews, identified as a tentative one, was provided in advance and included the following items:

1. School team goals and progress--do project goals need revision?
2. The team model--use, problems and potential--do we need to modify team structures?
3. Curriculum development--how is it going?
4. Leadership model--assessment of clarity of concept and effectiveness in use.

5. Innovation--what's happening that are alternatives to pre-Teacher Corps ?

6. Integration of efforts--roles, structures, problems.

7. Community-based education.

8. Inservice Training--summer and fall (1971).

9. Evaluation of team and individual performance.

10. Suggestions for summer (1972).

11. Suggestions for structuring the second-year planning process.[7]

The interviewers included at least one project staff member from the University of Massachusetts and one from the Providence School Department, and at least one recorder. Following the interviews in each building, the recorder or recorders drafted a written report based on their written notes, taped portions of interviews and their own understanding of what people were saying. These draft reports were returned to each school team (principal, corpsmembers, affiliate teachers and department chairman) for their review, either individually or as a group. A meeting was then set up by the interviewers and recorders with each school team to discuss any inaccuracies in the draft report, and any differing perceptions about existing priorities and activities of the school team.

The discussion meetings with the individual school teams were characterized by several fairly common elements. First, there were usually differing perceptions within school teams about what the corpsmember team was

doing, and what they should be doing. The difference was usually a result of incomplete data or unresolved feelings about what were perceived to be project or team goals. Second, the building review process, in many instances, was the first significant effort to share differing perceptions and feelings within school teams.

Third, the meetings produced a certain amount of conflict and some participants were better able to handle this conflict than others. Affiliates and corpsmembers alike expressed some reluctance to discuss areas of conflict, particularly in the presence of those with some titular authority, e.g., the project director or the school principal. It was difficult to remind participants, at times, that the review was not meant to be evaluative of individuals, but rather an effort to develop some common understandings and expectations for the school team in the interest of improving its performance. However, the reference to evaluation of team and individual performance in the school coordinator's memo quoted above inhibited this effort and reinforced some anxieties and fears, slowing down the reconciliation of views within some groups. Fourth, the meetings produced, in almost all cases, substantial modifications in expectations or performance by school team participants permitting a more shared view of needs, problems and accomplishments to emerge. Furthermore, by reconciling some elements of conflict, planning and communications within school teams were generally facilitated.

The most useful features of the building review assessment process seem to have been (1) the involvement of all or almost all participants within the school teams, (2) the sharing of divergent perceptions and priorities between corpsmembers, affiliate teachers and the building principal, (3) the separation of the assessment process from personal evaluative judgments, and (4) the attempt to reconcile differences by minimizing position or titular authority in the interest of seeking some consensus within the school team about its goals and behaviors. The reports resulting from these meetings were considered internal working documents within each middle school, to be released if the school team so desired. This decision further underscored the descriptive/planning context for the exercise, and relieved some anxieties resulting from concerns about personal evaluations being made to higher authorities.

Project-Wide Level

Most of the data-generating processes used in the project had effects of some kind at all three levels: individual, team and project-wide. This is true of the processes described here, but their most frequent application was at the project-wide level. The role of project meetings and the use of various ad hoc issue-oriented committees to generate assessment data has already been described. During the first year of the project, additional data were derived most systematically through the work of the project evaluator. He utilized, for the most part, the Fortune-Hutchinson methodology[8] developed by Dr. Jimmie

Fortune and Dr. Thomas Hutchinson at the University of Massachusetts. This methodology identified primary decision-makers, the goals of primary decision-makers, sought data on the goals of primary decision-makers and then determined the extent to which primary decision-makers used the data gathered on their goals in their decision-making.

The methodology was basically sound except for the first step in its application to our project. The project had formed a management team based upon the close collaboration and cooperation of project staff. The effort to achieve a team approach to project leadership generally resulted in some diminution of individual priorities in favor of team priorities. However, the Fortune-Hutchinson methodology, as it was applied, focused upon the priorities of individual decision-makers. (This was a matter of choice by the project evaluator, not a requirement insofar as the methodology was concerned.) The result was the generation of some confusion in the signals being transmitted to corpsmembers about staff expectations. Had the methodology been applied to the goals of the management team as a team, it would have contributed to an earlier clarification of management team goals and gathered data more likely to be relevant and useful to project decision-making. As it was, the methodology generated some useful data, provided corpsmembers with a systematic methodology for generating data, and continually involved the project in systematic data-gathering which helped establish a climate oriented towards operating on the basis of clear information. This climate was further reinforced by the evaluation

methodology classes and the subsequent application of systematic data-generating procedures to the project by some of the interns.

These ongoing processes described above were supplemented by two forms of external assessment or evaluation. The visiting expert model was utilized by the occasional visits to the project by the Program Specialist for Teacher Corps/Washington. Although the purpose of these visits was to assess project activities in terms of project goals, the visits usually produced evaluative conclusions by the Program Specialist more frequently based on his personal views or agency priorities, rather than on approved project goals. Much of this problem resulted from the kinds of perceptual and procedural conflict described in Chapter IV. Since the reports of the Program Specialist were distributed to the Teacher Corps agency, IHE, LEA, and State officials, they often generated distorted perceptions of the project's actual goals and activities. These visits and reports had the cumulative effect of jeopardizing project activities by (1) establishing an institutional mind set at the national headquarters which made serious negotiation exteremely difficult, and (2) generating confusion and anxiety, at times, within the project itself.

By contrast, the data-gathering activities of the second external agent were much more descriptive, systematic, and non-judgmental. This agent was an organization called Contemporary Research Incorporated (CRI), which had received a contract from the National Teacher Corps office to assess the activities of all Sixth Cycle Teacher Corps projects in the United States. Un-

fortunately, the impact of CRI's activities was limited to whatever value corpsmembers gained by responding to CRI's inquiries, since CRI was prohibited by the National Teacher Corps office from providing any data to the project visited.

Among the most useful data-producing activities at the project level was the development of a project history. The history was undertaken by a former team leader to present corpsmember views of what had been significant in the project's many activities. This effort had its beginnings in the late spring of 1972. By July, a questionnaire was distributed to all project members soliciting their thoughts on a wide variety of project-related issues. This questionnaire was subsequently determined to be too lengthy and broad in scope, and a revised questionnaire was then developed in the late winter of 1972/73 to serve as the basis for individual interviews. After about ten such interviews, this questionnaire was reduced even further and distributed to all project personnel. The interviews focused on the following major concepts, although this listing was by no means restrictive:

1. team-teaching; your team experience
2. competency-based education
3. community-based education
4. inservice and preservice program
5. African Studies (6th grade affective curriculum and your own university-level studies)

6. leadership (revolving, floating, emerging, and/or competency-based)
    a. team leadership
    b. project leadership
    c. management team

7. consensus decision-making

8. the effect of the project experience on
    a. the Providence School Department
    b. other teachers
    c. the community
    d. personal growth

9. communications (interpersonal and administrative)[9]

At the conclusion of the taped interviews, the tapes were transcribed onto paper and returned to those interviewed for comments and corrections. While this was a lengthy process, it assured greater accuracy in reporting the views of project personnel by affording them an opportunity to critique and revise their own verbal statements. Finally, individual statements for each major concept were grouped together to form a pool of comments, and a summary statement of those comments was then developed.

The project history had at least three major values. First, it provided an alternative to the top-down evaluative reports usually developed by project administrators. The report represented a comprehensive attempt to portray the project's most significant actions and effects from the points of view of the learners. Second, it provided corpsmembers an internal mechanism by which to assess their project's activities, rather than forcing them to rely on some

external determination. Third, the history provided a means by which corpsmembers and other project personnel could compare their own perceptions with the aggregate views of all corpsmembers.

It is significant that reports on competency-based and other teacher-training programs are almost always written by either teacher trainers or program administrators. Rarely are there reports of substance developed by teacher trainees. Such views are essential if teacher training programs are to be assessed by both their developers and their products.

The remaining two major data-generating mechanisms operating at the project level were a concept clarification methodology and a goal assessment survey. They are described below, along with the team leader inventory questionnaire.

Selected Instruments

Concept Clarification

One of the greatest causes of confusion in the project was the diverse perceptions of particular concepts which existed among project personnel, and the competition that existed at times among those perceptions for dominance over other views. For example, the concepts of team-teaching, community-based education and floating leadership meant many different things to project personnel. One very helpful response to this confusion was a concept clarification methodology based upon the approach to operationalizing fuzzy concepts

developed by Hutchinson at the University of Massachusetts.[10] This methodology had three basic components: the identifying of possible dimensions of a concept, the collecting of participant views of these dimensions, and the reporting back to participants a summarization of their views.

The identification of a concept's possible dimensions was accomplished by surveying ten to fifteen percent of the corpsmembers and asking them to indicate about five or six possible dimensions of the concept. The responses were collected, duplicate responses eliminated, and then distributed to the total group as possible dimensions of the concept. Project personnel were requested to review these dimensions and to consider whether or not each of the dimensions was (1) a part of their ideal concept, (2) an essential part of their ideal concept, (3) not a part of their ideal concept, or (4) essential that it not be part of their ideal concept. Participants' responses were then reported back to the project. The aggregate scores indicated explicitly the extent to which there was agreement or disagreement within the project about essential dimensions of a specified concept.

For example, this procedure was used to determine the essential dimensions of the concept rotating (floating) leadership. Possible dimensions of this concept included:

> People speak freely without the fear of rejection.
>
> Team members share equally the teaching of each class.
>
> The team is responsible for the actions of the class.

Directions are given by adults.

There is teacher-student negotiating.

All students are doing the same thing.

There is no threatening external authority.

There is no obvious indication of status leaders.

Project personnel were requested to categorize these dimensions with the four categories described above. Thirty-five percent of the intern population (16 of 46) responded. The data indicated the dimension with the highest percentage of agreement as essential (with 56-1/4% or 25 of 46) was that people speak freely without the fear of rejection.[11]

While this was generalizable only to the group returning the questionnaire, and not to the entire project, it was safely assumed there was little agreement within the project about the essential dimensions of rotating leadership. By making this lack of agreement explicit, the methodology not only contributed to further project efforts to clarify and seek agreement about the concept of rotating leadership, but also contributed to greater care and modified expectations on the part of those using the term.

In reviewing the use of this concept clarification methodology its greatest value was not in producing agreement but in clarifying and making explicit points of difference. One of the common failings of communication within the project was the assumption of unanimity in talking about essentially fuzzy concepts. This assumption was usually inaccurate and often left people

thinking they had reached points of common understanding, when in fact they had not. This was particularly true of concepts such as team-teaching, community-based education, revolving leadership and affective education. It was even more true with issues which were heavily value-laden such as racism.

Efforts to identify differences in perception of fuzzy concepts prior to reaching agreement about the use of such concepts produced some interesting effects. In some individuals these efforts produced a determination not to acknowledge differences, or to respond to them as merely insignificant. Many times this determination seemed accompanied by a fear of difference. It is not clear exactly why this fear was present, but it seemed to result in two different situations. In the first situation, individuals had committed themselves heavily to a specific definition for a fuzzy concept, e.g., team-teaching. Challenges to their definition were often threatening to the rationale which they had developed for what they were doing. If other individuals were equally committed to a different operationalization, this usually created a competitive environment in which one side tried to overpower the other; this overpowering, however, was not based on a search for clarity, but on previous commitments to differing definitions. Little concept clarification took place in such an environment.

In the second situation, the desire to avoid identifying conceptual differences seemed related to the need for affiliation. The need for affiliation often overrode the desire for conceptual clarity when such clarity threatened affiliation needs. Affiliation needs were strongest among those who saw them-

selves as members of a peer group engaged in communications about fuzzy concepts which were heavily value-laden. Fear or anxiety about identifying differences tended to reinforce perceptions of unanimity and thereby retard concept clarification efforts. When applied to value-laden areas, the fear of difference may have skewed in some way the results of the concept clarification methodology described.

Team Leader Inventory Questionnaire

A Leader Behavior Questionnaire has been developed by Blanchard and Hersey to provide supervisors with feedback on their supervising behavior as observed by their followers.[12] It consists of thirty actions which the follower observes his supervisor to do either always, often, occasionally, seldom or never. The actions are arranged into two columns of fifteen each. The left hand column represent Initiating Structure Values and the right hand column Consideration Values. After a follower has completed the questionnaire on his supervisor, he scores his responses in each column by multiplying the number of always responses by four, often by three, occasionally by two, seldom by one and never by zero. The result is two scores: one total for Initiating Structure and another for Consideration. The scores indicate the relationship of the supervisor's Initiating Structure behavior and his Consideration behavior, and whether one predominates over the other. It is likely that one of four leadership styles will be described; high task-low relationship, high task-high relationship, low task-high relationship, or low task-low relationship. By relating the style described

by the questionnaire to Blanchard and Hersey's Life Cycle Theory, an estimate can be postulated about the effectiveness of the resulting leadership style.

In attempting to produce greater clarity about the concept of floating (competency-based) leadership and to assess team leader behavior in terms of its appropriateness to each team's situation, the Teacher Corps project needed a leader inventory questionnaire with more specific and more numerous dimensions than that developed by Blanchard and Hersey. With their Leader Behavior Questionnaire as a guide, the Project Director developed a Team Leader Inventory Questionnaire consisting of forty possible leader behaviors. In addition to the frequency categories of Always, Often, Occasionally, Seldom and Never, space was provided to allow respondents to indicate both perceived ideal and actual leader behaviors along a given dimension. An example is provided below.

		Always	Often	Occasionally	Seldom	Never
Makes attitudes clear to group	A (Actual)					
	I (Ideal)					
Rules with an iron hand	A					
	I					

Fig. 11 - Sample Dimensions--Team Leader Inventory Questionnaire

By checking both actual (A) and ideal (I) frequencies, a determination can be made about the appropriateness of that behavior for that respondent. If responses are essentially the same for actual and ideal, no matter which frequency is checked, then maximum appropriateness is indicated for that respondent on a specified dimension.

This questionnaire was administered to all interns and team leaders after they had been in the schools for several months. The data were then summarized for each team and returned. A meeting was held with each team by project staff members to aid in interpreting and understanding the data. The Analysis of Team Leader Inventory Results sent to each team (Appendix I) focused on two areas of discrepancy:

> First, there is the discrepancy (as perceived by respondents) between what ought to be the behavior of the Team Leader and what actually has been experienced. Secondly, there is the discrepancy between Team Leader perception of appropriate and actual behavior and that of other respondents.[13]

A Discrepancy Profile was added to the data results for each team, which indicated the following dimensions:

A. Those items that have discrepancies of more than one vertical line between respondents' actual and ideal (one space between any response on one line and all responses on the other line).

B. Those items where responses are spread across three or more spaces horizontally. There are broad team discrepancies and may suggest the need for more "teamness."

C. Those items that discrepancies of one space or more between the team leader response and the most disparate follower response.

Category I: Items in which "always" responses suggest an autocratic styles.

Category II: Items in which "always" responses suggest a participating style.

Category III: Some items do not clearly distinguish autocratic or participatory styles. There are some in which "never" suggests autocratic style, and these have not been noted on the sheet.[14]

For example, responses from one team's summary which indicate profiles of group response are shown in the following figure. The numbers indicate the intern responses and the dots team leader responses.

In the first dimension of figure twelve there is team consensus on the ideal leader behavior, but some disagreement among team members about what is actually taking place. It is clear that one team member feels the leader seldom listens attentively to different views, and that may well be true for that individual. As ideal leader behavior is agreed upon, the data show the team and the team leader the existence of disagreement over observed or actual behavior along this dimension, and the presence of one particularly dissatisfied team member. If ideal and actual behavior are to coincide, some discussion must take place by team members about this dimension.

		Always	Often	Occasionally	Seldom	Never	Discrepancy Profile A	B	C	I	II
Listen attentatively to different views	A	2	2°		1		A	B	C		II
	I	5°									
Insist that team members work to capacity	A		1	1	1°	2		B	C	I	
	I	2	2°			1		B	C		
Determine standards of performance	A		1	2	1	1°		B	C	I	
	I	1	1°	1	1	1		B	C		

Figure 12: Sample Responses--Team Leader Inventory Questionnaire

There is little agreement on the second dimension about either ideal or actual leader behavior within the team. In terms of insisting that team members work to capacity, there is little likelihood the team leader will satisfy the leadership demands of the team. In contrast to the first dimension however, the second indicates a general discrepancy in the range of ideal and actual leader behavior by both the team leader and interns: an always/often ideal cluster versus an occasionally/seldom/never actual cluster.

Responses to the third dimension indicate almost total disagreement within the team over ideal and actual leader behavior in determining standards of performance. They also indicate a wide discrepancy between the team leader's self-assessed ideal and actual behavior along this dimension. Clearly some discussion by the team is necessary if leader behavior in determining standards of performance, whatever it is, is to have any hope of being effective within the team.

While meeting with individual teams and discussing the data gathered, project staff members stated, that in their view, it was not necessary to achieve agreement to the same leader behavior by all team members. (See Chapter VII for a discussion of convergent and divergent consensus.) What had to be clear they said, were follower expectations for leader behavior along given dimensions. Team agreement on specified leader behavior made the team leader's job easier, but it was often necessary to modify a specified team leader behavior toward one

or two team members. The value, in terms of potential leader effectiveness, was in making leader/follower expectations explicit, sharing observations of actual leader behavior, and then minimizing as many points of conflict as possible. Some corpsmember teams pursued this conflict resolution further than did others, but in all cases expectations for team leader behavior were modified as a result of the assessment process.

The Team Leader Inventory Questionnaire clearly had some specific value biases associated with it, and these were re-stated explicitly in the Analysis of Team Leader Inventory Results.

> In our definition of team roles it is essential that each person be allowed the opportunity to participate in the decisions about his own welfare and function in proportion to his ability to assume responsibility. With this definition of roles, the major responsibility of the leader is to allow the ideas and creativity of team members as much influence in the direction of team activities as the ideas went. This suggests that ideas will be evaluated on the basis of their soundness and relevance to team purpose. The status of the idea's originator is not a consideration in the judgment of merit. . . .
>
> No team leader could possibly succeed in this project without making some adjustment in decision-making style. . . .
>
> Floating leadership assumes that no one person has all the skills to meet all leader demands in all situations. Unfortunately, this has been confused at times with an expectation within the project that floating leadership means taking turns at being the leader, or that leaders and followers have equal

> leader prerogatives all the time. Neither are accurate perceptions of the concept.
>
> Leadership is situational and will therefore make different demands of different people at different times.[15]

The use of the Team Leader Inventory Questionnaire, perhaps more than any other single assessment activity, helped to establish an assessment climate in which effective leadership was related to group purpose and explicit awareness of leader/follower expectations. In teams whose membership included White Americans, Black Americans and Black Africans, this process had several implications for leadership in multi-cultural groups. Most importantly, making both leader and follower expectations explicit minimized the likelihood of misperceiving or inaccurately anticipating such expectations because of participants' cultural biases. Once leader and follower expectations were made explicit, little effective leadership could take place until differences in expectations were discussed and reconciled within the team.

Goal Assessment Survey

One of the planning strategies in developing the Teacher Corps project had been the non-prioritized listing of institutional goals for the University of Massachusetts, the Providence School Department and the National Teacher Corps office. During the fall semester of the project's second inservice year (1972), various project participants articulated a need to find out where project

personnel stood in regard to project goal statements. After several abortive attempts to get this data, an instrument was designed to assess the goal priorities of the institutional partners of the project (See Appendix J). The original goal statements in the approved Teacher Corps proposal were broken down into separate and distinct statements. Project participants were asked to (1) read these statements and categorize them as VERY IMPORTANT, IMPORTANT, NOT IMPORTANT, or DO NOT UNDERSTAND, in terms of their own priorities, (2) add any goal statements they thought the project ought to have that were absent, and (3) indicate the relative priority which they felt should be assigned the views expressed by each major component of the project partnership: corpsmembers, Providence community, Providence School Department, Rhode Island College, Teacher Corps/Washington and the University of Massachusetts.

The questionnaires were distributed to (1) all corpsmembers, (2) all middle school principals, social studies department chairmen, affiliate teachers and central administrators associated with the project, (3) to fourteen individuals who worked with various community action agencies and who had some familiarity with the Teacher Corps project, (4) to five faculty members at the Rhode Island College associated with the project, (5) project staff, faculty of the Center for International Education, Deans of the School of Education, and members of the Teacher Preparation Program Council of the School of Education at the University of Massachusetts, and (6) the Program Specialist in Teacher Corps/Washington.

There were three major problems in administering the questionnaire. First, it was a very lengthy process that respondents were requested to perform. Second, most respondents did not perform all the requested steps. This was due in part to the length of the questionnaire, some design error, and the third major problem: the goal statements themselves. Normally, in constructing a questionnaire, great attention is paid to the wording of questions. However, the survey attempted to maintain the language of the original proposal. It was clear from some of the comments by respondents that meanings of some goal statements were not clear, and that it was difficult to differentiate between similar goal statements. However, it was possible to develop an aggregate view of individual goal statements in terms of their categorization as VERY IMPORTANT, IMPORTANT, NOT IMPORTANT or DO NOT UNDERSTAND.

In reporting the data gathered, there were two major problems. The first was reporting the data in such a way as to give equal weight to each group reporting, since no clear priority between groups had ever been established. The second was to provide the data in a visual manner that allowed some priority to be seen if, indeed, any priority of views emerged. The table on the following page describes the relative ranking of views by each group. This was done by simply adding up the number of responses for each ranking in each group and assigning each rank a weight equal to its order, e.g., rank one had a weight of one, rank six had a weight of six. The total scores were then ordered lowest

TABLE 7

Goal Assessment Survey--Responses on Priority of Group Views

	GROUPS							
	Corps members	Prov. Comm.	Prov. Schools	RIC	TC/W	U/Mass: Proj.Staff	School of Ed.	RANK
Responses	26	5	18	3	1	3	9	
RATINGS								
Corpsmembers	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1
Providence Community	2	3	2	3	3	1	3	2
Providence Schools	3	1	3	1	2	3	1	2
Rhode Island College	5	4	6	4	5	4	6	4
Teacher Corps/ Washington	6	6	5	6	6	6	5	6
University of Massachusetts	4	5	4	5	4	4	4	4

SUMMARY OF VIEWS EXPRESSED:

1. The views of Corpsmembers, the Providence Community and the Providence School Department should have greater priority than the views expressed by Rhode Island College, the University of Massachusetts and Teacher Corps/Washington.

2. The views of Corpsmembers should have the greatest priority, and the views of Teacher Corps/Washington the least.

3. The views of the Providence Community and the Providence School Department are clustered in the second priority rank.

4. The views of the University of Massachusetts and Rhode Island College are clustered in the fourth priority rank.

to highest and ranked one to six accordingly. The overall rank was determined by using the same procedure but reading across the groups. The result is stated in the summary of views at the bottom of the table.

The first page of the Summary of Survey Responses, is set forth on the following page as Table 7 to illustrate how these data were reported. The full table is part of Appendix K. After administering the survey, a project workshop was held to group the project's original goal statements into clearer operational statements. These statements developed a new working agenda for the project. The original intention had been that the data generated by the goal assessment survey would provide the basis for this workshop and, in fact, early returns were used as indicators. However, the full returns were not tabulated until after the operational statements had been developed. Thus individual goal statements were clustered into similar goal groups for which a single operational statement was written. The data gathered and presented in Table 7 was, therefore, reported in accord with these goal groups.

An attempt was made to provide mean scores for each group's returns in order to provide an equitable means of compensating for the different size of each group. The groups themselves are arranged across the top of Table 7 from left to right in order of their relative priority as determined by Table 6. The categories VERY IMPORTANT, IMPORTANT, and NOT IMPORTANT were weighted three, two and one respectively. No attempt was made to portray the weighting as equidistant from one another, but merely to cite the weightings as

TABLE 3

SUMMARY OF SURVEY RESPONSES

	Corps-members	Prov. Schools	Prov. Comm.	RIC RIC	U/Mass: Pro.Staff	School of Ed.	TC/W
Questionnaires Returned	26 of 40	18 of 30	5 of 14	3 of 5	3 of 3	9 of 20	1 of 1
Ratings	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI
Points	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1
GOAL STATEMENTS							
Goal Group I							
A. 2. To provide the Teacher Corps competency-based units resulting from the pilot testing of experimental performance criteria as developed by the Massachusetts Model Elementary Education Program.	2 12 8 1.7	2 9 2 2.0	1 1 2 2.2	0 1 1 1.5	0 0 3 1.0	4 3 1 2.4	0 0 1 1.0
C. 5. To begin implementation of the Massachusetts Model Elementary Teacher Education Program by integrating appropriate components into the preservice and inservice training of the Sixth Cycle Teacher Corps Project.	2 16 5 1.9	2 3 5 1.3	0 2 1 1.7	0 0 1 1.0	0 0 3 1.0	3 3 0 2.5	0 0 1 1.0
C. 7. To retrain teacher education faculty in the use of competency-based modules in Urban Education.	5 18 2 2.1	5 8 3 2.1	3 0 2 2.2	1 2 0 1.7	0 0 3 1.0	2 6 0 2.2	1 0 0 3.0
C. 9. To retrain teacher education faculty in the use of competency-based modules in Teacher Education.	6 18 1 2.2	6 7 3 2.2	2 1 2 2.0	3 0 0 3.0	0 1 2 1.3	3 3 0 2.5	1 0 0 3.0

indicators rather than strict measures. The weightings were multiplied by the number of responses in each category of importance and divided by the total number of responses to provide the mean score. Thus goal statement A. 2. of Table 7 indicates that goal statement is IMPORTANT to corpsmembers, the Providence School Department, the Providence community, the School of Education generally, but of little importance to Rhode Island College and of no importance to University of Massachusetts project staff and Teacher Corps/ Washington.

Initially, the intent of the goal assessment survey was to develop a common set of priorities agreed to by all the groups surveyed. However, the greatest value of the survey seemed to lay in simply providing a descriptive view of the many priorities reported in each group, considering all such priorities as real and legitimate, and attempting to meet the expectations of each group by encouraging the groups to focus their attention on their own stated priorities of what they wanted to get out of the project. With so many different goals existing within the project, and so many individual and group priorities existing among them, it was decided that a common set of priorities was not a realistic expectation and could be accomplished only through coercive measures to which people would have little commitment or loyalty. This view was subsequently adopted by the project.

It was of major importance that the priorities or expectations which those surveyed wished to make known were public and shared throughout the project. The difference between a laissez-faire climate and group agreement that permits individual freedoms is substantial, and one should not be confused with the other. The presence of the eight operational statements formed a focused working agenda for the project at large and operationally replaced the goal statements themselves. These statements formed the commitment of the whole project, while permitting other individual and professional objectives to exist within the project.

Summary

The usual expectation for project evaluation seems to be either resignation to ad hoc efforts by external visitors charged with finding out what is going on, or adherence to a single evaluation or assessment system throughout the entire project. Both ignore the need for ongoing systems which are flexible and responsive to differing assessment needs. Assessment methodologies do not exist in a vacuum but are related to the operational contexts of which they are a part. The Teacher Corps project's use of more than fifteen data-generating mechanisms was the result of efforts to find the best data-gathering procedures producing the least interference with project goals, and which were within the constraints of project resources. It must also be acknowledged, however, that goal development and assessment were seen almost from the outset as project-

wide responsibilities, and little pre-existing knowledge of evaluation/assessment procedures was present in the project as it got underway. The overall commitment, however, to act rationally and to relate project behavior continually to project goals seems to have offset the initial lack of formalized procedures for generating data. It is of equal significance that these mechanisms were consistent with the competency-based context of the project in that they resulted from real needs and the collective ability of the project to respond to those needs, rather than the imposition of evaluation/assessment measures based solely on external authority or the reputation of specified methodologies. The result was a great deal of assessment activity which was ongoing, related to concept and goal clarifications processes, and focused on goal-oriented decision-making rather than the determining of evaluative judgments.

No doubt the project could have done more, and done it better, in terms of its assessment activities. However, the role and importance given assessment within the project was unusual in its pervasiveness and its flexibility. It provided the glue to hold things together without producing a rigid mass more noteworthy for its discipline and strength than for its usefulness.

CHAPTER VI--FOOTNOTES

[1]Daniel I. Stufflebeam, Educational Evaluation and Decision-Making. (Itasca, Illinois: F. E. Peacock Publishers, Inc., 1971). p. 11.

[2]Ibid., p. 40.

[3]Ibid., p. 238.

[4]"Personal Development Conference," Announcement to participants in the Sixth Cycle Teacher Corps Project, Amherst, Massachusetts, November, 1972. (Mimeographed.)

[5]Ibid.

[6]Herbert Williams, "Project Review Memorandum to middle school Principals, Social Studies Department Chairmen, Affiliate Teachers and Teacher Corps Members, Providence, Rhode Island, January 19, 1972. (Mimeographed.)

[7]Ibid., p. 4.

[8]Jim C. Fortune and Tom Hutchinson, "Introduction to Evaluation," Chapter I, draft, undated.

[9]Letter from Project History interviews to project personnel, Providence, Rhode Island, undated. (Mimeographed.)

[10]Thomas E. Hutchinson and Larry G. Benedict, "The Operationalization of Fuzzy Concepts," (Amherst, Massachusetts: School of Education, University of Massachusetts, September, 1970). (Mimeographed.)

[11]David Rosen, "Date Return Sheet RB1," (Teacher Corps Project, School of Education, University of Massachusetts, May 30, 1972.) (Mimeographed.)

[12]Kenneth Blanchard and Paul Hersey, "Leader Behavior Questionnaire," undated. (Mimeographed.)

[13]"Analysis of Team Leader Inventory Results" (Teacher Corps Project, School of Education, University of Massachusetts, undated), p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

[14]_Ibid._, p. 3.

[15]_Ibid._, pp. 1-2.

CHAPTER VII

COMPETENCY BASED LEADERSHIP: A CONCEPTUAL MODEL

This chapter sets forth a conceptual model for a competency-based leadership model, and examines some of its implications for educational managers. It draws upon a review of pertinent literature in the fields of leadership and organizational management, the experience of the Sixth Cycle Teacher Corps project, and extended analytical dialogue with Project Director William Tutman. Thus the model presented is an outgrowth of various experiences and ideas, and not intended to characterize what happened in the Teacher Corps project itself. While acknowledging the contributions of many to the model's conceptualization, the writer assumes full responsibility for its presentation here.

It will be useful, first of all, to take a look at an apparant hierarchy of leadership environments against which the components and implications of a competency-based leadership model can be more easily contrasted.

Hierarchy of Leadership Environments

There is a continuum of leadership systems which runs from minimal to maximal participation in decison-making by those directly affected by decisions made. Tannenbaum and Schmidt attempted to portray this continuum, as set forth in Chapter III, by constructing a three stage continuum with Theory X

representing authoritarian leader behavior, Theory Y as democratic leader behavior and an extended continuum stage to include laissez-faire leader behavior. The implication of their model is that the continuum runs from authoritarian to democratic to laissez-faire.

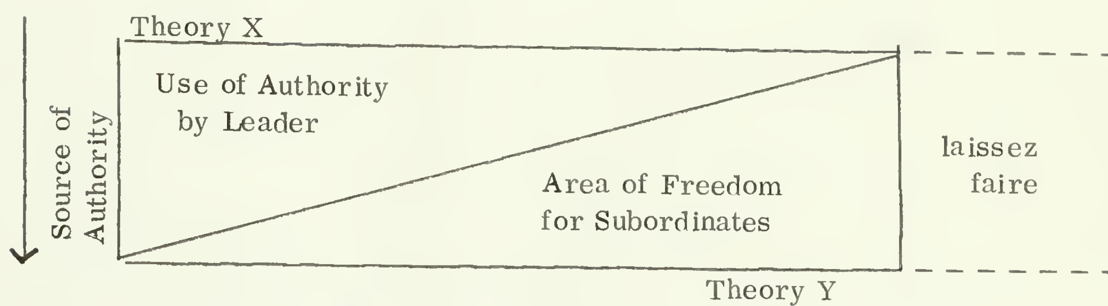

Figure 13: Tannenbaum-Schmidt: Extended Continuum

In actuality, the Tannenbaum-Schmidt model is misleading in two respects. It implies that the only alternative to authoritarian and democratic leader behaviors is a laissez-faire situation in which leadership is absent, and it implies that the laissez-faire leader environment is an extention of freedom for subordinates. Neither, in this writer's view, is the case. Furthermore, the leader-follower relationship is depicted by Tannenbaum and Schmidt as an adversary one. This is also the clear implication of McGregor's Theory X-Theory Y polarization. Only Likert's System 4 implies a more cooperative leader-follower relationship, and only Maslow's Theory Z explicitly postulates one. (See Chapter III.)

A more complete and useful continuum would be the hierarchy which is set forth below. This hierarchy postulates a four-stage continuum and describes the basic characteristics of each. Proceeding through the hierarchy provides a setting against which a competency-based leadership model can be examined more clearly. The hierarchy is composed of four major categories: Environment I - Laissez-Faire, Environment II - Leader Dominant, Environment III - Democratic, and Environment IV - Consensual.

Environment I - Laissez-Faire. Environment I is essentially theoretical in nature and, according to Tannenbaum and Schmidt, postulates the absence of leadership. However, if we accept Blanchard and Hersey's definition of leadership as "the process of influencing the activities of an individual or group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation,"[1] then a real laissez-faire environment is extremely unlikely and, if present, only momentary in nature.

Environment II - Leader Dominant. This environment is characterized by decision-making which is dominated by the will or influence of one individual. This individual will usually have considerable position power, but this is not essential to a leader dominant environment. The extent to which this environment is coercive depends on the extent to which leader values and priorities are shared by followers. There is minimal participation in decision-making by followers in this environment. While a leader may surround himself with the accouterments of a Theory Y or democratic environment, e.g., participatory

decision-making groups, he confines their influence to that which is only advisory or compatible with his own value constructs. Thus a leader dominant environment conforms to the characteristics discussed in Chapter III in a Theory X climate and in Likert's System 1 and System 2.

Environment III - Democratic. Environment III is one in which the expectation is that majority views determine the actions of groups. However, a closer examination of participatory decision-making structures commonly referred to as democratic reveals an interesting sub-hierarchy in terms of the number of individuals required to determine group action. The following table summarizes these structures.

TABLE 9

SUB-HIERARCHY OF DEMOCRATIC LEADERSHIP ENVIRONMENTS

Sub-Group	Quorum	Decision Requirement	Minimum participation for Group Decisions
A	Simple Majority[a]	Simple majority of Quorum	26%
B	Simple Majority	Absolute Majority[b] of Quorum	34%
C	Absolute Majority	Simple Majority of Quorum	34%
D	Absolute Majority	Absolute Majority of Quorum	45%
E	All or almost all of group	Simple Majority of Quorum	51%
F	All or almost all of group	Absolute Majority of Quorum	67%

[a]Simple majority is defined as 51% of the group.
[b]Absolute majority is defined as 67% of the group.

It is interesting to note among those commonly used systems of decision-making described above, that only sub-groups E and F conform to the usual expectations of majority rule that characterize the democratic process. The writer's own observations indicate that the larger an organizational group purporting to use democratic decision-making procedures, the more likely it is for those procedures to point towards the A end of the sub-hierarchy. Conversely, the smaller the group, the more likely the F end of the spectrum will be utilized. Also, the writer has observed the use of sub-groups A, B and C by titular leaders to limit the number of those involved in decision-making and yet retain an aura of democratic decision-making. In actuality this particular use of sub-groups A, B and C forms a transition point between Environments II and III, and contains elements of both.

Environment IV - Consensual. This environment goes beyond mere majority rule by seeking to reconcile conflicts between majority and minority views, and determine a group action to which group members are unopposed. There are two basic levels within a consensual environment: consensus-oriented and consensus-based. A consensus-oriented approach seeks to reconcile conflict between majority and minority views, but does not require full consensus before determining group action; whereas a consensus-based approach does require full consensus before determining group action. It is important to note here that the usual leader-follower adversary relationship is replaced by

an appeal to reasoning in which both titular leaders and followers interact on the basis of personal power rather than distinctions of position or status. A further definition and discussion of consensus and personal power follows later in this chapter.

It is useful, at this point, to juxtapose the four stage leadership hierarchy postulated with similar classifications developed by others, and look at their probable interrelationships. As the chart on the following page indicates, a progression from Environment I through Environment IV postulates an ascending order from lower level to higher level systems, responding to successviely higher needs on Maslow's hierarchy and requiring increasing levels of group and individual responsibility. The implication here is that without the presence of certain characteristics, each leadership environments is less likely to function as originally intended. Modification of these characteristics will slide the leadership environment up and down the hierarchy, since the hierarchy itself is more likely to be situational than static.

However, prevailing characteristics can form a leadership environment cluster around any one of the four environments and thus, to the observer, produce a prevailing leadership mode which is leaderless (laissez-faire), leader dominant, democratic or consensual. For example, a consensual leadership mode can exist within an environment in which the following characteristics are prevalent: a Theory Y or (Z) atmosphere, a system compatible with Likert's System 3 or System 4, the integration or fusion of Herzberg's motivational-

TABLE 10

HIERARCHY OF LEADERSHIP ENVIRONMENTS: PROBABLE RELATEDNESS TO OTHER THEORIES

	McGregor	Likert	Herzberg	Maalow	Blanchard Hersey	Group Maturity Index	Leader-Follower Relationahip
Environment I - Laizze Faire	-	-	-	Physiological	-	Very low	None
Environment II - Leader Dominant	X	1-2	Hygiene	Security	High task-low relationship to high task-high relationship	Low	Adversary
Environment III- Democratic							
Subgroup A (26%)	X	2	Hygiene	Affiliation	High task-high relationship	Moderate	Adversary
Subgroup B (34%)	X	2	Hygiene	Affiliation	High task-high relationship	Moderate	Adversary
Subgroup C (34%)	X	2	Hygiene	Affiliation	High task-high relationship	Moderate	Adversary
Subgroup D (45%)	X-Y	2-3	Hygiene Motivational	Affiliation & Esteem	High task-high relationship	Moderate	Adversary-Collaborative
Subgroup E (51%)	Y	3	Motivational	Affiliation & Esteem	Low task-high relationship	High	Collaborative
Subgroup F (67%)	Y	3	Motivational	Affiliation & Esteem	Low task-high relationship	High	Collaborative
Environment IV - Consensus							
Consensua-oriented	Y	3-4	Integration	Self actualization	Low task-low relationship	Very High	Integrated
Consensus-based	(Z)	4	Fused	Self actualization	Fused	Very high	Fused

hygiene needs, a climate of self-actualization, a very high index of group and individual responsibility, and the integration or fusion of leader-follower roles. Should these prevailing characteristics change significantly, it would be unlikely that a consensual environment could be maintained, e.g., an adversary relationship emerges between leaders and followers, security needs become prevalent and group maturity drops.

Clearly, a consensual leadership environment will not function well in all situations, but only when its prevailing characteristics as set forth in Table 9 are either present, or there is an explicit commitment on the part of the group to seek those characteristics. After examining the role and characteristics of competence in a competency-based leadership model, the chapter will return to the interrelatedness of competence and consensus in such a model and define more clearly the essential elements of consensus itself.

Role and Definition of Competence

Among competency-based educators, the most prevalent categorization of competence is by domain; specifically, these are the cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains. Unfortunately, these domains have been viewed too often as separate domains, rather than interrelated parts of a whole. The interrelatedness of the cognitive and affective domains in particular raises serious questions about such categories in and of themselves. In reviewing the Teacher Corps project's experience in dealing with value-laden issues such as racism,

cross-cultural working relationships, and sexism, it has been this writer's observation that people hold the values they do because of what they cognitively understand to be reality. This is not particularly profound, but it does run counter to efforts by many competency-based educators to treat the cognitive and affective domains separately; and, perhaps thereby get themselves in trouble with the humanistic psychologists and humanistic educators.

It is interesting to note, in this regard, that the Teacher Corps project's initial efforts to produce cognitive modules and affective modules in African Studies finally broke down. It was simply not possible to maintain such separate distinctions in developing curricular materials. In similar fashion, the exploration of values and feelings with no parallel effort to identify cognitive or conceptual bases for those values and feelings usually left interns frustrated and confused by the experience.

Described below are four areas of competence which the writer feels are more appropriate in identifying those competencies essential to a competency-based leadership model.

Conceptual Competence. This competence comprises an ability to understand both simple and complex concepts. It is demonstrated by the ability to articulate concepts clearly, either verbally or in writing, and to demonstrate consistency of reasoning and/or logic. For example, an educational manager's ability to reconcile conflict effectively will be increased in proportion to his conceptual understanding of the type of conflict which faces him. This point is examined in detail in the typology of conflict contained in Chapter IV. It must

be acknowledged that accuracy is not an inherent product of conceptual competence, but the seeking of accuracy is an essential part of the process. Since values seem based upon what individuals perceive as reality, conceptual competence combines elements of both the cognitive and affective domains.

Volitional Competence. This competence embodies an act of will. It does not include involuntary or reflexive behaviors. Volitional competence focuses not on intent, but outcome in one's behavior; that is, volition is demonstrated by the action taken, not by any reservations or qualifications held by the individual in taking the action. For example, an educational manager may recognize fully actions by teachers which produce racist effects, but choose not to discuss this with teachers because of his fear of conflict. Volitional conflict seeks to establish consistency between one's values and behaviors.

Technical Competence. This competency comprises technical abilities necessary to perform a task. It is demonstrated by actually performing the task. Technical competence has a wide range of complexity ranging from simple tasks such as throwing a ball to complex activities such as teaching. Thus technical competence consists of skills which are individual and discrete (*e.g.*, asking higher order questions, establishing set, and varying stimulus), and skills which require their coordinated application (*e.g.*, teaching effectively in a classroom). Technical competence includes elements of the cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains.

Assessment Competence. This competence comprises the ability to set goals, observe behaviors, identify discrepancies between goal-producing and non-goal producing activities, and reassess goals themselves on the basis of outcome or performance derived data. An educational manager cannot hope to function effectively if he is unable to perform these tasks with some accuracy. Assessment competence will determine the extent to which the intervening variables of a specific decision environment are known and modifiable.

These competencies provide an interrelated spectrum which proceeds from the ability to understand, to the will to act, to the ability to perform, to the ability to assess. They engage the individual in a complete process of identification, clarification, transference, assessment, regeneration and intentionality. It should be pointed out that these four competencies do not exist in any fixed sequential form, but are in a constantly shifting relationship with one another.

The proposed competency-based leadership model focuses upon these four competencies. The model also focuses upon competence as the prime determinant in establishing leadership within a group. This would, in essence, provide a more operationalized concept of personal power, as described by Etzione,[2] and give personal power pre eminence over position power in group leadership. The extended logic of a leadership model based upon competence is, therefore, a negation of more arbitrarily defined elements of position power such as title, degrees, age, sex, racial or ethnic background, or other discrete forms of status.

Of equal importance is that arbitrary or coercive forms of decision-making will have varying degrees of incompatibility with a competency-based leadership model by the same logic. The greatest incompatibility will exist when the decision environment is leader dominant, for it minimizes the likelihood of leadership emerging from competencies extant within the follower group. On the other hand, a consensual environment maximizes the likelihood of appropriate leadership emerging from within the total group. Thus the processes of competency-based leadership and consensual decision-making, while pursued separately, produce outcomes which are highly similar, completely compatible, and supportive of one another both logically and philosophically.

Consensus Defined

Given the apparent diversity of views regarding the definition and process of consensus decision-making, it is necessary at this point to state more explicitly the writer's own use of the term. Adopted is a definition similar to that originally proposed to the management team for the Teacher Corps project. Specifically, consensus-oriented decision-making is that which assumes, acknowledges, and utilizes the following dimensions:

1. a participatory decision-making environment.
2. a high level of honesty in communication and reasoning.
3. a reliance on personal power rather than position power.
4. a substantial effort to reconcile differences through non-coercive means.

5. a high level of individual responsibility.

Consensus is achieved when:

1. all decision participants representing minority views agree that their views have received a just and reasonable hearing by the majority.
2. all decision participants agree to permit a group action.

Two related and important points need to be stated here. First, the concept of a forced consensus represents a confusion of terms. The notion of a forced consensus is more accurately represented by a leader dominant or majority rule situation. Thus noncoerciveness is inherent in the term consensus itself. Second, consensus can be either convergent or divergent in nature. Among the more frequent misperceptions of consensus articulated are (1) that consensus means everyone has to think alike and agree on everything, and therefore it is an impractical or unrealistic process, and (2) that the only way everyone can agree to everything is for group members to do anything they want to do, which produces anarchy (or a laissez-faire leader environment).

In responding to these misperceptions, it is useful to think in terms of both convergent and divergent consensus. Convergent consensus occurs when all group members do think alike and agree to a common group action. A simplistic example of convergent consensus is when a group chooses to go to a baseball game rather than go swimming--and all group members agree that they would rather go to the baseball game. An educational example would

be when students, given a choice, all agree they would rather take a multiple choice test rather than an essay examination. Thus there are situations in which group members will think alike and agree upon a common group action.

The concept of divergent consensus, however, allows dissimilar views to exist within a group and still produce agreement about group action. Two situations will produce divergent consensus. In the first, minority views are expressed but those expressing them permit the group to take a common group action. In other words, while not supporting the group's proposed action, they agree not to oppose it. The second situation occurs when all group members agree that minority views may also be pursued with legitimacy. For example, in a classroom of fifty students where all the students are asked to agree on which tests are to be administered, thirty may choose the multiple choice test, ten may choose an essay examination, and ten may choose an oral examination. Divergent consensus occurs when all students agree, or there is no opposition voiced, to each student taking whatever examination he wishes to take. Thus a group decision permits individual or minority views to be pursued within a climate of divergent consensus.

It is important to note the difference between divergent consensus and other decision-making environments with which it may be confused. To continue the classroom example, a laissez-faire environment produces no responsibility between the students for individual or group decision-making. A leader dominant environment may force a choice on the whole group, and a democratic environ-

ment may force a choice on individuals holding minority views. Only divergent consensus permits individual responsibility to one another, an agreed upon group action or decision, and individual flexibility.

Essential Dimensions and Implications of a Competency-Based Leadership-Model

From the foregoing discussion, it is possible to postulate the essential dimensions of a competency-based leadership model. Each has already been discussed in detail in preceeding portions of the study. The degree to which a leadership model is competency-based will depend upon the degree to which they are present. Stated in summary they are:

1. The maximization of personal power and the minimization of position power.
2. The operationalization of personal power as conceptual competence, volitional competence, technical competence, and assessment competence.
3. The prevalence of a decision-making environment which seeks to resolve conflict by noncoercive means.
4. The presence of a high degree of individual and group responsibility.

It is not the writer's intention to portray competency-based leadership as the best possible approach to leadership. Such a portrayal would ignore the findings of recent research, reviewed in Chapter III, which have shown there is no best leadership style; rather, that leader effectiveness is situational in

nature and a function of leader behavior, follower maturity, and the intervening variables of the situation. However, it is entirely possible that educational managers may seek or operate within an educational environment compatible with the assumptions and values of a competency-based leadership model, as they have been described earlier. It is useful, therefore, to look more closely at some of the implications, both positive and negative, of implementing a competency-based leadership model within an educational environment.

On the plus side, there are at least six major reasons why a competency-based leadership model might be desirable. First, it provides for more creative problem-solving. By minimizing the effects of position power within a group, a climate can be established which fosters the emergence of a wider range of decision alternatives. This maximizes both the possibility and the likelihood of problem-solving which is creative. Second, a competency-based leadership model specifically nurtures and protects minority views by its use of a consensual decision-making process. Both leader dominant and democratic environments, as they usually operate, systematically exclude or minimize minority interests. In an educational setting, as well as in society itself, the protection of minority views is extremely important. This is a particularly vital issue for educational managers in a multi-ethnic environment. All new ideas, if they are really new, represent minority views. Unless these views are allowed to grow and develop, educational and societal creativity will be severly stunted and limited in the extent to which diverse interests can peacefully coexist.

Third, the model seeks to recognize cultural diversity as the legitimate product of different life experiences. Thus there is a continual effort made, within the model, to recognize the values and value bases of oneself, those of others, and the manner in which they interact with one another. Fourth, the model actively supports and aids the growth of individual and group decision-making skills and responsibility. By seeking decision alternatives through an assessment of their relative merits, and seeking a consensual reconciliation of diverse views within the group, behavior which may be arbitrary, capricious or just confused is minimized. Continual reinforcement of this process can, over time, greatly increase group process and decision-making skills to the extent that the group can proceed rapidly and effectively with task accomplishment.

Fifth, the model provides for conflict reconciliation which seeks to be noncoercive, thereby not only recognizing minority views bu promoting voluntary cohesiveness between goals and behaviors within the group. Sixth, competency-based leadership can allow more realistic expectations by leaders and followers for job performance. The educational manager, and others, can be largely relieved of unrealistic expectations for work performance. For example, teachers' expectations that their principals will be able to resolve major problems are not uncommon in many schools. These expectations are usually based upon the respective roles of teachers and principals, and may have nothing to do with the abilities of either to provide satisfactory responses. And yet teachers often feel they have to pressure principals, and principals often feel they have to come

up with solutions--not because they can but because they are principals. By basing leadership on the ability and desire to perform, rather than roles, work expectations can be more realistic and produce greater worker satisfaction.

On the negative side, there are several reasons why a competency-based leadership model might not be desirable. First, it requires a high level of group maturity; that is, there must be a willingness among group members to take on responsible problem-solving and to work cooperatively with one another. If this maturity is absent, it is unlikely that competencies will be accurately identified or acknowledged by the group.

Second, the model takes more time to implement, at least initially, since efforts to pursue clarity and consensus receive priority equal to that of task accomplishment. Third, its effective implementation requires groups in which group process skills are well developed, or in which there is a commitment to develop them. If absent, the resultant need for more time to complete group tasks may produce high levels of frustration and non-cohesiveness. Fourth, the model requires greater degrees of explictness and accountability than may be acceptable to some people, and may be too threatening--both professionally and personally--to those whose lives and work careers have been governed by the accumulation of status and position power. Fifth, the model requires a real sharing of power and responsibility, and this may also be unacceptable in some management situations.

A competency-based leadership model clearly revolves around some basic value structures. It places great value on self-governance over being governed by others. It seeks to share power and responsibility, and values cooperation over competition. It attempts to recognize diversity and conformity as equally legitimate. It values a noncoercive environment for decision-making. It attempts to encourage consistency between goals and behaviors, both short-term and long-term.

With such values, a competency-based leadership model will not function effectively in environments where these values are absent. These values are largely absent in the selective mode of education in the United States described by Glaser in Chapter III. The selective mode is characterized by minimal variation in the conditions under which individuals are expected to learn; there is little if any latitude allowed for differing input variables resulting from the diverse cultural backgrounds of students. However, Glaser's description of an adaptive mode of education is very compatible with a competency-based leadership model, for this mode assumes "as a matter of course that the values, styles, and learning processes that the child brings to school are of intrinsic worth."[3]

Since the nature of a society determines the nature of its educational system, which in turn tends to feed into existing social practices, it is worth restating at this point Glaser's observation

> That an adaptive education system carried to its ultimate conclusions may be out of joint with the present social structure. An adaptive environment assumes many ways of succeeding and many goals

> available from which to choose. It assumes further that no particular way of succeeding is greatly valued over the other. In our current selective environment, it is quite clear that the way of succeeding that is most valued is within the relatively fixed system provided. Success in society is defined primarily in terms of the attainment of occupations directly related to the products of this system. School-related occupations are the most valued, the most rewarding, and seen as the most desirable. However, if an adaptive mode becomes prevalent and wider constellations of human abilities are emphasized, then success will have to be differently defined; and many more alternative ways of succeeding will have to be appropriately rewarded than is presently the case.[4]

If educational managers wish to establish or seek adaptive modes of education, a competency-based leadership model can provide a viable and effective alternative to more traditional forms of management. And, adaptive modes of education are rapidly becoming more necessary in the search for more effective ways to respond to the needs of both students and their society.

Summary

In his opening remarks to new interns, Project Director William Tutman stated:

> Nature having decreed that people shall be different, it is left to man to decide how these differences can be joined in order for people to form common goals and make appropriate decisions. For too long man has sought to reverse nature's work by trying to make all peoples of the earth the same, either by forcing them to think, act, and look alike, or by eliminating those who think, act, or look differently.

> As long as people are different in any respect they will think differently in some respects. We are rapidly reaching point where we must conclude that we cannot create a unified world either by forcing people to be the same or by eliminating those who are different. Man's only hope for both peace and freedom is to discover how people who are different can live and work together. . . . The goals of this project, if they are to relate to the priority concerns of education in a free society, must somehow contribute to the development of strategies for coexistence among those who are different.[5]

The evolution of a competency-based approach to educational leadership was a major outcome of the Sixth Cycle Teacher Corps project's experience. Such an approach to leadership provides a unique mechanism to facilitate peaceful coexistence among diverse peoples, and to facilitate learning and task accomplishment within adaptive educational modes designed to recognize individual worth and cooperative goal attainment.

Schools, while being guardians of the best in American society, must also initiate steps to minimize those forces that threaten the desire and ability of different people to work together peacefully and productively. As educational managers, we need to re-examine the extent to which our leadership is based upon custom and status, rather than on efforts to achieve the best possible decisions from among all those affected by their consequences. We cannot move towards a society of peaceful coexistence which permits freedom and responsibility among people who are different, unless we strive to model

such behavior in ourselves and actively encourage it in others. One way to do this is to provide a management environment in schools which fosters and supports such behaviors in teachers and students alike.

CHAPTER VII--FOOTNOTES

[1]Kenneth H. Blanchard and Paul Hersey, Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources (1st ed.; Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1969), p. 60.

[2]Amatai Etzioni, A Comparative Analysis of Complex Organizations (New York: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1961), cited by Blanchard and Hersey, p. 82.

[3]Robert Glaser, "Individuals and Learning: The New Aptitude," Educational Researcher, (June, 1972), p. 6.

[4]Ibid., p. 12.

[5]William Tutman, "What We Are About--Presentation to New Interns." (Teacher Corps Project, School of Education, University of Massachusetts, undated), p. 8. (Mimeographed.)

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

RECRUITMENT BROCHURE SUMMARIZING PROJECT

APPENDIX B

WHAT ARE WE ABOUT:

A PRESENTATION TO NEW INTERNS BY THE PROJECT DIRECTOR

WHAT ARE WE ABOUT - PRESENTATION TO NEW INTERNS

This program is one of many developed under a legislative mandate to "strengthen the educational opportunities available to children in areas having concentrations of low income families and to encourage colleges and universities to broaden their programs of teacher preparation".

As with most Teacher Corps Programs, there are two major participating institutions. The institution of higher education is in this case the University of Massachusetts and the local education agency is in this case the Providence School Department.

The project must be viewed in the context of the purposes and interests of all three of the organizational forces that participate in its support. These organizational forces are the National Teacher Corps, a subdivision of HEW, the School of Education of the University of Massachusetts and the Providence School Department of the City of Providence. Moreover the larger context of our operation is the will of the people of the U.S. as expressed in the legislative act and appropriated funds set forth by the U.S. Congress. The ultimate ideological and fiscal responsibility for this project rests with those people of the U.S. who influence congressmen to appropriate funds. The taxes of American people are being used purportedly to strengthen educational opportunities for children in low income areas and encourage colleges and universities to broaden programs of teacher education.

Each of the organizational entities that intervene in the transition of the peoples mandate into practice are made up of people, policies, programs or practices and material resources. These organizational elements interplay to determine the character of the organization. This character influences the manner in which their goals and objectives are shaped and interpreted.

It is useless to think of the legislative goals without considering the people who will influence efforts to carry it out. There are competing and opposing policies and practices in each organization just as there are supportive or complimentary practices and policies and these will all impact upon the actions taken on behalf of the larger goal. Hence, the "character" as well as the verbalized intent of the organizational forces I have mentioned must be viewed as part and parcel of the goals of this project.

In the development of the project, representatives of these three organizations sat down over a one-year period, reviewed the legislative mandate, its interpretation and guidelines by the National Teacher Corps, the interests and character of the LEA and the IHE and formulated a set of objectives that are suggestive of the perspectives of these three organizations.

As we view each objective, it is important to consider whose interests dominate in the choice of that particular item. Viewed in the larger legislative context, these objectives become points of strategy for accomplishing the larger goal of increased educational opportunity for low income children and broaden teacher training programs.

The development of African Studies Curriculum material was an interest of the Providence School Department which views the absence of materials directed toward black minorities as a critical deficit in their Social Studies curriculum. This is also a continuing interest of the national body and the

University of Massachusetts both of which were participants in a prior effort to develop such materials in the Worcester 7th Cycle Teacher Corps Project. The focus of these materials is to be heavily affective incorporating performance criteria in behavioral skills and human relations.

This interest in behavioral skills and human relations is a recuring one. From the point of view of the National Teacher Corps it represents an effort to capitalize on previous investments of HEW in the Massachusetts Teacher Education Program and the Massachusetts School Personnel Utilization Project. It is in the interests of the U.Mass. School of Education to further develop the learnings of these studies also. This theme appears again in the stated objective of providing modular units in human relations, urban education and behavioral skills suitable for a middle school education program. Also U. Mass. hopes to have available for integration into its educational program instructional modules in Human Relations, Urban Education, Counselor Education, Humanistic Education and Teacher Education and to retain education faculty in the use of these competency-based modules.

A set of objectives in line with the effort to encourage institutions of higher education to broaden teacher education programs concerns the development of teacher education models with components in curriculum development and school community specialists.

Primarily out of the interests of Providence schools, one objective is to establish social studies resource centers in Providence middle schools and to provide through these centers a focal point for newly created learning activities for grade five through nine. In conjunction with these centers, we are to provide individualized learning alternatives in African studies.

Working with regular teachers, Corpsmembers are expected to assist in the integration of African Studies into other regular courses of study such as English and History, and to assist these teachers in jointly developing units of African study.

An objective apparently responsive primarily to the U.Mass. interests in Massachusetts School Utilization Project is to lay a foundation for determining the viability of differentiated staff roles in the Providence School System.

To support the continuation and development of the African Studies focus, an objective is to develop an inservice education program for the regular Social Studies teachers in African Studies and the use of African learning activities. Affective learning activities are also to be developed in modular form to assist students' and teachers' growth in relating to peoples and values of other cultures.

An objective to develop more alternative ways for the School System to serve their communities through community-based education projects and to develop relationships with community assistance agencies such as the Urban League, Urban Education, Model Cities and Progress for Providence. This coincides with the U.Mass. interest in competency-based modules of instruction for community-based ed. specialists in keeping with their interests in the development of a school/community relations specialists role and in the general development of differentiated staffing roles.

Out of the interest of the Providence School Department in recruiting and hiring minorities, an objective is to increase the number of professionally trained teachers in the Providence School System from minority groups.

The original planning took into account the likelihood that additional interests would develop during the course of the project. Specific note was taken of the impact of as yet unmentioned but in fact major set of partners in the enterprise--the Corpsmembers themselves. Just as organizations have interests and characters that dictate their goal emphasis, the setting of objectives, Corpsmembers also must filter their overall commitments through a system of personal policies, practices, and resources available to them. Whether they operate as philosophical premises, values, needs, or what have you, there are certain psychic-environmental-physical options and restrictions that determine the manner and extent to which people will interpret and execute their commitments.

Inevitably the full potential of the project must depend upon the people charged with making it go. Yet there could be no direct involvement of this critical manpower force in the initial planning. Some allowances could be made for the type of general incentives likely to be found among interns. Beyond that the only hope for coinciding the interests of the institutional partners with the implementing manpower was in the setting of selection and recruitment priorities and in the opportunity for revising and reassessing goals around the characters of actual participants.

Hence the final determination of goals, priorities and emphasis had to await the arrival of interns and team leaders.

Because of the diversity of project tasks, we have to select people of diverse interests and abilities. People who are likely to be attracted to community work, classroom teaching, materials development, and human relations, all had to be included. Also because of the strong interest in African Studies in the affective domain, it was felt that some effective exposure to Africa would be critical. In order to increase the number of minorities available for hiring in Providence, minority group status had to be a major consideration.

Because Providence as a community is racially mixed, the project to be effective in community work must be racially mixed. Because Africa includes 45 nations, vastly different, the experiences of interns should represent this diversity. All of these things were taken into account in the selection of interns.

As to the anticipated goals of interns, there was included the interest in achieving a Master's degree certification and personal/professional development as teachers and agents of change. To this list, it was considered that there could be added a broad range of personal goals and interest relating to the general concern with the strengthening educational opportunities and encouraging broader teacher education programs.

In summing, we have now an array of goals and objectives from the general legislative goal to the specific certification goals of individual interns. We will be operating in major areas of educational development from developing modules for African Studies to determining the dimensions of expertise for new teacher roles in community-based education. We have teaching chores with 5-8 graders, new teacher-interns, regular teachers, and university faculty. We

have to develop new designs for organizing classroom work, and we must make available at the end of our two years trained minority teachers. To do this, we have available 3/4 of a million dollars the commitment of three institutions, a corps of 46 interns, team leaders and a core professional staff of three people at the university level and two people at the local level.

Thrown into the pot for good measure, there is the understanding that we will attempt to involve a 4th institution, Rhode Island College, for the purpose of continuity. In keeping with Teacher Corps legislative intent, the people will be divided up into teams working under the guidance of a team leader. This dictates a major concern with the development of team teaching models.

To summarize, we have formally stated the implicit goals and objectives emanating from Congress, National Teacher Corps, School of Education-U.Mass., Providence School Department, individual staff members and Corpsmembers. The explicit goals and objectives are set forth in the project proposal and in statements made by staff and interns during the year. Implicit goals are evident in the legislative intent and guidelines. Each of the goals whether explicit or implicit speak to certain special interests of the major planning participants.

Briefly restated, the official objectives of the program rewarded for maximum clarity are:

1. To provide competency-based units resulting from the pilot testing of experimental performance criteria as developed by the Massachusetts Model Elementary Teacher Education Program.

2. To develop a refined African Studies Curriculum with instructional modules including specific competencies for teachers and students suitable for use in grades six and eight.

3. To establish and utilize two social studies resource centers in the Providence middle schools.

4. To develop affective learning activities in modular form (in order to assist students and teachers growth in relating to peoples and values of other cultures with direct reference to Africa and African influences in the United States.)

5. To begin implementation of the Massachusetts Model Elementary Teacher Education Program by integrating appropriate components into the preservice and inservice training of the 6th Cycle Project.

6. To develop performance criteria for the role of curriculum development specialist and community relations specialists.

7. To provide models of inservice teacher education which include a component for training a curriculum development specialist and a school community specialist.

8. To develop modular instructional units in:

   Human Relations, Counselor Education, Humanistic Education, Teacher Education, Community-based Education

9. To provide an opportunity for interns to secure an M.Ed. and elementary and secondary certification.

10. To provide professionally trained minority teachers for the Providence schools.

You will note perhaps with some perplexity later that no where does the official list of objectives mention team-teaching which is a major focus of project energies. This is not a stated goal of the project, it is however a legislative requirement that interns work in teams under the guidance of a team leader. Hence, though it is not a goal (something in general we set out to achieve) or an objective (specific activities to be performed), it is something we must do because the law says we must (an operational requirement.)

Another operational requirement which is no place stipulated in the official guidelines or statements of goals and objectives is that of protecting and assisting the development of the population of children who make up the 5 - 8th grade classes in which we are required to teach. Quite aside from our sense of the obvious, this is not a stated goal of the project. The project could fulfill its mandate to Congress, National Teacher Corps, U. Mass. and the Providence School Department without teaching children anything. This is fundamentally a teacher training, educational materials development and institutional development project. I have been unable to find any place in the official documents a commitment to do anything more than strengthen educational opportunities for children in low-income areas. The legislation clearly stipulates that the mechanism to be used to strengthen these opportunities is the attraction and training of educational personnel. Indeed the Teacher Corps is a sub-section of the Bureau of Educational Personnel Development within HEW.

Fortunately the Providence School Department must in everything it does maintain a commitment to teaching and developing children. This expectation accepted by every participant in this program grows out of their being part of the Providence School System. As employees of that system, it is imperative that each person accept an additional concern from those stated by the Project. Indeed the Project must incorporate into its thinking this primary concern of the System.

In the articulation and analysis of project goals and objectives, it is important to bear in mind where our mandates come from. It is only in this way we can maintain proper regard for the mandate and its intents. To assume that our mandate to develop children flows from the National Teacher Corps would mean that the guidance in carrying out that mandate would stem from the same source. Teachers in Providence schools have certain responsibilities and prerogatives defined by the Superintendent that dictates what they may or may not do with children. It is not the business of National Teacher Corps or U. Mass. to interfere with those policies. It is the business of National Teacher Corps and U. Mass. to assume that those activities relating to teacher training are carried out in accordance with mandates and intents of those organizations.

For the past year we have wrestled with this array of goals and objectives as well as the individual interests of 46 interns, 8 team leaders, 6 permanent staff and a host of visitors, consultants and interested parties all of whom have some notions about what we should be about. Not many people have studied stipulated goals, very few have sorted out in clear fashion their own goals. In most discussions you will find broad discrepancies between what people mean by the terms and just as great inconsistencies between their stated meanings from day to day.

The business of setting and pursuing goals and objectives requires skills and disciplines that go well beyond the capabilities of most people we encounter. Do not be alarmed if people are unclear about such things--most people are. In all probability it would take you some time to say precisely what your own personal goals are.

Do not be alarmed if people complain that we are not pursuing our goals unless they are quite clear on which goal they are talking about. Chances are the person is talking about a goal that is a very high priority for him but not for anybody else.

To date, we have not reached any agreement on which goals come first, second and third. Each person has been free to pursue the goal he regards as most important and for which his own skills and interests most uniquely prepare him.

You as our latest addition to the partnership are entitled to add your interests to the pot and to choose that piece of the action that fits your tastes as your major concern. There is enough work for everybody and then some to spare.

Within the next few weeks you should be paying careful attention to what it is you want to do in this Project. Your entire program of study and work will be based on the integration of your goals and interests with the existing goals and interests of the partnership.

As Director, I am responsible first and foremost for assuring that our goals are clear and that our actions are orchestrated toward achieving those goals. Much as one directs an orchestra, I must try to influence the harmony, rhythm, intonations of all the people playing their separate pieces so that they fit together. I neither write the music nor play the instruments myself but I am responsible for the total performance. All I have is a tiny wand and a general understanding of the people, the purposes and the intricacies of coordinating their combined efforts. If the drummer faints, I must make sure there is someone to take his place. I need to know what the different people can and will do. I need to know what you are about and how that fits what we are about.

There are some ideas I push a lot harder than others in my efforts to orchestrate. To some, these things have taken on the character of goals. I have certain personal interests that are in the pot with everybody else's.

Since I am the Director, people listen a lot to my ideas, but no one is expected to accept an idea because it is mine. It would be the single most important tragedy of this project if people were to accept unchallenged the ideas I offer. I hope you will not make that mistake; but it is only fair to let you know in advance where I am coming from. I hope we can quickly begin some discussions so that I will know where you are coming from and that as you make your acquaintances through the Project, you ask the questions of others "Why are you here?" "What is it you hope to accomplish?" and that you observe them closely to see if they act in accord with what they say they are about.

I would anticipate that some people will be checking you out the same way.

There is more to this project than goals. There is what you will hear people refer to as the philosophy of the project. Be patient and do not expect to hear too clearly what that philosophy is. A philosophy is a very difficult thing to explain. Indeed few people or projects have a clear-cut philosophy. In this Project there is on one philosophy. There are several philosophical orientations which from time to time gain sway over the orientation of the Project. Most of all there are some dominant ideas about such things as what education is about, how people learn, leadership, and how people work together. It is the interplay of opposing ideas (which very recently has included some specific concern with what's best for black learners) that gives the Project its ideological stimulation. It is these ideas primarily that lie at the heart of our conflict and our accord with the institutional forces that surround us. It would be well for you to consider these ideas, because in a subtle way you will soon be a part of the controversy that provides the fuel for personal growth in this Project. I would urge you not to accept anybody's answer on these ideas but to constantly raise questions with yourself and others. Your questions will determine more than any other factor in this Project what you will learn. Anybody who will not ask questions will probably learn very little.

I would like to leave with you briefly my views on these four areas of concern. I hope we will soon have time to explore them in depth.

First of all what is education about? My own personal view is that education, work and government can be and should be non-coercive.

There are those who would disagree with me on this. In fact one view of the world which has wide-spread acceptance is that people will not work unless you watch them carefully and apply pressure. Children will not learn unless you contain them with military discipline and force certain facts upon them. People cannot govern themselves without chaos, confusion and inefficiency, they must be managed by someone who knows what is in their best interests.

This is not an easy question to resolve. It goes at the very heart of the major controversies we will encounter. It is the major question threatening to break forth on the national scene. Are we to have a society that is open to questions and where people are free to pursue their own answers or are we to have a closed society where the answers are passed from the top down, and the affairs of people are managed without their effective participation.

Ultimately this question revolves around the tolerance for diversity. Top down management depends for its success on the sameness of people. One order from the top can be effective if all the people who hear it have similar backgrounds, skills, interests and goals. To set up a society that works efficiently, that way it would be necessary to assure that the people thought and acted the same. In our multi-ethnic society this can only be assurred by eliminating a large number of people who are sufficiently different so as to never be molded the same.

An authentically democratic society requires that people plan together their common goals and participate freely in making decisions for achieving those goals. Democracy is easy and perhaps unnecessary when all people think and act alike. In that case only one person is needed to make decisions. It is when people are different that authentically democratic procedures are necessary and the greater the differences the greater the challenge for democracy. If people who are different are to live in peace, they must learn to live and work together.

Nature having decreed that people shall be different, it is left to man to decide how those differences can be joined in order for people to form common goals and make appropriate decisions. For too long man has sought to reverse nature's work by trying to make all peoples of the earth the same, either by forcing them to think, act, and look alike, or by eliminating those who think, act, or look differently. As long as people <u>are</u> different in any respect they will think differently in some respects. We are rapidly reaching a point where we must conclude that we cannot create a <u>unified</u> world either by forcing people to be the same or by eliminating those who are different. Man's only hope for both peace and freedom is to discover how people who are different can live and work together.

It seems to me that this is self-evident. If you will share with me that the highest priority of a free society is to retain its freedom, then I trust that you will share with me that the highest priority of education in a free society is to learn and to teach the ways in which people who are different <u>can share the responsibilities and freedoms of that society</u>.

The goals of this project, if they are to relate to the priority concerns of education in a free society, must somehow contribute to the development of strategies for coexistence among those who are different. In our efforts to carry out the objectives of the project, whatever they may be, we must organize our thinking in such a way that regardless of our immediate enterprise this larger purpose is somehow being served. As we work at the various components of this Teacher Corps Project, which includes competency-based education, affective education, African Studies, team teaching, and community-based education, we must bear in mind that underlying all these efforts is an effort to create a <u>non-coercive environment in which choices, goals, and learning activities are set in accord with the different needs and interests of the learning partners.</u>

Throughout the training program our efforts have been based on the assumption that teachers teach as much by what they do as by what they say, and that they cannot prepare pupils for functioning in a democratic society by modeling autocratic styles. We in turn could not teach teachers to teach democratic styles unless we could expose them to as many opportunities as possible to participate in the decisions about their learning.

To be consistent, we must also assume that all of the other partners in this experiment must participate in the setting of goals and in the decisions as to how we will go about achieving these goals. One of our purposes during orientation must be to introduce you and the other partners to each other and to begin the process whereby we will join our separate ideas, philosophies, goals, and points of view into a coherent and workable plan of action. We will earn the right to continue this experiment only if we can demonstrate our ability to incorporate our differences into new allegiances based on our common purposes. We should judge our effort successful if we can forge corpsmembers' interests and school personnel interests into "project interests", and if we can then take the next step--that of joining corpsmembers and school personnel interests, community and pupil interests all into the "educational interests" of the City of Providence.

We can achieve the objectives of this project only if we can effect an aligmment of the many diverse interests of the Teacher Corps, the University of Massachusetts, the Providence School Department, and the Providence communities and thereby stand as one example of the workability of an authentic democratic processes.

This is my view of what we are about. Welcome to the experiment.

APPENDIX C

SUMMARY OF PROGRAM GUIDELINES FOR PROPOSAL DEVELOPMENT BY THE NATIONAL TEACHER CORPS

1. <u>Strengthening Educational Opportunities in the School</u>

Local school districts should include in their proposal a detailed, time-sequenced plan for adoption of a program of change which will be introduced or augmented with the assistance of the Teacher Corps.

Teacher Corps programs in the schools must include as part of their plan the following features:

a. An internship in which teachers in training work in a total school setting where theoretical knowledge can be applied and tested and where competency in teaching skills can be developed and assessed;

b. A team structure in which interns and other school personnel work with an experienced teacher as their team leader. The team leader, and not a cooperating teacher, is responsible for the guidance of interns in development of their teaching competencies. The team approach as a training structure provides supervision, offers peer support, fosters a sense of common commitment, provides for cooperative activity in development of curricula and special approaches to instruction, and encourages training for differentiated teaching roles;

c. A special program focus within the school districts which is the initial feature of a plan which Corpsmembers will help introduce or augment as part of their service. The program emphasis should relate clearly to the local district's long-range goals for program or staff development. While the school focus will usually include a new method such as discovery learning aided by differentiated staffing or individualized instruction, it may also include a curriculum focus such as reading, mathematics, or ecology;

d. An intent to develop specific competencies which the school districts desire in teachers who work with low-income children, and a plan for school district cooperation with the university to provide a training program which will prepare interns and retrain other personnel for these competencies;

e. A program for recruiting and selecting, with university and community representatives, team leaders and interns who will be effective in achieving the goals of the program, and who will be prepared to teach in areas of projected need and committed to careers in education. All interns accepted for inservice should be persons the school district feels will develop into teachers it wishes to hire;

f. An internship in which experienced teachers, interns and other personnel will work together as a teaching team of three or more persons directly responsible for the instruction of a group of children. This internship should be designed to train team leaders and interns for team teaching and differentiated staff assignments;

g. Formal and informal training for team leaders in preparation for future roles as senior members of a differentiated staff, lead teachers in team teaching units, curriculum specialists, community-school specialists or other specified roles;

h. An opportunity, through university professors, team leaders and Teacher Corps program staff, for inservice training with appropriate academic credit, for regular teachers, first-year or provisionally certified teachers, paraprofessionals and volunteers;

i. A system for providing administrative support and training for community-based, volunteer-assisted programs of education such as youth and parent tutoring programs during and after school hours, service-learning programs, part-time work programs, and the like;

j. A program for maintaining the educational and financial effort that the district would have exerted without Teacher Corps. The services of Corpsmembers, to the extent that their services are supported by federal funds, must supplement, and not supplant, the district's services to low-income children.

2. Broadening Programs of Teacher Preparation

Teacher Corps projects should offer colleges and universities an opportunity to investigate and adopt new approaches in teacher preparation. Colleges and universities must clearly intend to adopt into their regular teacher education programs those elements which prove successful in their Teacher Corps projects. Hence, the proposals must specify the new approaches which will be undertaken in the Teacher Corps project, the timetable for general adoption should these new approaches be favorably evaluated and a clear statement by whom and by what criteria the decision to adopt will be made. Such new approaches should include:

a. Developing teacher education programs which are dependent upon the ability to exhibit desired teacher competencies and developing a system of learning which permits student self-pacing, alternate learning routes and greater student initiative in learning. Such programs should be characterized by:

- Partnership with school districts and communities;

- Specification of desired teacher competencies and reformulation of learning activities to assist students to develop and demonstrate these competencies;

- Use of internship as an extended period of training and service in schools and communities;

- Systematic planning for program development and for program management;

- Development of a series of modules to allow for student self-pacing and more individualization of learning strategies;

- Use of systematic feedback and evaluation techniques to provide continuous program modification; and

- More personalized learning and increased student responsibility for his own learning.

b. Moving toward university-approved programs of teacher certification and pilot programs for States which wish to develop new certification standards. The programs should be moving toward increased use of criteria based upon teacher performance or behavior and the products of teacher behavior; e.g., children's learning.

c. Establishing internships not only as a training period in regular teacher preparation, but also as a period when interns, functioning as members of a school staff, provide service to children.

d. Establishing "portal schools,"* or comparable teacher education centers based in public schools but cooperatively supported by schools, universities, teacher associations, and other education agencies for the training and retraining of school personnel.

e. Involving other colleges within the university in reshaping teacher preparation along interdisciplinary lines.

f. Developing a system for continuous feedback and program evaluation from Corpsmembers to both school and university staff to ensure that the internship remains a valid and relevant learning experience.

g. Offering university credit to interns and other personnel for their training and work in the school communities.

h. Using university instructors to teach and provide resources and support to Corpsmembers and regular school staff at school and community sites.

i. Using regular school staff and community members as resource persons and adjunct teacher trainers in university instruction.

3. Strengthening the Relationship of Schools and Universities to the Community They Serve

Commitment to the education of the child within his community should be an integral part of the program for preparing teachers. The report on Equality of Educational Opportunity (1966), headed by Dr. James Coleman, suggests that children learn in schools, from their peers in and out of school, and from their parents and neighborhood, and that each of these three areas must be strengthened if low-income children are to receive an education comparable to the children of the well-to-do. This should be provided by:

a. Preparing teachers, Corpsmembers and regular school staff to develop and support community-based education programs with community members which extend educational opportunities beyond school hours to the home and community. Such programs include store-front learning centers, training parents for tutoring, early childhood stimulation, cross-age tutoring or other activities outside of school which are designed to augment in-school instruction;

b. Enabling low-income parents to become a positive force in the education of their children, through understanding of, and involvement in, their children's learning process;

c. Utilizing the resources of the target area community in university-school programs for teacher preparation;

d. Developing channels for positive involvement of local communities in the decision-making processes of the institutions which educate their children and prepare teachers for their schools.

APPENDIX D

RESPONSIBILITY CHARTS FROM PROJECT PROPOSAL

TASK/JOB RELATIONSHIPS-SYMBOL TITLES

W- Work is Done
D- Direct Supervision
G- General Supervision
I- Intertask Integration/Coodination
O- Occasional Intertask Integration/Coor.
M- Mandatory Input
A- Advisory Input
X- Output Notification Mandatory

FUNCTIONAL TASK: III - Project Evaluation

UNIVERSITY OF MASSACHUSETTS

	FUNCTIONAL TASK	Project Director	Asst. Proj. Director	Prog. Dev. Spec.	Proj. Admin. Asst.	CIE	TEC	CHR	CHE	CUE	CFE	SMERD	SPU	Asst.Dean-Sp. Project	Asst.Dean-Admin.	Asst.Dean-Ac.Affairs	Faculty Senate Liaison	Dean	Treasurer Office
1	Identification of decision-makers	W	I	G			M					D	A	X		X		X	
2	Collection of goal statements	D	O	G			M	A	A	A	A	W	A	A		A			
3	Operationalization of Concepts	G	O	D			M					W		A					
4	Resolution of vertical goal conflicts	W	I	O		A	M	A	A	A	A	G	A	X					
5	Development of observation of techniques	G	O	D			A					W	A						
6	Development of decision PERT Chart	D	O	G			A					W	A			X	X		
7	Development of random monitoring procedures	G	O	D			A					W							
8	Integration of instructional performance criteria	I	O	G		X	W	X	X	X	X	X	X				X		
9	Addition of Corpsmember in-puts	G	O	M		X	X	X	X	X	X	D	X						
10	Revision of design for in-service	G	I	D		X	M	X	X	X	X	W	M						
11	Operate system	G	I	D			M					W	M						
12	Update system	D	I	G			M					W	M						

STATE / PROVIDENCE / R. I. COLLEGE

	FUNCTIONAL TASK	State Dept./Ed.	State Dept.Ed/Fed Proj	State Dept.Ed/Certif.	Superintendent	Asst.Supt/Fed.Proj.	Asst.Supt/Instrctn	Dir. of Curriculum	Supv/Social Studies	School Coordinator	Principals	Soc.Stu.Dept.Chmn.	Team Leaders	Interns	Teachers	Comm. Rep.	Advs. Council	Model Cities	R. I. College
1	Identification of decision-makers				X	A		M	M	A	M	M			M	M	A	A	M
2	Collection of goal statements				X	A		M	M	A	M	M			A	M	A	A	M
3	Operationalization of Concepts				X	A		M	M	A	M	M			A	M	A	A	M
4	Resolution of vertical goal conflicts				X	X	X	M	M	M	M	X			X	M	X	M	X
5	Development of observation of techniques				X	X	X	A	A	A	A	X			X	X	X	X	X
6	Development of decision PERT Chart				X	X	X	A	A	A	X	X			X	X	X	X	X
7	Development of random monitoring procedures				X	X	X	A	A	A	X	X			X		X	X	A
8	Integration of instructional performance				X	X	X	A	A	X	X	X							A
	criteria				X	X	X	A	A	A	X	X	W	W	A	A	A	X	
9	Addition of Corpsmember in-puts				X	X	X	A	A	A	X	X	M	M	X	X	A	X	X
10	Revision of design for in-service				X	X		M	M	M	M	M	I	M	M	M	A	X	M
					X	X		A	A	A	A	A	M	M	A	A	A	A	
11	Operate system																		M
12	Update system																		M

CIE - Center International Education
TEC - Teacher Educat.on Center
CHR - Center for Human Relations
CHE - Center for Humanistic Education

CUE - Center for Urban Education
CFE - Center for Foundations in Education
SMERD - Statistic Measurement Evaluation Research Design
SPU - School Personnel Utilization

TASK/JOB RELATIONSHIPS-SYMBOL TITLES

W- Work is Done
D- Direct Supervision
G- General Supervision
I- Intertask Integration/Coodination
O- Occasional Intertask Integration/Coor.
M- Mandatory Input
A- Advisory Input
X- Output Notification Mandatory

FUNCTIONAL TASK: II - Project Implementation

UNIVERSITY OF MASSACHUSETTS

Functional Task	Project Director	Asst. Proj. Director	Prog. Dev. Spec.	Proj. Admin. Asst.	CIE	TEC	CHR	CHE	CUE	CFE	SMERD	SPU	Asst.Dean-Sp. Project	Asst.Dean-Admin.	Asst.Dean-Ac.Affairs	Faculty Senate Liaison	Dean	Treasurer Office
1. Orientation to LEA and IHE staff	D	W	W		W	W	X	X	X	X	X	X	O					
2. Team Leader training: Phase I	D	I	G	O	W	W	W	W	W	W	M	M	O		X	A		
3. Intern pre-service: Plase II	D	I	G	O	W	W	W	W	W	W	M	M	O		X	A		
4. Intern pre-service: Phase III	D	I	G	O	W	W	W	W	W	W	M	A	X		X	A	X	
5. University inservice program	D	I	G		W	W	W	W	W	W	M	A	X		X	A	X	
6. LEA school responsibilities	X	O	O			X												
7. Local community activities	X	O	O			X												
8. Intern assessment	X	O	O			X					I				X			
9. Team Leader assessment	X	O	O			X					I				X			
10. Team assessment	X	O	O			X					I							
11. LEA project management	X	O	O															
12. IHE project management	D	W	W	W	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	I	X	I	I	O	X	O
13. Corpsmember support	D	W	W	W	I	I	O	O	O	O	I	O	X	I	O	O	X	

PROVIDENCE

Functional Task	State Dept./Ed.	State Dept.Ed/Fed Proj	State Dept.Ed/Certif.	Superintendent	Asst.Supt/Fed.Proj.	Asst.Supt/Instrctn	Dir. of Curriculum	Supv/Social Studies	School Coordinator	Principals	Soc.Stu.Dept.Chmn.	Team Leaders	Interns	Teachers	Comm. Rep.	Advs. Council	Model Cities	R. I. College
1. Orientation to LEA and IHE staff					O	O	M	M	M	X	X			X	M	X	A	M
2. Team Leader training: Phase I			X		X	A	A	M	I	A	A	X			M	A		O
3. Intern pre-service: Plase II			X		X		A	M	I	A		M	X		M	A	A	O
4. Intern pre-service: Phase III			X	X	X	X	A	M	D	O	M	M	X	A	M	A	I	M
5. University inservice program			X	X	X	X	M	M	G	O	O	I	X	O	M	A	O	W
6. LEA school responsibilities						X	A	X	G	I	I	D	W	W	O	A	O	O
7. Local community activities					X		A	M	G	O		I	W	O	D	W	I	O
8. Intern assessment			X	X	X	X	A	X	D	M	M	W	X	A	M		O	M
9. Team Leader assessment				X	X	X	A	X	D	M	M	X	M	A	M		O	M
10. Team assessment						X	A	X	D	X	M	X	X	A	M		O	A
11. LEA project management				X	X	X	I	G	D	I	M	W	W	O	I	A	O	I
12. IHE project management					O	O	O	O	I	O	O	X	X	O	I	A	O	I
13. Corpsmember support					O	O	O	O	G	O	I	X	X	O	I	A	O	I

CIE - Center International Education
TEC - Teacher Education Center
CHR - Center for Human Relations
CHE - Center for Humanistic Education

CUE - Center for Urban Education
CFE - Center for Foundations in Education
SMERD - Statistic Measurement Evaluation Research Design
SPU - School Personnel Utilization

TASK/JOB RELATIONSHIPS-SYMBOL TITLES

W- Work is Done
D- Direct Supervision
G- General Supervision
I- Intertask Integration/Coodination
O- Occasional Intertask Integration/Coor.
M- Mandatory Input
A- Advisory Input
X- Output Notification Mandatory

	UNIVERSITY OF MASSACHUSETTS																		PROVIDENCE																	
FUNCTIONAL TASK: I - Planning and Development of Project Design	Project Director	Asst. Proj. Director	Prog. Dev. Spec.	Proj. Admin. Asst.	CIE	TEC	CHR	CHE	CUE	CFE	SMERD	SPU	Asst.Dean-Sp. Project	Asst.Dean-Admin.	Asst.Dean-Ac.Affairs	Faculty Senate Liaison	Dean	Treasurer Office	State Dept./Ed.	State Dept.Ed/Fed Proj	State Dept.Ed/Certif.	Superintendent	Asst.Supt/Fed.Proj.	Asst.Supt/Instrctn	Dir. of Curriculum	Supv/Social Studies	School Coordinator	Principals	Soc.Stu.Dept.Chmn.	Team Leaders	Interns	Teachers	Comm. Rep.	Advs. Council	Model Cities	R. I. College
1. Define project assumptions	D	W	I		W	W	O	O	O	O	O	O	X	O	O		X		A	A	A	X	X	X	G	W		M	M			A	M	A	A	M
2. Develop project goals	D	G	I		W	W	A	A	A	A	A	A	G	O	O		X		A	A	A	X	O	O	W	W		M	M			A	M	A	A	M
3. Determine project staff needs	D	G	I		W	W	A	A	A	A	A	A		A									X		G	D	W						M			M
4. Develop Corpsmember recruitment plan	D	W																			A		X		A	M	M						A	A		
5. Develop Corpsmember selection plan	G	W																			A		A	A	M	M	M	A	A		X	X	M			
6. Develop Corpsmember evaluation plan	G	O	D								W																M	M	M	M	X	X	M	A		M
7. Determine Team Leader responsibilities	G	O																						X		G	W	M		X	X	X	M			
8. Design Team Leader training	G	O	D		W	W	W	W	W	W		A												A	A	M	M	A	M	X	M	A	M			I
9. Determine Intern responsibilities	D	O																		A		X	X	X	A	G	D	X	M	X	X	A	M	M	A	
10. Design Intern training	G		D		W	W	W	W	W	W		A									A				O	G	W	A	A	M	X	A	W	A	A	W
11. Design competency-based units	G		D		W	W	W	W	W	W		A										X														W
12. Determine LEA eligibility	X	D																					W		I											
13. Develop LEA budget	I	D																					D			W										
14. Develop IHE budget	I	W			G	M								D			X	X					A		A	A	A									
15. Determine certification needs	X		X			W															W										X					X
16. Design School Coordinator selection	G	D																						A	A	W			A				M	A		
17. Design overall management plan	G	W	M		D	M							I				X	X		X		X	X		X	M	X	X	X	X	X		M	X	X	A
18. Determine community acceptance																																				
19. Secure project approvals																																				

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	UNIVERSITY OF MASSACHUSETTS																		PROVIDENCE																	
	Project Director	Asst. Proj. Director	Prog. Dev. Spec.	Proj. Admin. Asst.	CIE	TEC	CHR	CHE	CUE	CFE	SMERD	SPU	Asst.Dean-Sp. Project	Asst.Dean-Admin.	Asst.Dean-Ac.Affairs	Faculty Senate Liaison	Dean	Treasurer Office	State Dept./Ed.	State Dept.Ed/Fed Proj	State Dept.Ed/Certif.	Superintendent	Asst.Supt/Fed.Proj.	Asst.Supt/Instrctn	Dir. of Curriculum	Supv/Social Studies	School Coordinator	Principals	Soc.Stu.Dept.Chmn.	Team Leaders	Interns	Teachers	Comm. Rep.	Advs. Council	Model Cities	R. I. College
FUNCTIONAL TASK: IV - Institutional Decisions on Project Test Units																																				
1. LEA Adoption of African Studies Curric.	X				X						X		X									X	X	G	D	W	X	X	W	X	X	W		X		
2. LEA Continuation of Resource Centers	X				X						X		X									X	X	G	D	W	X	X	W	X	X	W		X		
3. LEA Utilization of Individualized Learning Alternatives in African Stud.	X				X						X		X									X	X	G	D	W	X	X	W	X	X	W		X		
4. LEA Adoption of team teaching model	X				X						X		X									G	X	D		W	X	W	W	X	X	W		X		
5. LEA Adoption of differentiated staff roles	X				X						X	X	X									G	X	D		W	X	W	W	X	X	W		X		
6. LEA Adoption of affective learning units	X				X						X		X									X	X	G	D	W	X	X	W	X	X	W		X		
7. LEA Continuation of community-based Education Alternatives	X				X						X		X									X	X	G	O		X	I	O	X	X	W	W	X	X	
8. LEA Hiring of interns and team leaders upon project completion	X				X						X		X									D	X	I	O	M		M	M	X	X			X		
9. LEA Retention of school/community relations role	X				X						X		X																							
10. IHE Adoption of competency-based unit in School of Education program	X				W	W	W	W	W	W	X	I	X		D	I	G			X	X						X			X	X					W
11. IHE Adoption of performance criteria for C.D. Specialists and S/C Rel in	X				I	I	I	I	I	I	X	W	X		G	I	D			X	X						X			X	X					
School of Education																				X	X						X			X	X		X			
12. IHE Adoption of performance criteria in School of Education for community involvement of teachers																																				

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APPENDIX E

SUMMARY OF GOALS FOR THE UNIVERSITY OF MASSACHUSETTS-PROVIDENCE, R. I. SIXTH CYCLE TEACHER CORPS PROJECT

A. Objectives for Institutional Change

This proposal sets forth objectives for four groups: the Teacher Corps, the participating schools systems in Providence, Rhode Island and Worcester, Massachusetts, the University of Massachusetts' School of Education, and the Corpsmembers. (Corpsmember objectives are to be found under Sections V, VII and VIII.) Needless to say, the objectives of all these groups are directed towards the twin goals of the Teacher Corps to "strengthen the educational opportunities available to children in areas having concentrations of low-income families, and to encourage colleges and universities to broaden their programs of teacher preparation." The objectives as set forth encompass seven primary themes:

--African Studies Curriculum Development
--Affective Curriculum Development
--Urban Education - with a focus on the "middle" school (grades 5-9)
--Human Relations Performance Criteria
--Behavioral Skills Performance Criteria
--Curriculum Development Specialists
--School/Community Relations Specialists

1. Objectives for the Teacher Corps

a. Objective - to increase the Teacher Corps' ability to affect institutional change by providing working models of developed curricula in African Studies suitable for nation-wide replication.

b. Objective - to provide the Teacher Corps competency-based units resulting from the pilot testing of experimental performance criteria as developed by the Massachusetts Model Elementary Teacher Education Program.

c. Objective - to provide the Teacher Corps developed performance criteria for Curriculum Development Specialists and School/ Community Relations Specialists.

d. Objective - to provide the Teacher Corps with models of inservice teacher education that include specialty components in curriculum development and school/community specialists.

e. Objective - to provide the Teacher Corps with competency-based modular units in the areas of Human Relations, Behavioral Skills and Urban Education suitable for a Middle School Teacher Education Program.

2. Objectives for the Participating School Systems - Providence, R. I.

a. Objective - to develop a refined African Studies curriculum with instructional modules including specific competencies for teachers and students suitable for use in grades six and eight.

b. Objective - to enrich educational opportunities for urban middle school students by establishing and utilizing Social Studies Resource Centers in the Providence middle schools.

c. Objective - to offer urban students in the Providence middle schools individualized learning alternatives in African Studies.

d. Objective - to offer regular middle school teachers in Providence the opportunity to integrate African Studies units into their regular courses of study; e. g., an African literature unity for an English class, or an African politics unit for a hisotry class.

e. Objective - to experiment with and evaluate organizational alternatives to classroom instruction in order to seek out viable differentiated staff roles for the Providence middle schools.

f. Objective - to develop an inservice education program for regular middle school social studies teachers in African Studies and the use of affective learning activities.

g. Objective - to specifically develop affective learning activities in modular form in order to assist students' and teachers' growth in relating to peoples and values of other cultures, with direct reference to Africa and African influences in the United States.

h. Objective - to develop more alternative ways for the school system to serve their communities through community-based education projects.

i. Objective - to increase the number of professionally trained teachers in the Providence School System from minority groups.

3. For the Participating School Systems - Worcester, Massachusetts

Deleted - Not approved.

4. For the University of Massachusetts - School of Education

a. Objective - to develop new competency-based instructional modules in Human Relations, Urban Education, Counselor Education, Humanistic Education and TEacher Education.

b. Objective - to begin implementation of the Massachusetts Model Elementary Teacher Education Program by integrating appropriate components into the preservice and inservice training of the Sixth Cycle Project.

c. Objective - to retrain teacher education faculty in the use of competency-based modules in the areas described in paragraph 4.a.

d. Objective - to develop and field-test competency-based instructional modules in the area of community involvement for urban teachers.

e. Objective - to develop models of teacher education for Curriculum Development Specialists and School/Community Relations Specialists.

APPENDIX F

SUMMARY OF JOB RESPONSIBILITIES FOR THE NEW MANAGEMENT MODEL

I. Providence School Department Services

Responsibility for the day-to-day operational conduct of the project rests with the Providence School Department. The major work of school department personnel can be viewed as community coordination, project communication, administration, and representation. Under the revised organizational scheme, these functions would be performed as follows:

Representation: This includes acting as project spokesman within the School Department and the Providence community, public appearances, executive level communication and negotiations on behalf of the project, planning strategies for conflict resolution at all levels within the school department, and liaison with the institutional partnership. To carry out these functions it is proposed that Herb Williams be assigned to Special Duties for the Teacher Corps project as a part of his responsibility as segment chief.

In this capacity he will report directly to the Deputy Superintendent of schools. This means that the Teacher Corps project will be considered as predominently an action rather than an experimental program in the general school department organizational scheme. It is further proposed that one person from the project be designated special assistant to Herb. This person would be responsible for doing things on Herb's behalf to effect the decisions coming out of that office.

This person would be the eyes and ears and man-on-the-spot to translate executive decisions into action. This person would be highly mobile, spending practically all of the time visiting teams, community groups, or wherever the action is taking place. These two positions are pictured in the attached diagram as School Project Coordinator and Assistant School project Coordinator.

The Project Administrator: Will take over the administrative functions of the Project Coordinator and be responsible for such things as personnel actions, procurement, space allocations, purchasing and distribution of supplies and management of office procedures. This person will have to liaise with the University of Massachusetts, Administrative Coordinator and appropriate Providence School Department administrative services. The proposal is that a person from the project who is interested in pursuing this type of career be assigned to the School Department Office of Federal Programs. This will provide rapid management of Teacher Corps concerns by a single accountable person. The person will represent the philosophy of the project within the Federal Projects Office and interpret for the project the general administrative requirements of the school department.

The Project Communicator: Will assume responsibility for Project-wide communications. This would be the person who is the central contact point for information about the project. This person would convene meetings of team communications to receive and diseminate informations. All newsletters, publicity, publications, documents, and other information relating to project matters would be stored and diseminated through this person. Through the voluntary assistance of other project personnel this person would be responsible for maintaining a communications center for the use of all project personnel.

The Community Coordinator: Will establish and maintain community contacts and provide project interface with community events, groups, organizations, and agencies. Specific duties in connection with component will be developed around this person.

To gain maximum benefit of community contacts and to demonstrate the viability of a school community liaison, efforts will be made to provide supervision of the community coordinator through an existing community agency such as the Providence Corporation.

If this arrangement can be made, there will be no need for a "Vlazie Street Office." Administrative Services will be provided through a person in the school department Federal Projects Office; communications services can be provided through a person at John Hope, Community Coordinator Services will be provided through a person located in a commjnity agency. Executive services will be provided through the office of the Segment Chief.

II. Rhode Island College Services

Responsibility for Coordinating professional support on a day-to day basis will rest with RIC. The office of Walter Crocker will be expanded to include three coordinating functions as follows:

The Module Bank Coordinator: This is currently in operation under Tom Rose. The plan provides for one full-time person to be responsible, with assistance from within the project for receiving storing, revising and diseminating modules as developed. Tom is also at present working on the development of the Teacher Center idea, which eventually will provide the basis for effective resource allocation. However, the idea of this proposal is that the position of Module Bank Coordinator will be a major feature of the Teacher Corps laison with Providence School Department Curriculum Department efforts. The person in this position, in addition to coordinating the Curriculum Development efforts within the project, will sit on the Social Studies Advisory Committee of the Providence School Department to provide cross-reference of ideas and curriculum development between the regular system and Teacher Corps.

The Inservice Coordinator: This will include activities necessary for the smooth flow of inservice training, including needs assessment, identification and allocation of professional resources organization of logistical support for classes, seminars, and workshops, channeling of instructional advice to classrooms, identification, and coordination of Project instructional services. Included in this function will be the liaison with Providence School Department instructional resources through the Teacher Center to be established in conjunction with the Office of Training of the Providence School Department.

The Standards Commitee Coordinator: The overall responsibility for management of program standards rests with the Standards Committee. This committee will review policy procedures and approve personnel to assist in determining that people have met exit requirements. Representatives of the institutional partnership comprise the Standards Committee. In order to actually complete the work of the committee there is the need for a person who can perform the following tasks: 1. maintain files of individual competency achievements 2. communicate with interns on their status 3. maintain contact with validation personnel 4. manage the schedules for demonstrations of classroom competence and assign personnel, 5. additional staff services in support of the Standards Committee. All of these functions are to be carried out by the Standards Coordinator.

The module bank coordinator, inservice coordinator and standards coordinator will operate under the supervision of the coordinator of educational services. This is projected as a half-time position and Walter Crocker has agreed to serve in that capacity while working half-time on other duties in connection with his position at RIC.

III. University of Massachusetts Services

It is the intent of this design to remove the University of Massachusetts as much as possible out of the operational decision-making role. The idea of Providence School Department running the project in a cooperative relation with the UMass and RIC is to some extent a modification of the usual Teacher Corps management design. The influence of UMass should be available in the form of ideas, and people that assist in problem solving, planning, negotiating with Teacher Corps National and monitoring degree requirements. The general functions of catalyst, facilitator, goal monitoring are to be carried out as follows:

The Project Director: is the person ultimately accountable to UMass. and National Teacher Corps for successfully meeting goals of the project. The major areas of direct involvement include: Representational duties--the director is available to represent project interests in institutional relations and in liaison with National Teacher Corps. Goal monitoring--the project director is responsible for reporting development of the project toward the stated goals. Through the introduction of ideas and decisions about resources efforts will be made to influence the direction of the project. Negotiation--As primary project officer the director is responsible for interpreting project needs and pursuing project interests in the application of Teacher Corps guidelines. Alternatives of the National guidlines must be reflected in the decisions about project directions through the efforts of the director.

Additional specific duties of the director will depend upon the demands of the project and the institutional partners. This includes coordinator of the UMass management team which participates in planning, programming representational evaluation and advisory functions.

The Administrative Coordinator: This is a part-time position with specific responsibility for managing the administrative interactions of the project from the UMass Teacher Corps. This includes supervision of fiscal and budget matters, maintaining liaison with administrative officers within the University, the National Teacher Corps Office, and Providence School Department.

Representational functions include participation in meetings, negotiating, on behalf of Teacher Corps, Public Appearances. This includes planning activities related to the development of programs and budgetory supports for those programs in accordance with institutional procedures and Teacher Corps guidelines. At times this will require participation in planning sessions to outline general program needs and goals. Evaluation functions include clarification of goals achievement and analyzing project progress to determine problems interferring with goal achievement. Advisory activities will for the most part be focused on strategies for achieving academic goals for corpsmembers.

The Program Development Specialist: In addition to the general participation in planning, programming, evaluation, representational and advisory functions mentioned above this person will carry specific responsibility for development and coordination of inservice training. This will include budget management, delegation of instructional responsibility and monitoring of instructional activities. Overall professional guidance for the project in institutional relations and project implementation will be provided through the person. This is the primary professional resource available to the management team for decisions on the instructional program and technical components of the project. This person will

be involved in strategies for gaining professional acceptance of educational innovation from within the project such as competency-based teacher training.

APPENDIX G

MINIMAL COMPETENCIES FOR TEACHING INTERNS: A SUMMARY

6TH CYCLE TEACHER CORPS PROJECT

Minimal Competencies for Teaching Interns

A Performance Based Teacher Education Model

Sponsored by:

University of Massachusetts
Providence, Rhode Island School Department
Rhode Island College

Developed by the "Exit Requirements" Committee

Composed of:

Walter Crocker	- Rhode Island College Faculty
Stephanie Ince	- Teacher Corps Team Leader
Marcia Reback	- Providence School Teacher
Ina Stene	- Teacher Corps Intern
Herbert Williams	- Providence School Administrator
Mary Alice Wilson	- University of Massachusetts Faculty

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RATIONALE

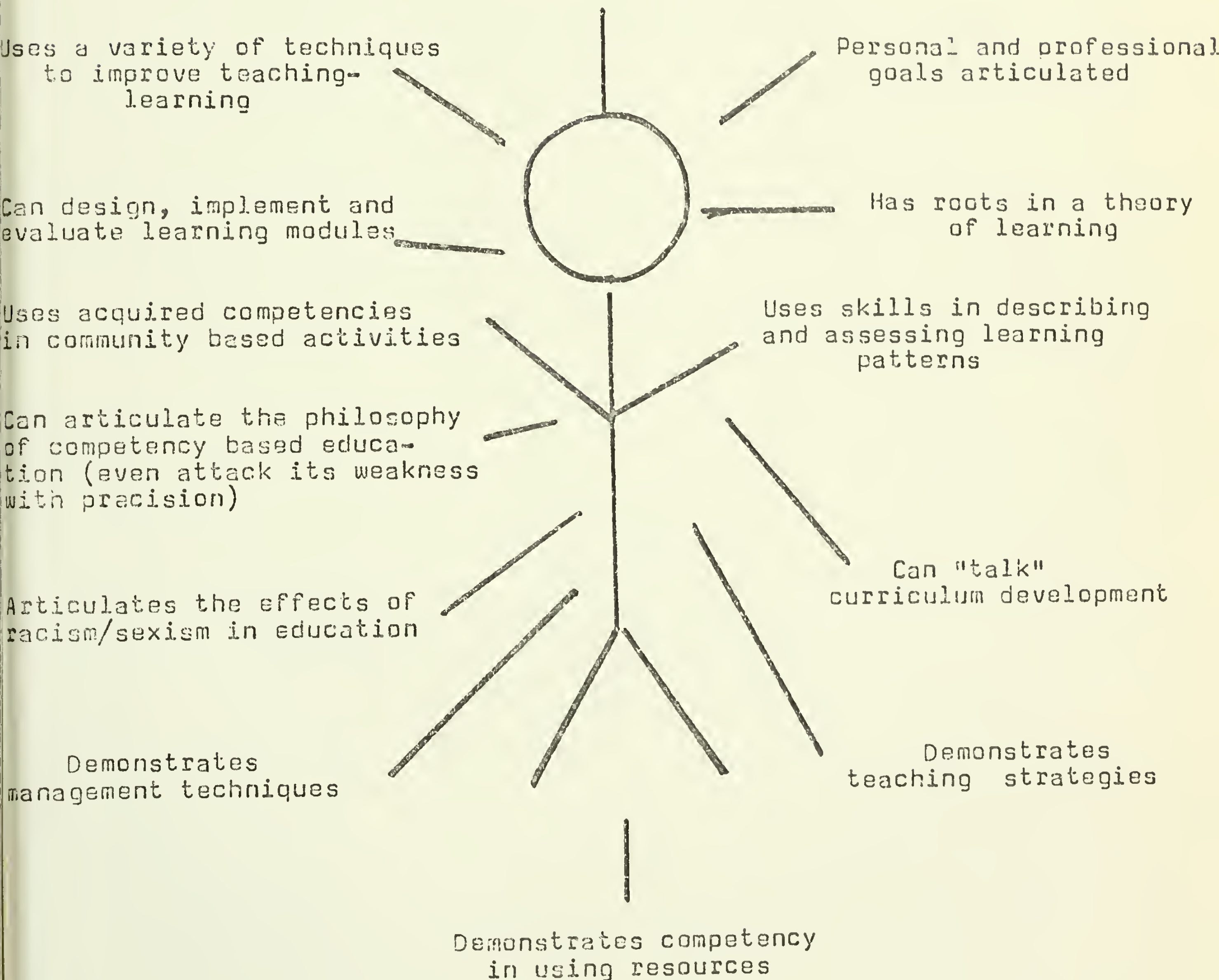
The developers of these thirteen minimal competencies are operating on the assumption that there are certain skills, knowledges, and understandings which teachers in urban schools should possess. We have emphasized throughout the necessity for internal consistency among goals, theories, strategies, and behaviors.

1. The teacher should possess a sound philosophic base, not only in learning theory and competency-based education, but also in personal goal clarification and in understanding the role of the community in the educational process.
2. The teacher should be able to translate philosophy into practice in the classroom--to describe learning patterns, to use appropriate resource and management techniques, to evaluate the teaching-learning process, and to develop consistent teaching strategies.
3. The teacher should be able to develop appropriate learning materials both by knowing a variety of techniques and by creating materials.
4. The teacher should be able to identify the characteristics of racism/sexism in education and to identify and solve problems. The school as an institution is expected to promote both social stability and social change. Leadership in planning change and sensitivity to injustice have become, more explicitly than ever, key facets of the teacher's role.

We have tried to recognize that the responsibilities of the teacher are global and include responsibilities to students, parents, colleagues, and the larger community. The focus in this effort has been to define, in precise terms, those competencies essential to the fulfillment of these basic responsibilities. We have attempted to suggest many varied methods for achieving these competencies, leaving to the individual the final option of developing alternatives to one or more of these minimal competencies. Validation will be of the specific competency and not of the methods used to achieve it.

UOPN SUCCESSFUL COMPLETION OF THE 6TH CYCLE

TEACHER CORPS MINIMAL COMPETENCIES AN INTERN LOOKS LIKE THIS:



Demonstrates competency in using resources

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6TH CYCLE TEACHER CORPS MINIMAL COMPETENCIES

I. Professional Growth and Goals

Essence - Examine and clarify your professional growth and goals and formulate a program within the context of the Teacher Corps Project. Include plans for work in school, in community, and in academic activities and relate these to your goals. Anticipate possible pitfalls and suggest alternative activities.

Approaches -

Substance: Completion Criteria:

1. State career goals, as a student as well as one working in an educational milieu.
2. Describe and analyze professional growth to date.
3. Communicate professional plans for coming year in school and community.
4. Itemize possible barriers to above and alternate approaches.

Vehicle: Written (typed, if possible four copies) or cassette, or design your own.

Process:

Step 1. (Optional) Ask for Tutman and/or Rosen cassette tapes for amplification of requirement.

Step 2. Send statement to Standards Committee coordinator to initiate action.

Step 3. Individual Standards Committee members and the Project director will read your statement.

Step 4. The Standards Coordinator may make an appointment for you with Standards Committee for discussion of your goals in the event that your presentation lacks some aspects of the stated "completion criteria".

Step 5. Copies of your statement will be sent to your advisor as well as being placed in your exit file. Appropriate notations and signatures of Standards Committee will be made and filed also.

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6TH CYCLE TEACHER CORPS MINIMAL COMPETENCIES

II. Learning Theory

Essence - a. Demonstrate knowledge of learning theories and

b. Articulate the learning theory(ies) which support your teaching-learning goals.

Approaches - Define learning theory. Trace its origins and applicability to American education.

Specifics: Contrast and compare at least two very different theories of learning, cite tenets of each, people associated with their initial development, modern spokesmen, if any. Explain the implications of these theories for the classroom.

Describe - your "own" theory of learning. Amplify on it and the reasons for your choice.

Address yourself to the question, "How will your learning theory translate into actions in public school and/or community."

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6TH CYCLE TEACHER CORPS MINIMAL COMPETENCIES

III Description and Assessment of Learning Patterns

Essence - Demonstrate ability to describe learning patterns using one of the approaches stated below and the ability to use assessment tools.

Approaches - Description (choose at least one)

1. using congnitive approach (measurements of academic levels)

2. using the theories of developmental stages of physical, emotional, and intellectual growth (e.g., Piaget, Gesell)

3. using the sociological approach (socio-economic status, peer culture, etc.)

4. using the self-image approach (interests, aspirations, view of education, etc.)

Assessment

Use cognitive and/or affective assessment tools. Describe and participate in evaluation of the success of the tool (a) in reinforcing learning, (b) in measuring attainment of goals, and (c) in terms of its consistency with the teaching strategy(ies).

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6TH CYCLE TEACHER CORPS MINIMAL COMPETENCIES

IV. Curriculum Development

Essence - a. Demonstrate knowledge of systems of curriculum development

b. Articulate a system(s) which support the learning theory(ies) which support your goals (see #1 and #2.) Consider the following:

--cognitive and affective goals and the process of reaching these goals

--disciplinary and interdisciplinary approaches

--core curriculum, competency based education, inquiry, discovery

--issues in a specific content area, e.g., African content

--theorists, e.g., Hilda Taba, James B. McDonald, Philo Pritzkau, Jerome Bruner, Ridgway Shinn.

Approaches - All required

1. Develop a definition of curriculum and give rationale in support of that definition. Focus on your special interest content area and explain how it fits into your definition and rationale.
2. Identify the five elements of curriculum theory (see support folder)
3. Identify process or processes by which curriculum change is (are) achieved.
4. Demonstrate skill in utilizing a curriculum resource center.
5. Using a given curriculum theory, assess a curriculum issue or proposal.
6. Identify at least four curriculum "theorists" and list their curricular beliefs.

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6TH CYCLE TEACHER CORPS MINIMAL COMPETENCIES

Teaching Strategies (Suggested prerequisites Sets I,II,III and IV)

Essence -
a. Derive a teaching strategy(ies) from the learning theory(ies) and system(s) of curriculum development which support your teaching-learning goals.

b. Demonstrate one of these strategies in the classroom and participate in evaluating (1) its effectiveness and appropriateness in meeting the teaching-learning goals and (2) the consistency of this strategy with the learning theory(ies) and system(s) of curriculum development.

Approaches - (to be demonstrated)

1. Chart your goals for the lesson. Explain your short and long term objective for these students. Describe where this lesson fits. The following form will be one of the tools used by the Validation Team.

A Goals	B What You Plan To Do	C What Actually Happened	D Dissonance	E What Needs to Be Changed
You	You	You	You	You
Kids	Kids	Kids	Kids	Kids

2. Be prepared to articulate your reasons for choosing this particular strategy in light of:

a. its appropriateness in meeting your lesson's goals
b. the consistency of this strategy with

1. your previously stated learning theory
2. your theory of curriculum development

The team may also use a general lesson analysis and/or a form of interaction analyses for your use but not as completion criteria.

Note: Columns A and B of the chart should be in the hands of the Validation Team at start of presentation.

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6TH CYCLE TEACHER CORPS MINIMAL COMPETENCIES

VI. Use of Resources

Essence - Demonstrate use of resources consistent with teaching strategy(ies) (see #5). Consider: printed resources, films, tapes, filmstrips, recordings, video tape recorders, artifacts, pictures, maps, chalkboards, globes, diagrams, arts, music, dance, crafts, dramatics, field trips, human resources, other. Participate in evaluating (a) the effectiveness and appropriatesness of the way the media was used in terms of meeting goals and (b) its consistency with the learning theory(ies). (All project personnel are expected to demonstrate proficiency in operating 16mm projector, VTR, filmstrip projector, overhead projector, cassette tape recorder, reel-to-reel recorder, opaque projector.)

Approaches -

1. Demonstrate minimum proficienty in:

   16mm projector
   video tape machine
   filmstrip projector
   overhead projector
   cassette tape recorder
   reel-to-reel audio tape recorder
   opaque projector

   (procedures for validation will be explicit in Resource Folder #6)

2. Describe or demonstrate the process in which you used a resource. Give amplification on:

   a. its effectiveness in helping you to meet an instructional goal.

   b. the practicality of its use (expense, management)

   c. its reception by students (preferably recorded reactions).

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6TH CYCLE TEACHER CORPS MINIMAL COMPETENCIES

VII. Management Techniques

Essence - Demonstrate use of management techniques consistent with teaching strategy(ies) (see #5). (Note: management refers to space utilization, traffic patterns, standard classroom procedures, etc.) Consider techniques for total class situations, for individualized work, and for groups outside the classroom (field trips, cafeteria, auditorium, etc.) Participate in evaluating (a) the effectiveness and appropriateness of your management technique in terms of meeting goals and (b) its consistency with the learning theory.

Approaches -

1. Show facility in managing:

required - a. a standard classroom lesson activity

b. a small group session

choose two (b-f)

c. several small group activities

d. an individualized instruction activity

e. orderly mass movement of a group of at least 25 students from one part of school to another

f. a field trip: from conceptualization to summary evaluation.

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6TH CYCLE TEACHER CORPS MINIMAL COMPETENCIES

VIII. Philosophy of Competency Based Education

Essence - Analyze the philosophy of competency-based education and describe its actual implementation to date in your classrooms. Identify constraints (Providence School System, school, team, personal) which militate against full implementation of competency-based education.

Approaches -

1. Be able to specify the tenets of competency based education, listing the major assemptions of its instructional model.
2. Cite institutions nationally where competency based teacher education is being heavily developed.
3. Describe the status of CBE exploration in R.I.
4. Show where you have implemented CBE in your school. Submit data in support of this.
5. List constraints presently encountered in your school and the system of public education which hamper the development of a full CBE program. Suggest remediation.
6. Identify or create at least three possible arguments in opposition to CBE. State your position in relation to each.

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6TH CYCLE TEACHER CORPS MINIMAL COMPETENCIES

IX. Module Design

Essence - The intern will develop, teach and revise a module cluster, for a group of learners with whom he has had prior teaching experience.

Approaches -

The module should include objectives, assessment, procedures, description of learning activities (both materials and management design), description of evaluation procedure, and results of the evaluation. (Although modules are not time linked, the intern should plan in terms of the average learner taking approximately a week.)

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6TH CYCLE TEACHER CORPS MINIMAL COMPETENCIES

. Feedback Techniques

Essence - Use or develop feedback techniques for continuous evaluation of the consistency between your goals and practices. Use a combination of self-diagnostic, pupil feedback, peer evaluation, and/or supervisory input.

Approaches -

Upon completion of this competency you should be able to:

PART I.

1. observe and record at least 90% of the major elements of any given lesson in any grade, any subject (video tape check out), using the general lesson analysis technique.

2. interpret and explain these findings to another professional in such a manner as to have agreement on at least 80% of the findings (ad hoc evaluator).

3. list the five major considerations of planning and evaluating learning experiences. (See #5).

PART II.

1. devising or utilizing an existing tool, implement at least two pupil feedback instruments to measure your teaching.

PART III - optional

1. use at least one additional teaching assessment tool of your own choosing, such as Flanders, with at least 75% accuracy. See folder for details.

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6TH CYCLE TEACHER CORPS MINIMAL COMPETENCIES

XI. Change Agentry

Essence - Develop, implement, and assess a plan for institutional change.

Approaches -

1. Develop a plan for change in an institution with which you are connected.

   (a) Identify a situation to be changed

   (b) Present an analysis of the situation showing why change is necessary

   (c) Identify the essential policies, practices, people, and resources that will be affected by the anticipated change

   (d) Identify the resources necessary to bring about change

   (e) Identify strategies for effecting change

   (f) Present an analysis of the basis for your involvement in this change process

2. Implement this plan.

   (a) Demonstrate the ability to organize and manage the material resources

   (b) Demonstrate the ability to organize and manage the human resources

3. Assess the following:

   (a) your analysis of the situation
   (b) the strategies you selected
   (c) your communications and human relations skills
   (d) your organizational skills
   (e) your volitional skills (e.g. perseverance, level of commitment)
   (f) your response to unexpected eventualities

4. Describe the outcome of your efforts.

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6TH CYCLE TEACHER CORPS MINIMAL COMPETENCIES

XII. Racism/Sexism

Essence - Demonstrate knowledge of racism or sexism and its effects in education.

Approaches -

1. Racism

   (a) Define the terms racism and institutional racism.

   (b) Describe the impact of personal and institutional racism on educational systems. This may be a description of policies, practices, or specifically documented effects from the literature or from personal experience.

   (c) Describe the implications of personal and institutional racism for the Project with respect to the peer and pupil-teacher relationships and in at least one of the following areas: curriculum development in general, curriculum development in African Studies, affective education, community-based education, classroom management, Project governance, etc.

2. Sexism - same as above but substitute sexism for racism.

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6TH CYCLE TEACHER CORPS MINIMAL COMPETENCIES

XIII. <u>Community-Based Education</u>

<u>Essence</u> - Define the concept "community-based education" and participate in a community-based education project consistent with your definition.

<u>Approaches</u> -

1. Discuss the concept "community-based education". Include in your discussion references to the historical context and the educational, social, economic, political, and psychological implications. Develop your own definition.

2. Apply competencies you have achieved to a project in community-based education consistent with your definition.

3. Analyze your experience. Include an identification of those competencies essential to the success of your project. Identify also the barriers to success.

VALIDATION PROCESS I, II, III, IV, VIII, IX, X

VEHICLE: Written (typed - 8 copies), one cassette; or design your own.

PROCESS: 1. Support folder at Veazie 1,2,3,4,8,9,10

RESOURCES: 1. Monday night lectures series

a. Learning Theory

b. Curriculum Development

c. Description and Assessment Learning Patterns

d. Lesson Analysis and Feedback Techniques

2. Video-tapes

a. Howell on Learning Theory

b. Vacchi on Interdisciplinary Approach

c. U Mass. C3E tapes

d. Houghton on Curriculum

e. Carlton College Demonstration Lessons - RIC Curriculum Center

PROCESS VALIDATION

1. Make your intent to work on a certain competency known to the Standards Coordinator
2. If you wish to pre-assess out on any competency, see support folder for pre-assessment procedures.
3. Send your materials to Standards Coordinator to initiate action on validation
4. Validation team will work with your materials
5. An appointment may be made for you by coordinator with the validation team if clarification or remediation is necessary or upon your request.
6. The Standards Committee will act upon the reccommendations of the Validation Team
7. The Standards coordinator will send you copies of any communications concerning your validation process

VALIDATION AND SUPPORT FOLDERS -- XI, XII and XIII

VEHICLE: Written, one cassette, seminar or design your own

RESOURCES: Support folders at Veazie XI, XII, and XIII
ERIC microfiche system RIC library
Seminars

VALIDATION:

1. Make your intent to work on a competency known to the Standards Coordinator

2. Call Standards Coordinator to set up appointment for validation team or bring tape and material to Veazie.

3. An appointment may be made for you by coordinator with validation team if necessary or upon your request.

4. Competencies XI, XII, and XIII may be validated at the same time in seminar at your request

5. The Standards Coordinator will act as liaison in your validation process

VALIDATION PROCESS V, VI, VII

VEHICLE: Live classroom demonstration and conference with Validation Team, or video-taped lesson accompanied by written (8 copies) or taped supportive explanations.

RESOURCES:

1. Support folder at Veazie VI
2. Teacher Performance Center RIC
   Henry Barnard School 205 for A-V checkout by appointment VI

VALIDATION:

1. Make your intent to work on a competency known to Standards Coordinator
2. Call Standards Coordinator to set up appointment for validation team or bring tape and materials to Veazie.
3. An appointment may be made for you by coordinator with the validation team if clarification or remediation is necessary or upon your request.
4. Competencies 5,6,7 will be validated at the same time unless special arrangements are requested.
5. Standards Committee will act upon the recommendations of the validation team.
6. The Standards Coordinator will send you copies of any communications concerning your validation process.

THE COMPETENCIES ARE ACQUIRED THROUGH A HOST OF EXPERIENCES WHICH INCLUDE: STRUCTURED AND SEMI-STRUCTURED SESSIONS, READINGS, TUTORIALS, INDEPENDENT STUDY INCLUDING MEDIA AND MODULES, ACTION RESEARCH IN THE SCHOOLS AND VISITATIONS.

HUMAN RESOURCES COME FROM MANY AREAS: THE SCHOOL SYSTEM, COMMUNITY, COLLEGES, UNIVERSITIES AND OURSELVES.

FINAL VALIDATION IS BY PROFESSIONALS WHO POSSESS THESE COMPETENCIES AS WELL AS CREDENTIALS AND IT TAKES PLACE WITHIN AND WITHOUT BOTH THE COLLEGE AND THE PUBLIC SCHOOL CLASSROOM.

THE COMPETENCY ITSELF

I found demonstrating this competency: interesting/ / / / / /boring.

WHY?________________________________

As preparation for urban innovative teachers, I think this competency is:

essential/ / / / / /unnecessary.

WHY?________________________________

As preparation for me as a (describe your plans briefly)____________

I think the competency is: essential/ / / / / /unnecessary.

WHY?________________________________

Please use the back of the paper or extra paper to make additional comments.

Estimate time taken in completing competency (not including time in activities listed below)__________hours.

Was the rationale clearly stated? yes/__/ no/__/ EXPLAIN____________

____

Was the objective clearly stated? yes/__/ no/__/ EXPLAIN____________

____

Did the post assessment adequately measure the objective? yes/__/no/__/

EXPLAIN________________________________

PREPARATION ACTIVITIES

(classes, reading, folders, experience, observation, etc.)

rst Activity:

Describe activity briefly________________________________

____

Estimate time spent in activity________________________________

I found the activity: interesting/ / / / / /boring.

As preparation for demonstrating the competency, I found the activity .

very helpful/ / / / / /of very little use.

The most useful part of the activity was:______________________________

____

The least useful part of the activity was:_____________________________

____

Were the sources, equipment, personnel, pupils (and other resources needed) easily available? yes/__/ no/__/ EXPLAIN_____________________________

____

Second and Third Activity - Same as 1 through 4 in First Activity.

If you used other activities, please make up additional forms yourself. If you have any other comments which would help improve the activities or the competencies themselves, please use additional paper. BE SURE TO LET US KNOW. Thank you for your help.

APPENDIX H

INTERIM BUDGET REPORT ON INSERVICE MONIES: SECOND INSERVICE YEAR

INTERIM BUDGET REPORT ON INSERVICE MONIES

January 25, 1973 (Soft Estimate)

I. Total Instructional Monies Budgeted — $65,984

A.3 Instructional Staff	$56,764	
B.8 Instructional Materials	9,220	

II. Fall Semester Budget (September 4, 1972-January 15, 1973)

Content Area	Budgeted	Spent	Instructional Coordinator
Certf/Master's Degree	$3,600		J. Freiberg, Coord./Team Leader
African Content	2,000		Oscar Nkomo, LEA
Exit Requirements	3,000		Marcia Rebeck, LEA
Community Relations	500		William Tutman, IHE
Institutional Change	-		William Tutman, IHE
Team Plan. & Curr. Dev.	600		O. Nkomo/G. Strazar, LEA
TESL	750		Reyes Mazon, TC/TAP
New Interns/Special Needs	1,500		S. Berryman, Intern
Racism	450		Stephanie Ince, Team Leader
Integrated Day	600		(cancelled)
Affective Ed. (with movement)	450		(Postponed to spring)
Human Relations	250		Stephanie Ince, Team Leader
Crisis Management	250		
Reading Specialist	600		Mary Alice Wilson, IHE
Reading: Above Certf.	600		Masha Rudman, IHE
Teacher Center	145		Jerome Freiberg, Team Leader
Drug Awareness	250		Stephanie Ince, Team Leader
Affective Ed. (non-movement)	450		Stephanie Ince, Team Leader
School Development	2,900		Pearl Spears, Team Leader
Subtotals	$18,895	$11,570	

OTHER CATEGORIES			
Mary Alice Wilson	3,741	3,741	
Walter Crocker	3,741	3,741	
Providence Corporation	2,500	2,500	
Inservice Support	1,250	1,173	
Management Model	3,750	-	
Worcester Component	2,200	1,900	Balance Forward
Project History	700	-	$12,152
TOTALS	$36,777	$24,625	

III. Spring Semester Budget (January 15, 1973-June 15, 1973)

Content Area	Budgeted	Instructional Coordinator	Budget Coordinator
A-V Media	$1,200	Roy Frye, RIC	Roy Frye, RIC
Methodology	750	J. Freiberg, T.L.	J. Freiberg, T.L.
Sec. Certf. (RIC)	1,000	Walter Crocker, RIC	W. Crocker, RIC
Phil. of Black Education	800	Pearl Spears, Team Leader	P. Spears, T.L.
Reading	420	Mary Alice Wilson, IHE	M.A. Wilson, IHE
Community-based Education	750	William Tutman, IHE	W. Tutman, IHE
TESL	790	Reyes Mazon, TC/TAP	R. Mazon, TC/TAP
Learning Theory	500	Thomas Howell, RIC	T. Howell, RIC
Goals/Assessment	(Exits)	James Rubovitz, RIC	J. Rubovitz, RIC
Movement/Affective Ed.	860	Myra Capy, IHE	Myra Capy, IHE
African Content	400	(actg)Oscar Nkomo, LEA	(actg)O. Nkomo, LEA
Curriculum Dev.	650	O. Nkomo/G. Strazar, LEA	Oscar Nkomo, LEA
Proposals, Budgets, Admin.	80	Ronald Bell, IHE	Ronald Bell, IHE
Free School	200	Jerome Freiberg, T.L.	J. Freiberg, T.L.
Admin. Policies	120	Herbert Williams, LEA	H. Williams, LEA
Group Dynamics	550	William Tutman, IHE	W. Tutman, IHE
Kiswahili	80	Harold Confer, Intern	H. Confer, Intern
French	-	Thomas Catucci, Intern	T. Catucci, Intern
Group Contract	100	William Tutman, IHE	W. Tutman, IHE
Exit Requirements	4,860	Marcia Rebeck, LEA	M. Rebeck, LEA
School Development	830	Jerome Freiberg, T.L.	J. Freiberg, T.L
Module Bank	200	Nkomo/Strazar, LEA	Nkomo/Strazar, LEA
New Interns	500 (?)		S. Berryman, Intern
Unanticipated Needs	1,000	Inservice Committee	Inservice Committee
Subtotal	$16,640		

OTHER CATEGORIES	
Mary Alice Wilson	3,741
Walter Crocker	3,741
Inservice Support	1,550
Management Model	8,150
Project History	700
TOTAL	$34.522

IV. Summary of Instructional Monies

Instructional Funds Unobligated in Fall:	$29,207
Balance Carried Forward from Fall:	12,152
Subtotal	$41,359
Spring Budget:	34,522
Balance Unobligated:	6,837

V. Other Inservice Budget Items

Item	Budgeted	+/- by June 15
A.1 (Tutman & Bell)	$26,650	OK
A.2 (Gates	5,330	OK
A.5 (Benefits)	1,489	OK
B.6 (Travel)	4,780	OK
B.7 (Office Supplice, Phone)	3,600	OK
B.9 (Fees)	2,622	+ 500
B.10 (Equip. Rental)	500	OK

VI. Funds not included in Interim Report

New Interns	$3,500
Module Bank	3,000
Retraining Amend.	6,900 (2,500 obligated)
VTC Component	6,480 (all obligated)

APPENDIX I

ANALYSIS OF TEAM LEADER INVENTORY QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS

ANALYSIS OF TEAM LEADER INVENTORY RESULTS

This analysis focuses on two types of discrepancy. First, there is the discrepancy (as perceived by respondents) between what ought to be the behavior of the Team Leader and what actually has been experienced. Secondly, there is the discrepancy between Team Leader perception of appropriate and actual behavior and that of other respondents.

In our definition of team roles it is essential that each person be allowed the opportunity to participate in the decisions about his own welfare and functioning in proportion to his ability to assume responsibility, With this definition of roles, the major responsibility of the leader to allow the ideas and creativity of team members as much influence in the direction of team activities as the ideas merit. This suggests that ideas will be evaluated on the basis of their soundness and relevance to team purpose. The status of the idea's originator is not a consideration in the judgement of merit.

The concept of floating leadership was deliberately conceived for this program and introduced as a way of minimizing the status-based power of the Team Leader. It was and is my conviction that the valid power of a leader in an educational setting (where creativity is at a premium) stems from the greater ideological clarity and creativity of the leader and not from the artificial designation of power implied in the title "leader". Even though the situation must determine the leader's style, there are some situations where particular styles are suggested by the goals and assumptions under which leadership is expected to operate. Regardless of other situational demands, the behavior and demands of followers is critical to the determination of the effectiveness of the leader.

No Team Leader could possibly succeed in this project without making some adjustment in decision-making style. The leader must meet the demand for rational consideration of the views of team members. To the extent a group allows decisions to be made for them, the Team Leader could function in an autocratic manner. To the extent the followers demand a say, the Team Leader is forced to allow participation or risk sustained conflict within the team.

Floating leadership assumes that no one person has all the skills to meet all leader demands in all situations. Unfortunately, this has been confused at times with an expectation within the project that floating leadership means taking turns being the leader, or that leaders and followers have equal leader prerogatives all the time. Neither are accurate perceptions of the concept.

Leadership is situational and will therefore make different demands of different people at different times.

In practice, there is an effective counter balance against the Team's complete domination of the Team Leader. This is provided by the expectations of the school in which principals and other teachers have a more traditional view of the Team Leader as a hierarchical leader.

The major dimensions of the leadership role that characterize styles of leadership are: Decision-making - Who makes what kind of decisions and on what basis? Whether the Team Leader has the prerogative to mandate or must negotiate as an equal member of the team is the central question that differentiates autocratic and participating styles. The range of behaviors on this dimension would be from giving all orders with no discussion to discussing everything in advance.

Role Representation - Who assumes what role at what time for what reason? Who leads the discussions? Who interacts with the principal? Who receives information from outside the group? There is a broad range of behavior on this dimension. One person may always assume all roles traditionally associated with with the leader position. At the other extreme, the group may jointly decice role designations in each situation on the basis of the person most able to function in the required way at the required time.

Performance Feedback - Telling a person what you think about his performance. The roles of this dimension are, on the one hand, the leader tells followers what he thinks and that perception represents "fact". On the other hand, everyone shares the opportunity and responsibility to provide information on everybody else's performance.

These are by no means the only relevant dimensions of leadership's behavior but they do stand out as the major concerns on the question of leadership in this project. The inventory includes some questions that are reflective of perceptions on these dimensions of leadership. Also, because of peculiarities of wording,

some questions allow a more accurate reading of the autocratic - participating direction of behavior than do other questions. This analysis focuses mainly on those items from the original inventory and others suggested by the respondents. This does not mean that other items are unimportant - it does mean that clearer interpretations of responses are possible for these items than the others.

In the discussion of the results all items should be considered. In order to establish the contract (criteria) for future Team Leader evaluation it will be necessary for each team to clarify the essential characteristics of Team Leader effectiveness and express in terms the Team Leader can understand.

In analyzing the results, observe the following:

Type of Descrepancies

A = Those items that have discrepancies of more than one vertical line between respondents' actual and ideal (one space between any response on one line and all responses on the other line).

B = Those items where responses are spread across three or more spaces horizontally. These are broad team discrepancies and may suggest the need for more Tteamness".

C - Those items that have discrepancies of one space or more between the team leader response and the most disparate follower response.

Category I: Items in which "always" responses suggest an autocratic style.

Category II: Items in which "always" responses suggest a participating style.

Category III: Some items do not clearly distinguish autocratic or participatory styles. There are some in which "Never" suggests autocratic style, these have not been noted on the sheet.

TEAM LEADER INVENTORY

ANALYSIS SUMMARY

ITEM		Always	Often	Occasionally	Seldom	Never		Discrepancy Profile A	B	C	
1 Make attitudes clear to group	A	[illegible]	4								
	I	4.	1								
2 Rule with an iron hand	A				1	4.					I
	I				1	4.					
3 Try to impose views without offering reasons	A			1		4.				C	I
	I				2	3.					
4 Invite criticism of own ideas	A	1	2	2.					B	C	II
	I	2.	3								
5 Criticizes poor work openly	A		1	3.		1			B	C	
	I		3.	1		1			B	C	
6 Assign tasks to team members	A				5.						I
	I			3.	2						
7 Represent the group in official meetings	A		2	1.	1				B		I
	I		1	1.	2				B		

	ITEM		Always	Often	Occasionally	Seldom	Never	Discrepancy Profile A	B	C	
8	Determine standards of performance	A			4·		1			C	I
		I		2·	1	2			B	C	
9	Emphasize meeting of deadlines	A		1	3·	1			B		I
		I	1	1·	2	1			B	C	
10	Set procedures to be followed by all	A			2·	3					I
		I			2·	3					
11	Clarify his role in the team	A		2	1	1·			B	C	
		I	1	1	2·				B	C	
12	Let team members know what he expects of them	A		2	3·						
		I	1	2·	2				B		
13	Insist that team members work to capacity	A		4	1·						I
		I	1	3	1				B		
14	See to it that work of team members is coordinated	A	1	2·	2				B		
		I	2	2·		1			B	C	
15	Is willing to change previous decisions	A		5·							II
		I	1	4·							

	ITEM		Always	Often	Occasionally	Seldom	Never	Discrepancy Profile A	B	C	
16	Maintains open dialogue with principal	A	1	3		1·		+	B	C	
		I	2·	3							
17	Listen to views of department chairman	A	1	1·	3				B		
		I	·	3	1				B	C	
18	Questions rules from higher up	A	1	1	4·				B	C	II
		I		3·	2						
19	Present dignified appearance to outsiders on discipline problem	A	1·	1	1	1			B	C	I
		I	1·	2		1			B	C	
20	Make final determination on discipline problems	A		1	1	2·	1		B	C	I
		I			1	2·	2		B		
21	Try out new ideas with the group	A		3·	2						II
		I	1·	4							
22	Encourages others to express their views	A	1	3	1·				B	C	II
		I	4·	1							
23	Listen attentatively to different views	A		2	2·	1		A	B		II
		I	2·	3							

	ITEM		Always	Often	Occasionally	Seldom	Never	Discrepancy Profile			
								A	B	C	
24	Speak in a manner not to be questioned	A			2·	1	2		B	C	
		I				3·	2				
25	Takes time to make himself understood	A	1	2	2·				B	C	II
		I	3·	2							
26	Encourages assessment of own performance	A	2	2	1·				B	C	
		I	2	3·							
27	Explains his actions to team members	A	1	3·	1				B		
		I	3	1	1				B	C	
28	Consult team members before acting	A		5							II
		I	2·	3							
29	Backs up actions of team members	A		4·	1						
		I		4·	1						
30	Opposes position of majority of team members	A			1·	2	2		B	C	
		I			1·	3	1		B	C	
31	Is willing for others to take actions assoc w/leader	A	1	4·							
		I	1	4·							

	ITEM		Always	Often	Occasionally	Seldom	Never	Discrepancy Profile			
								A	B	C	
32	Assumes leader role w/out squelching initiative of others	A	1	2·	1	1			B	C	
		I	2·	1		2			B	C	
33	Treat all team members as equals	A	1	3·							
		I	3	1·							
34	Uses authority to suppress ideas of others	A		1		1·	3	A	B	C	I
		I				1	4·				
35	Gets group approval of important matters before acting	A	2	2·	1			A	B		I
		I	5·								
36	Recognizes need for outside resources to solve diff problems	A	1	3·	1				B		
		I	2·	2	1				B	C	
37	Insist that team consider views of affiliates	A		1	2·	2			B		I
		I	2·	2	1				B	C	
38	Urge team to avoid conflict with building staff	A	1	1	1	2·			B	C	
		I	2		3·						
39	Display control of group	A		2·	1	2			B	C	I
		I		2·	1	2			B	C	
40	Openly praise team member performance	A		1·	4						
		I	1·	3	1				B	C	

APPENDIX J

GOALS PRIORITY SURVEY FORM

TEACHER CORPS PROJECT

GOALS PRIORITY SURVEY

NOVEMBER 30, 1972

As one who is associated with or interested in the Providence Teacher Corps Project, you are requested to review the following goal statements of the project and indicate their relative importance to you. The intent of this effort is to develop shared priorities throughout the project in terms of how the project can best use its time and energies between now and June 15, 1973. The data gathered will form the basis for the Teacher Corps Planning Workshop scheduled December , 1972.

There have been several efforts - in the past and recently - to articulate the project's goals. The goal statements set forth below represent the present perception of project goals held by the University of Massachusetts project staff. They differ from the goal statements contained in the original project proposal in two ways:

1. Some goal statements were related to only the Worcester component of the original proposal - these goal statements have been eliminated.
2. Some goal statements actually contained more than one goal - these have been broken into single goal statements for the purpose of specificity and clarity of data collection.

After you have completed the survey form, please return it by December 8 to the individual listed below who is responsible for coordinating the data returns for your area.

Providence School Dept.	-Dr. Thomas Cimino
Rhode Island College	-Dr. Walter Crocker
Corpsmembers	-Ms. Pearl Spears
Providence Community	-Ms. Louella Russell, Providence Corp.
University of Massachusetts	-Mr. Ronald Bell
Teacher Corps/Washington	-Mr. Ronald Bell

Please check those boxes which apply: I am completing this survey as a representative of -

I._____Corpsmembers

I._____Rhode Island College

I._____Providence Community

V._____Univ. of Massachusetts

_____Project Staff

_____School Administration

_____Teacher Preparation Program Council

_____Center for International Education

V._____Providence School Department

_____Central Administration

_____Principal

_____Department Head

_____Affiliate Teacher

_____Other (specify)____________________

VI._____Teacher Corps/Washington

GOALS PRIORITY SURVEY (con't) Page 2

STEP ONE: Please read the following project goal statements and indicate whether they are VERY IMPORTANT, IMPORTANT or NOT IMPORTANT TO you. If you do not understand the goal statement, please indicate this in the space provided.

GOAL STATEMENTS	VERY IMPORTANT	IMPORTANT	NOT IMPORTANT	DO NOT UNDERSTAND
OBJECTIVES FOR THE TEACHER CORPS				
A.1 To increase the Teacher Corps' ability to affect institutional change by providing working models of developed curricula in African Studies suitable for nation-wide replication				
A.2 To provide the Teacher Corps competency-based units resulting from the pilot testing of experimental performance criteria as developed by the Massachusetts Model Elementary Teacher Education Program.				
A.3 To provide the Teacher Corps developed performance criteria for Curriculum Development Specialists.				
A.4 To provide the Teacher Corps developed performance criteria for School/Community Relations Specialists.				
A.5 To provide the Teacher Corps with models of inservice teacher education that include speciality components in curriculum development.				
A.6 To provide the Teacher Corps with models of inservice teacher education that include speciality components in school/community specialists.				
A.7 To provide the Teacher Corps with competency-based modular units in the area of Human Relations suitable for a Middle School Teacher Education Program.				
A.8 To provide the Teacher Corps with competency-based modular units in the area of Behavioral Skills suitable for a Middle School Teacher Education Program.				
A.9 To provide the Teacher Corps with competency-based modular units in the area of Urban Education suitable for a Middle School Teacher Education Program.				

GOAL STATEMENTS	VERY IMPORTANT	IMPORTANT	NOT IMPORTANT	DO NOT UNDERSTAND
B. OBJECTIVES FOR PROVIDENCE SCHOOL DEPARTMENT				
B.1 To develop a refined African Studies curriculum with instructional modules including specific competencies for teachers and students suitable for use in grade six.				
B.2 To develop a refined African Studies curriculum with instructional modules including specific competencies for teachers and students suitable for use in grade eight.				
B.3 To enrich educational opportunities for urban middle school students by establishing and utilizing Social Studies Resource Centers in the Providence Middle Schools.				
B.4 To offer urban students in the Providence Middle Schools individualized learning alternatives in African Studies.				
B.5 To offer regular middle school teachers in Providence the opportunity to integrate African Studies units into their regular courses of study; e.g. an African literature unit for an English class, or an African politics unit for a history class.				
B.7 To evaluate organizational alternatives to classroom instruction in order to seek out viable differentiated staff roles for the Providence Middle Schools				
B.8 To develop an inservice education program for regular middle school social studies teachers in African Studies.				
B.9 To develop an inservice education program for regular middle school social studies teachers in the use of affective learning activities.				
B.10 To specifically develop affective learning activities in modular form in order to assist students' growth in relating to peoples and values of other cultures with direct reference to Africa.				

GOAL STATEMENTS	VERY IMPORTANT	IMPORTANT	NOT IMPORTANT	DO NOT UNDERSTAND
B.11 To specifically develop affective learning activities in modular form in order to assist teachers' growth in relating to peoples and values of other cultures with direct reference to Africa.				
B.12 To specifically develop affective learning activities in modular form in order to assist students' growth in relating to peoples and values of other cultures with direct reference to African influences in the United States.				
B.13 To specifically develop affective learning activities in modular form in order to assist teachers' growth in relating to peoples and values of other cultures with direct reference to African influences in the United States.				
B.14 To develop more alternative ways for the school system to serve their communities through community-based education projects.				
B.15 To increase the numbers of professionally trained teachers in the Providence School system from minority groups.				
C. OBJECTIVES FOR UNIVERSITY OF MASS. C.1 To develop new competency-based instructional modules in Human Relations.				
C.2 To develop new competency-based instructional modules in Urban Education				
C.3 To develop new competency-based instructional modules in Humanistic Education.				
C.4 To develop new competency-based instructional modules in Teacher Education.				

GOALS PRIORITY SURVEY (con't) Page 5

GOAL STATEMENTS	VERY IMPORTANT	IMPORTANT	NOT IMPORTANT	DO NOT UNDERSTAN
C.5 To begin implementation of the Massachusetts Model Elementary Teacher Education Program by integrating appropriate components into the preservice and inservice training of the Sixth Cycle (Teacher Corps) Project. (Since preservice and inservice are part of one training continuum in the project, this remains a single goal statement.)				
C.6 To retrain teacher education faculty in the use of competency-based modules in Human Relations.				
C.7 To retrain teacher education faculty in the use of competency-based modules in Urban Education.				
C.8 To retrain teacher education faculty in the use of competency-based modules in Humanistic Education.				
C.9 To retrain teacher education faculty in the use of competency-based modules in Teacher Education.				
C.10 To develop competency-based instructional modules in the area of community involvement for urban teachers.				
C.11 To field-test competency-based instructional modules in the area of community involvement for urban teachers.				
C.12 To develop models of teacher education for Curriculum Development Specialists.				

GOALS PRIORITY SURVEY (con't) Page 6

STEP TWO: Please list the letters of all goal statements under the appropriate categories according to how you have rated them. (Example: if you rated Goal A.1 VERY IMPORTANT, enter A.1 in the letter box provided under the column VERY IMPORTANT.)

VERY IMPORTANT

Letter	Priority

IMPORTANT

Letter	Priority

NOT IMPORTANT

Letter

GOALS PRIORITY SURVEY (con't) Page 7

STEP THREE: In the space provided below, add any goals you think the project ought to have, and enter their letters into the chart above under VERY IMPORTANT or IMPORTANT.

D.1____

D.2____

D.3____

D.4____

C.5____

STEP FOUR: Within the categories VERY IMPORTANT and IMPORTANT under STEP TWO, rank order the goal letter listings in terms of their relative importance to you (most important will be rated 1, next most important rated 2, etc.).

STEP FIVE: Please indicate the relative priority which you think should be assigned to the views expressed by each of the components of the project partnership. (Most important 1, next important 2, etc.)

_____Corpsmembers

_____Providence Community

_____Providence School Department

_____Rhode Island College

_____Teacher Corps/Washington

_____University of Massachusetts

THANK YOU

APPENDIX K

GOALS SURVEY REPORT

GOALS SURVEY REPORT

Teacher Corps Project
University of Massachusetts-Providence, R.I.

April 9, 1973

This report summarizes the results of the Goals Assessment Survey and the Goal Development Workshop undertaken by the project during last December and January of this year. The results form three categories:

A. Operational Goal Statements

The operational statements were developed through the Goal Development Workshop held last December. The statements reflect the functional agenda for the project, and operationally replace the 30-odd goal statements contained in the original project proposal.

B. Priority of Views Expressed by Project Partners (TABLE I)

TABLE I indicates the relative priority which survey respondents think should be assigned to the views expressed by each of the project's partners. The table does not establish such a priority; it only reflects the views of those responding to the survey question.

C. Summary of Goal Survey Responses (TABLE II)

TABLE II summarizes the data provided by those rating the project's initial goal statements as VERY IMPORTANT (VI), IMPORTANT (I) or NOT IMPORTANT (NI). The number of questionnaires returned is indicated for each group, the number of ratings in each category, and a mean score to determine a predominant cluster point for the ratings (e.g. a mean score of 1.7 shows a proximity to 2, indicating that the goal statement is generally IMPORTANT).

The goal statements are clustered to show their relationship to the operational statements presented in the preceding section of the report (B.). The data presented do not establish overall project priorities which are competitive with one another. More realistically, the data show explicitely (among respondents) what goals are how important to which groups.

OPERATIONAL GOAL STATEMENTS

Goal Group I: The Teacher Corps Project will provide Corpsmembers with a pre-service/inservice training program which is competency-based and modularized. The School of Education and the National Teacher Corps will be given modules developed by the project for their use in other teacher training programs.

Goal Group II: To establish and utilize Social Studies Resource Centers in the Providence Middle Schools.

Goal Group III: To develop competency-based instructional modules in the area of community involvement skills for urban teachers with performance criteria and to field-test these modules.

To develop more alternative ways for the school system to serve their communities that involves structures developed to involve the community within the school.

Goal Group IV: To increase the numbers of professionally trained teachers in the Providence School System from minority groups.

Goal Group V: To develop a satellite center which would respond to the needs of the middle school teachers and focus on African Studies implementation in the eight middle schools.

Goal Group VI: Curriculum materials in African Studies will be developed by Teacher Corps members and will be characterized by:

-- instructional modules listing specific competencies for both teachers and students at levels of grades 6 and 8

-- suitability for nation-wide replication with the intent to affect institutional change

-- individualized learning activities for urban students

-- affective learning activities in modular form that will assist students and teachers to relate to people and values of other cultures with direct reference to Africa and African influences in the U.S.A.

Goal Group VII: The Teacher Corps project will develop a set of minimal competencies for urban middle school teachers, including minimal competencies for curriculum development specialists, and provide a team model which differentiates roles according to the competencies of individual team members.

Goal Group VIII: To develop instructional modules in Humanistic Education suitable for the middle schools, and disseminate these to National Teacher Corps and Providence School Department personnel.

TABLE I

Relative priority which survey respondents think should be assigned to the views expressed by each of the components of the project.

GROUPS

RATINGS	Corps members	Prov. Comm.	Prov. Schools	RIC	TC/W	U/Mass: Proj.Staff	School of Ed.	RANK
Responses	26	5	18	3	1	3	9	
Corpsmembers	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	1
Providence Community	2	3	2	3	3	1	3	2
Providence Schools	3	1	3	1	2	3	1	2
Rhode Island College	5	4	6	4	5	4	6	4
Teacher Corps/ Washington	6	6	5	6	6	6	5	6
University of Massachusetts	4	5	4	5	4	4	4	4

SUMMARY OF VIEWS EXPRESSED:

1. The views of Corpsmembers, the Providence Community and the Providence School Department should have greater priority than the views expressed by Rhode Island College, the University of Massachusetts and Teacher Corps/Washington.

2. The views of Corpsmembers should have the greatest priority, and the views of Teacher Corps/Washington the least.

3. The views of the Providence Community and the Providence School Department are clustered in the second priority rank.

4. The views of the University of Massachusetts and Rhode Island College are clustered in the fourth priority rank.

TABLE II

SUMMARY OF SURVEY RESPONSES

GOAL STATEMENTS	Corps-members	Prov. Schools	Prov. Comm.	RIC RIC	U/Mass: Pro.Staff	School of Ed.	TC/W
Questionnaires Returned	26 of 40	18 of 30	5 of 14	3 of 5	3 of 3	9 of 20	1 of 1
Ratings	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI
Points	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1
Goal Group I							
A. 2. To provide the Teacher Corps competency-based units resulting from the pilot testing of experimental performance criteria as developed by the Massachusetts Model Elementary Education Program.	2 12 8 / 1.7	2 9 2 / 2.0	1 1 2 / 2.2	0 1 1 / 1.5	0 0 3 / 1.0	4 3 1 / 2.4	0 0 1 / 1.0
C. 5. To begin implementation of the Massachusetts Model Elementary Teacher Education Program by integrating appropriate components into the preservice and inservice training of the Sixth Cycle Teacher Corps Project.	2 16 5 / 1.9	2 3 5 / 1.3	0 2 1 / 1.7	0 0 1 / 1.0	0 0 3 / 1.0	3 3 0 / 2.5	0 0 1 / 1.0
C. 7. To retrain teacher education faculty in the use of competency-based modules in Urban Education	5 18 2 / 2.1	5 8 3 / 2.1	3 0 2 / 2.2	1 2 0 / 1.7	0 0 3 / 1.0	2 6 0 / 2.2	1 0 0 / 3.0
C. 9. To retrain teacher education faculty in the use of competency-based modules in Teacher Education.	6 18 1 / 2.2	6 7 3 / 2.2	2 1 2 / 2.0	3 0 0 / 3.0	0 1 2 / 1.3	3 3 0 / 2.5	1 0 0 / 3.0

TABLE II

SUMMARY OF SURVEY RESPONSES

	Corps-members	Prov. Schools	Prov. Comm.	RIC RIC	U/Mass: Pro.Staff	School of Ed.	TC/W
Questionnaires Returned	26 of 40	18 of 30	5 of 14	3 of 5	3 of 3	9 of 20	1 of 1
Ratings	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI
Points	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1
GOAL STATEMENTS Operational Statement for Goal Group I: The Teacher Corps Project will provide Corpsmembers with a preservice/inservice training program which is competency-based and modularized. The School of Education and the National Teacher Corps will be given modules developed by the project for their use in other teacher training programs.							
Goal Group II B. 3. To enrich educational opportunities for urban middle school students by establishing and utilizing Social Studies Resource Centers in the Providence Middle Schools.	14 7 6 2.3	11 6 1 2.6	3 2 0 2.2	2 1 0 2.7	0 0 3 1.0	6 1 1 2.6	0 1 0 2.0
Operational Statement for Goal Group II: To establish and utilize Social Studies Resource Centers in the Providence Middle Schools.							

TABLE II

SUMMARY OF SURVEY RESPONSES

	Corps-members	Prov. Schools	Prov. Comm.	RIC RIC	U/Mass: Pro.Staff	School of Ed.	TC/K
Questionnaires Returned	26 of 40	18 of 30	5 of 14	3 of 5	3 of 3	9 of 20	1 of 1
Ratings	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI
Points	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1
GOAL STATEMENTS							
Goal Group III							
A. 4. To provide the Teacher Corps developed performance criteria for School/Community Relations Specialists.	9 10 4 2.4	3 9 5 1.9	3 2 1 2.6	1 2 0 1.7	0 2 1 1.7	5 2 0 2.7	0 1 0 2.0
A. 6. To provide the Teacher Corps with models of inservice teacher education that include specialty components on School/Community Relations Specialists.	11 15 0 2.4	5 7 5 2.0	4 1 0 2.8	1 2 0 1.7	0 2 1 2.0	5 2 0 2.9	0 1 0 2.0
A. 9. To provide the Teacher Corps with competency-based modular units in the area of Urban Education suitable for a Middle School Teacher Education Program.	10 13 1 2.4	9 8 1 2.4	3 2 0 2.6	2 1 0 2.7	0 0 2 1.0	5 3 0 2.6	0 1 0 2.0
B.14. To develop more alternative ways for the school system to serve its communities through community based education projects.	18 6 2 2.6	4 9 4 2.0	5 0 0 3.0	1 2 0 1.7	2 1 0 2.7	7 2 0 2.8	0 1 0 2.0

TABLE II

SUMMARY OF SURVEY RESPONSES

	Corps-members	Prov. Schools	Prov. Comm.	RIC RIC	U/Mass: Pro.Staff	School of Ed.	TC/W
Questionnaires Returned	26 of 40	18 of 30	5 of 14	3 of 5	3 of 3	9 of 20	1 of 1
Ratings	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI
Points	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1
GOAL STATEMENTS							
C. 2. To develop new competency-based instructional modules in Urban Education.	8 13 2 2.3	4 8 3 2.1	2 2 1 2.2	1 2 0 1.7	0 1 2 1.3	4 4 0 2.5	0 1 0 2.0
C.10. To develop competency-based instructional modules in the area of community involvement for urban teachers.	8 17 1 2.3	6 7 2 2.3	3 1 1 2.4	1 2 0 1.7	1 0 2 1.7	4 2 0 2.7	0 1 0 2.0
C.11. To field-test competency-based instructional modules in the area of community involvement for urban teachers.	6 15 3 2.1	5 8 2 2.2	3 2 0 2.6	1 2 0 1.7	0 1 2 1.3	5 1 0 2.8	0 1 0 2.0
Operational Statement for Goal Group III: To develop competency-based instructional modules in the area of community involvements skills for urban teachers with performance criteria and to feild-test these modules							

TABLE II

SUMMARY OF SURVEY RESPONSES

	Corps-members	Prov. Schools	Prov. Comm.	RIC RIC	U/Mass: Pro.Staff	School of Ed.	TC/W
Questionnaires Returned	26 of 40	18 of 30	5 of 14	3 of 5	3 of 3	9 of 20	1 of 1
Ratings	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI
Points	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1
GOAL STATEMENTS							
Goal Group IV							
B.15. To increase the numbers of professionally trained teachers in the Providence School System from minority groups.	23 3 0 2.5	8 7 1 2.4	3 1 0 2.8	2 1 0 2.7	3 0 0 3.0	6 3 0 2.7	0 1 0 2.0
Operational Statement for Goal Group IV: (same)							
Goal Group V							
B. 5. To offer regular middle school teachers in Providence the opportunity to integrate African Studies into their regular courses of study.	16 10 0 2.6	10 8 0 2.6	4 0 1 2.6	2 1 0 2.7	3 0 0 3.0	5 2 1 2.5	0 1 0 2.0
B. 8. To develop an inservice education program for regular middle school social studies teachers in African Studies.	16 8 3 2.5	6 8 4 2.1	3 1 1 2.4	0 3 0 2.0	2 1 0 2.7	5 3 0 2.6	0 1 0 2.0

TABLE II

SUMMARY OF SURVEY RESPONSES

	Corps-members	Prov. Schools	Prov. Comm.	RIC RIC	U/Mass: Pro.Staff	School of Ed.	TC/W
Questionnaires Returned	26 of 40	18 of 30	5 of 14	3 of 5	3 of 3	9 of 20	1 of 1
Ratings	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI
Points	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1
GOAL STATEMENTS							
B. 9. To develop an inservice education program for regular middle school social studies teachers in the use of affective learning activities.	13 8 4 2.4	13 4 1 2.7	3 1 1 2.4	3 0 0 3.0	2 1 0 2.7	7 1 0 2.9	0 1 0 2.0
Operational Statement for Goal Group V: To develop a satellite center which would respond to the needs of the middle school teachers and focus on African Studies implementation in the eight middle schools.							
Goal Group VI							
A. 1. To increase the Teacher Corps' ability to affect institutional change by providing working models of developed curricula in African Studies suitable for nation-wide replication.	13 10 2 2.4	8 7 2 2.4	2 2 1 2.2	0 3 0 2.0	0 0 3 1.0	5 4 0 2.6	0 1 0 2.0
B. 1. To develop a refined African Studies curriculum with instructional modules including specific competencies for teachers and students suitable for use in grade six.	19 7 0 2.7	12 5 1 2.6	2 1 2 2.0	1 2 0 1.7	1 1 1 2.0	3 5 1 2.2	1 0 0 3.0

TABLE II

SUMMARY OF SURVEY RESPONSES

	Corps-members	Prov. Schools	Prov. Comm.	RIC RIC	U/Mass: Pro.Staff	School of Ed.	TC/W
Questionnaires Returned	26 of 40	18 of 30	5 of 14	3 of 5	3 of 3	9 of 20	1 of 1
Ratings	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI
Points	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1
GOAL STATEMENTS							
B. 2. To develop a refined African Studies curriculum with instructional modules including specific competencies for teachers and students suitable for use in grade eight.	9 8 8 2.0	4 7 6 1.9	1 2 2 1.8	0 3 0 2.0	1 0 2 1.7	3 4 1 2.4	0 0 1 1.0
B. 4. To offer urban students in the Providence middle schools individualized learning alternatives in African Studies.	18 5 2 2.6	11 6 1 2.6	3 1 1 2.4	0 3 0 2.0	3 0 0 3.0	6 2 0 2.8	0 1 0 2.0
B.10. To specifically develop affective learning activities in modular form in order to assist students' growth in relating to peoples and values of other cultures with direct reference to Africa.	18 6 2 2.6	13 4 1 2.7	2 0 3 1.8	1 2 0 1.7	2 1 0 2.7	8 0 1 2.8	0 0 1 1.0
B.11. To specifically develop affective learning activities in modular form in order to assist teachers' growth in relating to peoples and values of other cultures with direct reference to Africa.	15 10 1 2.6	11 4 2 2.5	1 2 2 1.8	1 2 0 1.7	2 1 0 2.7	3 1 0 2.9	0 1 0 2.0

TABLE II

SUMMARY OF SURVEY RESPONSES

	Corps-members	Prov. Schools	Prov. Comm.	RIC RIC	U/Mass: Pro.Staff	School of Ed.	TC/W
Questionnaires Returned	26 of 40	18 of 30	5 of 14	3 of 5	3 of 3	9 of 20	1 of 1
Ratings	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI 1 NI
Points	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1
GOAL STATEMENTS							
B.12. To specifically develop affective learning activities in modular form in order to assist students' growth in relating to peoples and values of other cultures with direct reference to African influences in the U.S.	16 9 1 2.6	12 6 0 2.6	1 3 1 2.0	1 2 0 1.7	2 1 0 2.7	6 2 0 2.8	0 0 1 1.0
B.13. To specifically develop affective learning activities in modular form in order to assist teachers' growth in relating to peoples and values of other cultures with direct reference to African influences in the U.S.	14 10 2 2.5	10 6 1 2:5	2 2 1 2.2	2 1 0 2.7	2 1 0 2.7	6 2 0 2.8	0 1 0 2.0

Operational Statement for Goal Group VI:

Curriculum materials in African Studies will be developed by Teacher Corps members and will be characterized by:
- -- instructional modules listing specific competencies for both teachers and students at levels of grades 6 and 8
- -- suitability for nation-wide replication with the intent to affect institutional change
- -- individualized learning activities for urban students
- -- affective learning activities in modular form that will assist students and teachers to realte to peoples and values of other cultures with direct reference to Africa and African influences in the U.S.

TABLE II

SUMMARY OF SURVEY RESPONSES

GOAL STATEMENTS	Corps-members	Prov. Schools	Prov. Comm.	RIC RIC	U/Mass: Pro.Staff	School of Ed.	TC/W
Questionnaires Returned	26 of 40	18 of 30	5 of 14	3 of 5	3 of 3	9 of 20	1 of 1
Ratings	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI
Points	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1
Goal Group VII							
A. 3. To provide the Teacher Corps developed performance criteria for Curriculum Development Specialists.	5 15 4 2.0	6 7 4 2.1	2 3 0 2.4	1 2 0 1.7	0 1 2 1.3	2 5 1 2.1	0 1 0 2.0
A. 5. To provide the Teacher Corps with models of inservice teacher education that include specialty components in curriculum development.	10 15 1 2.3	7 9 2 2.3	2 3 0 2.4	2 1 0 2.7	1 0 2 1.7	7 2 0 2.8	0 1 0 2.0
B. 7. To evaluate organizational alternatives to classroom instruction in order to seek out viable differentiated staff roles for the Providence middle schools.	6 14 4 2.1	8 7 2 2.3	2 2 0 2.5	2 1 0 2.7	3 0 0 3.0	3 6 0 2.3	1 0 0 3.0
C. 4. To develop new competency-based instructional modules in Teacher Education.	9 15 2 2.3	7 5 [illegible] 2.[illegible]	1 2 2 1.8	2 1 0 2.7	0 [illegible] 2 1.3	[illegible] [illegible] 0 2.5	1 0 0 3.0
C.12. To develop models of teacher education for Curriculum Development Specialists.	5 20 1 2.2	5 8 2 2.2	2 2 1 2.2	1 2 0 1.7	0 1 2 1.3	3 3 0 2.5	1 0 0 3.0

TABLE II

SUMMARY OF SURVEY RESPONSES

	Corps-members	Prov. Schools	Prov. Comm.	RIC RIC	U/Mass: Pro.Staff	School of Ed.	TC/W
Questionnaires Returned	26 of 40	18 of 30	5 of 14	3 of 5	3 of 3	9 of 20	1 of 1
Ratings	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI
Points	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1
GOAL STATEMENTS							
Operational Statement for Goal Group VII:							
The Teacher Corps project will develop a set of minimal competencies for urban middle school teachers, including minimal competencies for curriculum development specialists, and provide a team model which differentiates roles, according to the competencies of individual team members.							
Goal Group VIII							
A. 7. To provide the Teacher Corps with competency-based modular units in the area of Human Relations suitable for a middle school teacher education program.	10 12 3 2.3	9 8 0 2.5	3 2 0 2.6	2 1 0 2.7	1 0 2 1.7	5 3 0 2.6	0 1 0 2.0
A. 8. To provide the Teacher Corps with competency-based modular units in the area of behavioral Skills suitable for a middle school teacher education program.	11 11 3 [illegible]	5 8 1 2.4	0 5 0 2.0	2 0 0 3.0	0 0 2 1.0	[illegible] 3 1 2.3	0 0 [illegible] 1.0
C. 1. To develop new competency-based instructional modules in Human Relations.	5 15 4 2.0	4 9 2 2.1	3 1 1 2.4	0 3 0 2.0	0 1 2 1.3	4 5 0 2.4	0 1 0 2.0

TABLE II

SUMMARY OF SURVEY RESPONSES

	Corps-members	Prov. Schools	Prov. Comm.	RIC	U/Mass: Pro.Staff	School of Ed.	TC/N
Questionnaires Returned	26 of 40	18 of 30	5 of 14	3 of 5	3 of 3	9 of 20	1 of 1
Ratings	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI	VI I NI
Points	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1	3 2 1
GOAL STATEMENTS							
C. 3. To develop new competency-based instructional modules in Humanistic Education.	8 11 4 2.2	5 7 2 2.2	3 1 1 2.4	1 2 0 1.7	0 1 2 1.3	3 5 0 2.4	0 1 0 2.0
C. 6. To retrain teacher education faculty in the use of competency-based modules in Human Relations.	6 13 5 2.0	3 9 4 2.0	3 1 1 2.4	1 2 0 1.7	0 0 3 1.0	2 4 0 2.4	1 0 0 3.0
C. 8. To retrain teacher education faculty in the use of competency-based modules in Humanistic Education.	7 11 4 2.1	4 8 3 2.1	3 1 1 2.4	1 2 0 1.7	0 0 3 1.0	2 4 0 2.4	1 0 0 3.0
Operational Statement for Goal Group VIII: To develop instructional modules in Humanistic Education suitable for the middle schools, and disseminate these to National Teacher Corps and Providence School Department personnel.							