Choice in public high schools: options as a management strategy for large urban high schools.

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CHOICE IN PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS: OPTIONS AS A MANAGEMENT STRATEGY FOR LARGE URBAN HIGH SCHOOLS

A Dissertation Presented
By
ROBERT STEPHEN PETERKIN

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

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School of Education
CHOICE IN PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS: OPTIONS AS A MANAGEMENT STRATEGY FOR LARGE URBAN HIGH SCHOOLS

A Dissertation Presented

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ABSTRACT

CHOICE IN PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS: OPTIONS AS A MANAGEMENT STRATEGY FOR LARGE URBAN HIGH SCHOOLS
(February 1981)


Directed by: Professor Byrd L. Jones

This dissertation focuses on the role of the administrator in the development of alternative programs within large urban high schools. The concept of alternatives is offered as one solution to the lack of choice and power experienced by students and school personnel. The administrative role is examined for the impact and value of charisma and organizational management on leadership.

The role of the administrator in the creation of an environment conducive to the development of alternative programs is explored in terms of adapting the school site for change strategies. Areas of concern include broad-based decision-making, role expectations, collaborative arrangements with outside agencies, school district politics and prevalent forms of alternative programs.
The development of alternative programs, the creation of a supportive atmosphere and the role of leadership in educational change are demonstrated in the case studies of the Street Academy of Albany and the English High School of Boston. Background information has been derived from the author's experiences and school documents.

The examination of the leadership role for administrators in the development of options points to the need for both charisma and formal organizational management theories in the creation of viable educational change. The evidence points to the value of a balance of these leadership approaches in rendering institutional and personal change.
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INTRODUCTION

Since the end of World War II, high schools in urban America have evolved into increasingly larger and more complex social and educational environments. The raising of national educational expectations, growth of the student population, increased construction costs, land/site unavailability in urban areas and the "bigger the better" syndrome have all contributed to this growth. The construction of massive educational plants with capacities for thousands of students has effectively supplanted the building of medium sized facilities designed for 700 - 750.¹ Many large urban centers (and regionalized districts in less populous areas) construct high schools intended to serve 2,000 - 5,000 students. Boston, for example, has recently built three new high schools; two of them, The Boston English and West Roxbury high schools, have over 2,000 students. The third, the Madison Park-Occupational Resource Center complex, will eventually house 5,500 students. New York built Tottenville High School on

Staten Island to serve 5,500 students. Brockton High School in Massachusetts, with a population of 5,700 students recently became the largest school in the East.

Most adolescent children in the United States, therefore, attend large urban high schools. Some three-quarters of all Americans live in metropolitan areas, and one-third live in inner cities. Most urban schools possess the physical resources to educate their students, reasons for any failure to achieve that purpose must lie in another direction.

An increase in the size of physical plants and student populations has not produced a corresponding increase in the effectiveness of the educational process. Many urban secondary students become disenchanted with and alienated from the mainstream of public education and grow increasingly disillusioned with large, impersonal schools. Statistics from such schools show an increase in suspensions and expulsions by school personnel; many students are simply being abandoned. Absenteeism in America's urban high schools has risen to 25 percent with an increase on Mondays and Fridays—those days now being seen by many urban students as part of the weekend.

Why then did urban school boards build these schools? In addition to the reasons previously stated (cost, space, etc.) large facilities can more readily sustain curricular and extra curricular programs and have
an economy of size which smaller facilities are incapable of supporting for students. Science and language laboratories, physical education facilities, libraries, radio stations, art studios and other expensive resources can be centralized in large urban schools. Cost-effectiveness is achieved by the larger numbers of students who use these resources as compared with the level of the local tax dollars which support their existence.

Urban comprehensive high schools generally maintain four basic courses or programs in an attempt to be "all things to all people": college preparatory, business, vocational and general. The latter course is not really a program at all but rather a placeholder for those students not readily adaptable to any of the three main courses. In many instances a general diploma certifies little more than attendance.

These courses of study do not begin to approach the myriad needs, interest or abilities of contemporary students. Yet there has been little positive change in the last several decades. Even those who have attempted change have been influenced by an anachronistic educational attitude--that of believing in the one best answer. Gentry and others have found that:

Education reformers in great variety have proposed some single panaceas for urban schools. In addition to recommendations for more money or new administrators, proposed solutions have focused on school
structures, curriculum, staffing and teaching, and governance. Each may, in fact, have something important to contribute to the reforming of urban education, but none alone offers salvation.\(^2\)

Since the turn of the twentieth century, the promise of a high school education has been extended to all young people. In 1910, 35 percent of American adolescents attended public secondary schools. By 1960, that figure rose to 70 percent and by 1970 90 percent.\(^3\) This trend, coupled with the migration to urban areas encouraged the development of larger schools.

In his study of *The American High School Today* (1959) James Conant espoused large comprehensive high schools and assigned as his top priority the elimination of small school buildings.\(^4\) Small high schools could not possibly offer programs for the full range of its student body--broad general offerings, programs for the academically talented and vocational education. One of the most respected educators in America, Conant's advocacy of large comprehensive high schools undoubtedly lent impetus to the "bigger is better" syndrome in America's urban schools.


\(^4\)Ibid., p. 37.
The Report on the Panel on Youth (of the President's Science Advisory Committee, 1972), chaired by James Coleman traced similar patterns of growth. According to the Report the number of 17 year old youngsters to graduate from high school rose from 6.4 percent in 1900 to 62.3 percent in 1956; the percentage of young people aged 14-17 in school increased from 15 percent in 1915 to 80 percent in 1940.\(^5\) Mass education had encouraged large scale organization. Smaller schools and districts were consolidated into larger entities while large schools and districts became larger. In this fashion, it was hoped that students and taxpayers could take advantage of economics of scale and the ability to specialize.\(^6\)

The Coleman Panel concluded, however, that this push for larger institutions became dysfunctional in current times:

> The problem is most acute when a single form, the public high school, attempts single handedly to meet the necessary spread of group demands and cultural tasks. But a variety of needs can only be served by a variety of institutions. . . . There are limits on how comprehensive any educational organization can be without blandness eroding all


\(^6\)Ibid., pp. 77-85.
sense of purpose and enterprise. 7

Poor students especially have identification problems with schools which attempt to reflect the attitudes of the average student (white, middle class). Ironically, such students no longer attend urban schools in large numbers, choosing instead suburban, private or parochial schools. The "white flight" documented during the 1950's and 1960's continues, and in most large urban areas minority children are now the majority constituency in the public schools. However, these schools resist changing their curriculum and relationship to students and parents.

This dissertation will show how administrators in large urban high schools may reduce the impersonality and alienation felt by students and teachers through alternative programs. Administrators have primary responsibility for promoting an atmosphere for the development of options by their constituents, parents, students and teachers.

Alternative programs within urban high schools will be presented as one strategy among many for the resolution of some of the problems in urban high schools. Teachers and students must exercise some power over their lives and futures as well as choice of programmatic

7Ibid., p. 90.
approach to the educational process. The concepts of power and choice will be examined for their importance in developing relevant educational programs of quality.

The dissertation will use both an analytical approach and the case study method. This hybrid approach allows the author to present information in a fashion which will be of practical value to prospective administrators. These potential leaders are making the transition from classrooms, department chairmanships, guidance positions and leadership roles in small programs or schools, some of which may be alternative.

The author's experiences as building administrator with alternative programs at the Street Academy of Albany in Albany, New York and the English High School in Boston, Massachusetts will be discussed as relevant cases of successful options developed within the structure of urban public school systems. The programs convinced the author that options enable educators to incorporate and synthesize viable innovations within urban high schools.

Leadership styles of administrators will be examined for impact upon the development of options. A small setting such as Street Academy of Albany demonstrated to the author the value of charisma in the development of innovations, supportive atmosphere and an aura of humanistic
education. The move from a small to large setting (English High School) was accompanied by a rejection of charisma as an administrative device in a move toward a more structured, or bureaucratic, approach to the development of alternative programs. The rejection was due to a need to institutionalize options along more formal lines. In the move from the small to large setting, charisma was felt to be insufficient to produce success in large urban high schools.

After almost four years, the author left English High School and had the opportunity to reflect on the value of charisma versus organizational development. While the power of charisma may be diminished in a larger setting, the use of personal power can be valuable in the development and sustenance of alternative programs. Additionally, little evidence exists that bureaucratic devices have had much positive impact or reform in large urban high schools. This dissertation will examine the essential conflict between the administrator's use of charisma or personal power and more formal methods of organizational development in the process of innovative change.
Regardless of administrative approach to change, alternative programs offer students and teachers real choices, rather than a uniform approach which is increasingly out of date, without significant upheaval or disruption in the schools.
CHAPTER I

THE LACK OF CHOICE IN URBAN PUBLIC SCHOOLS: THE UNMANAGEABLE NATURE OF "THE ONE BEST SYSTEM"

What is a "Good" Urban High School?

Generally, certain criteria should be satisfied if "good" urban high schools are to meet the diverse needs of their communities. Schools serve several different functions for the various segments of the community and growth of individual students. These functions can be summarized in five categories:

1. Academic. The cognitive process is the means by which students acquire skills for future schooling or employment. Cognitive skills--including language arts, computation, arts, humanities, social and physical science, foreign languages, business and vocational preparation and physical education and life sports--prepare students for adulthood.

2. Social. The affective curriculum, both formal and informal, should enable students to sustain a healthy self-image and a feeling of control over their lives and futures. The ability to develop healthy interpersonal relationships with peers and adults can be fostered in the schools via classes, small groups, clubs, teams and
student-adult contacts.

3. Economic. Society, the business community in particular, benefits enormously when schools develop individuals who can function as productive citizens and capable workers. The business community feels that students should be prepared for entry level job placement upon graduation from high school (so that business can avoid expensive on-the-job training).

4. Democratic. Schools are mandated to train their students to be responsible citizens by teaching United States history and the principles of American democracy.

5. Structural (facility). Schools often provide a physical facility which has meaning beyond the people and programs they house. To many in the community, schools are a symbol of commitment to their children; to the children they are often a "home away from home" which provides an important stability in their lives.

Students are affected directly by these institutional functions and impacted negatively if their schools fail to fulfill the mandate of any of them (though some may play more important roles than others and emphases may shift according to societal demand). Parents and community invest heavily in their schools, both economically and emotionally, and have placed increasing emphasis on the role of
the schools as other socializing agents lessen their impact on adolescents, such as the church, scout groups, boy's clubs and other human service agencies.

The schools also carry the aspirations of those who work in them and "good" schools should have the responsibility of fostering the development of teachers and other school personnel. In urban high schools, teachers are commonly frustrated by declining conditions for effective teaching and they must allow or foster opportunities for professional development which will expand their capabilities and enhance their feelings of self-worth and power.

There have been many attempts to determine what constitutes a "good" school. Most secondary schools in this country seek certification from one of the independent accrediting bodies licensed by the United States Office of Education. These agencies typically develop standards of membership on which are based the evaluation design used to examine academic programs and atmosphere within a geographical region such as the New England Association of Schools and Colleges (NEASC). The evaluation design used by NEASC consists of twelve standards of membership applied to all secondary schools--urban, suburban and rural, large and small, traditional and alternative. Using these criteria, schools are evaluated not by comparison
with each other but on their ability to meet stated goals. This process is reasonably objective and can be used to examine the tangible evidence which indicates a "good" school (although NEASC does not use categories such as "good" or "bad"; schools are either worthy or unworthy of accreditation). According to the NEASC standards for membership, a good school should demonstrate the following attributes:

1. The school shall have a clearly stated educational philosophy which shall be supported by definitely stated objectives designed to meet the needs of the students and community served.

2. The school shall have a carefully planned program of studies and activities consistent with its stated philosophy and objectives.

3. The school shall have an organized and coordinated guidance service to aid students in meeting educational, vocational, health, moral, social, civic and personal problems.

4. The school shall have a library, which is the center for resource materials for every aspect of the school program.

5. The school shall have a professional staff, well qualified in character, health, and personality and competent in various educational and related services.

6. An adequate system of student records and of permanent files shall be safely maintained.

7. The principal or headmaster, although accountable to higher authorities, shall be the responsible head and professional leader of the school.

8. The plant and equipment shall be adequate for the program of the school and shall be operated to assure the safety and health of the students, faculty
and non-professional staff.

9. School and community relations are of such importance in the development of a good secondary school that an appropriate system for promoting effective relations between school and community shall be maintained and constantly improved.

10. Financial support of the school shall be adequate to sustain the educational program—including activities—consistent with the philosophy and objectives of the school and with the standards of the NEASC.

11. The school shall have an appropriate intellectual atmosphere which indicates that an effective educational program prevails.8

Schools found worthy of accreditation are still often found to be lacking in the provision for all their students' needs. Typically, non-academic (non-college-bound) students are underserved with programs or resources. These students are also those who often have least control over their lives or educational programs. Traditionally they are poor and minority. They may be in a vocational or business program or may lack direction or purpose and therefore be in particular need of a relevant educational experience. Since other students do have programs which meet their academic needs, little or no planning takes place to expand offerings to include all students.

A "good" school should offer more than the criteria established by NEASC. Such a school must examine the

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needs of its underserved students and develop a method for meeting their needs. Building administrators, as educational leaders, have the responsibility of using their leadership role to motivate the school community to work together in the development of programs for all students. Teachers and students should take pride in themselves and in their ability to direct programs of their own creation subject to school or community guidelines. Programs and relationships should be developed such that 1) students can acquire skills for future endeavors and the power to use these skills to achieve their goals, and 2) teachers can feel a sense of purpose and control in their professional lives. Building administrators should expect to lead, but not control, their constituents in a quest for relevant education.

A "good" school, therefore, is one where there exists a multiplicity of teaching approaches, diverse programmatic designs, significant opportunities for student-teacher contact and a sharing of decision-making power. There are few, if any, schools where all these conditions, combined with the standard accrediting characteristics, exist or are anticipated. Apparently four major factors inhibit urban high schools in particular, if not all high schools in general, from becoming "good" schools:
1. Size. Growth in the size and capacity of many urban high schools focused more attention and effort on maintenance of the institution rather than a revitalization of the educational program for students.

2. "One Best System". School professionals hinder the improvement of the educational delivery system by relying on historical perspectives and practices which have been considered successful in the past. This "one best system" concept assumes that students generally have identical learning styles and that these styles do not change from generation to generation.

This approach/attitude has also been used to perpetuate race and class discrimination in American society. As a vehicle for the middle and professional classes, schools, as Michael Katz indicates, "... may actually have served as a social sorting device, limiting rather than promoting mobility." 9 This system devalued the culture and experience of immigrant ethnic minorities and was clearly not meant to be inclusive of black children.

3. Role Expectations. The expectation of certain role identities and behaviors among teachers, students, parents and administrators may tend to thwart the

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development of relationships and programs.

4. Isolation. Operating like a closed society, schools have isolated themselves from criticism and corrective feedback, thus becoming increasingly self-serving and dysfunctional.

The Economy of Size vs. the Advantages of Smallness

The size to large urban high schools does have some advantages, however, including:

1. Special Resources. Large schools are able to provide facilities and resources normally unavailable to or uneconomical for smaller schools. A school of 3,000 - 5,000 students can provide, on a cost-effective basis, swimming pools, media centers, performing and fine arts complexes, language laboratories and other expensive resources. Large schools can also provide unique human resources which are generally unavailable to smaller settings, such as famous guest speakers, artists-in-residence, musical shows and dramatic presentations.

2. Efficient Management. Resources for students can be more efficiently managed in a large building than in several small ones.

3. Racial Balance. With the advent of larger urban high schools there are fewer schools in urban areas. Declining student enrollments and "white flight" have made
desegregation of schools difficult under any circumstances. Large urban high schools have the capacity for assignment of students on a racially and sexually desegregated basis. This desegregation would be impossible if the same student population were assigned to several smaller schools given residential patterns and neighborhood schools. Additional possibilities exist for the assignment of bilingual and special needs students on a cluster basis where they can be centrally provided the specialized services they require.

4. Comprehensive Education. The physical facilities and other resources of large urban schools enable them to offer an extensive array of major courses. These "majors" provide students with some options for study within the traditional setting, and they have unique facilities and teachers with diverse backgrounds. Students who wish to major in science, for example, may utilize the extensive laboratory facilities in many larger schools. The programs and facilities are integral to a comprehensive curriculum in urban high schools but have failed to retain urban students in the schools because these resources have not been utilized to create relevant educational programs nor to humanize the schools themselves.
Large urban high schools are struggling with the problem of effectively managing educational programs on a comprehensive scale. Administrators in large secondary schools have discovered that as high schools increase dramatically in size and students, they can no longer operate on the basis of traditional patterns of administration. Many line administrators lack adequate academic or experiential background to cope with large institutions. Management-oriented principals face difficulties in responding to students of various ethnic backgrounds and multiplicity of experiences and needs. Humanistic administrators face a different problem. They may relate to diverse groups of students yet still lack the managerial skills to provide effective administration in a large facility.

As schools have grown larger and class size has increased, much of the traditional curriculum has become irrelevant to the needs of the contemporary student. Student-teacher and student-student relationships have become more impersonal. George Von Hilsheimer accurately described this plight:

The structure we are stuck with at the present time was designed for the mass education of an illiterate, poor, and educationally well-motivated population. Today, on the other hand they are serving a literate, affluent population conditioned
to entertainment and advertising in a community-less society.

Von Hilsheimer further stated that:

The key problem with the mass schools today is that they exacerbate the poverty of real persons in a child's life. (The child) is never treated as an individual and has no continuing relationships with the adults there who are the only transmitters of culture.10

Since neither teachers nor available resources were used to humanize large urban high schools, students in many urban areas began to humanize these institutions themselves. In the late 1960s and early 1970s student riots, walk-outs, building takeovers and demands upon teachers and administrators may be seen as a reaction by students to dehumanizing structures of urban schools. Although these types of expressions were seen with less frequency in the last half of the 1970s, perhaps due to minor accommodation and reforms by schools, the end of the hated Vietnam War or civil rights gains, students continue to fight back by vandalizing the schools. Estimates show that in 1977, the cost of vandalism approached $600,000,000 nationwide.11 Students who spray-paint their

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names on walls and break windows and equipment may be seen, quite apart from their criminal intent, as establishing their identity and "turf" in an otherwise alien environment. The building may no longer be in decent shape, but at least it is theirs.

In *Power and the Structure of Society*, James Coleman examined the impact the creation of large bureaucracies has in the psyches of private individuals. Coleman posited that as individuals relinquished much of the control of the educational process to school systems or "corporate actors", they felt a loss of power. School professionals operated the schools according to their own agenda rather than that of the public. "The interest of the corporate actors as actors, as evidenced in the actions of school administrators, have been primarily to maintain organizational order and equilibrium."¹² Likewise in schools, individuals gave their resources to corporate actors and felt a subsequent lack of control. Coleman added that, "...the subjective sense of control that persons feel is very important to their psychological well-being."¹³ As school bureaucracies grow larger and more impersonal, students have predictably experienced feelings of powerlessness and


¹³Ibid.
alienation.

In their study of the impact of high school size on student behavior Barker and Gump discovered that the larger a high school, the lower the quality of student participation. They concluded that, "What seems to happen is that as schools get larger and settings inevitably become more heavily populated, more of the students are less needed; they become superfluous, redundant."\(^{14}\) This contrasts with Conant's contention that small schools, with inadequate resources, restricted students' academic growth. Although small schools can be as alienating as larger schools, the smaller situation may lend itself to change more readily than large bureaucratic structures.

The Coleman Panel concurred with Barker and Gump, recommending that the size of schools be reduced. Youth in larger schools were found to be more passive than their counterparts in smaller schools. In larger schools students participated less in group activities or led school activities. In addition, schools with more than 500 students, teachers do not know the names of all their students, while in schools with over 1,000 students, the principal cannot

tell if a student belongs to the school (by facial recognition). The Panel recommended that substructures in large high schools would "encourage the personal interaction of adults in the school with youth, as a set of personal resources on which youth can draw in times of difficulty."

Reactions of the 1960s

Some students go outside the public system to alternative schools--semi-private institutions which were developed during the fervor of the late 1960s. Mario Fantini accurately portrayed the attractiveness for some students and teachers of these schools:

They ... departed from established procedures by assuming a more flexible stance that advocated expanding the boundaries of schooling to include the community and its resources, establishing smaller educational units to humanize the experience for those involved and relating educational experience to the life of the community.

Fantini further explained the defection of students during the 1960s:

15 Coleman, Youth-Transition, p. 152.

16 Ibid., p. 147.

Another social trend that continues to contribute to alternative education is the so-called counterculture movement. Viewing public schools as repressive and authoritarian institutions reflecting the deteriorating values to the dominant society, members of the counterculture have attempted to sponsor alternative institutions that are free to develop new learning environments that are personally liberating and geared to individual and group lifestyles.

Alternative schools, however, have proved to be a limited solution to the problem posed by large urban high schools. These alternatives are few in number (Fantini estimates fewer than 400, generally serving less than 100 students each), with many more elementary models than secondary ones. They have been beset with scant financing and inadequate facilities. Finally, the counterculture movement has waned, and been replaced by more conservative trends. While alternative schools educate a few thousand students, millions continue to be ill-served by public schools.

A serious drawback of independent alternatives is their inability to provide many of the necessary components of a comprehensive education. Often located in storefronts and other antiquated facilities, urban alternatives seldom are able to provide gymasia, libraries, science laboratories, business equipment or adequate classroom space.

18 Ibid., pp. 4-5.
Lack of facilities was often promoted under the guise of innovation. At the Street Academy of Albany, New York, the program was described as:

a non-graded school which uses the city as a significant portion of its curriculum and classroom.

... a storefront or an on-the-street facility more inviting to students for whom the lure of the streets is greater than that of the school.\(^{19}\)

Street Academy students had physical education once a week at a community center, travelled to the local state university for laboratory science and to IBM offices for business courses. Regular classes were held in a variety of private and public buildings throughout the downtown business area.

The Street Academy of Albany serves as an example of a small (100 - 150 students) independent alternative high school situated in an urban area. Originally funded by the business community and private individuals, Street Academy became the first alternative school in New York to be funded under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, Title III, Department of Health, Education and Welfare.

A viable alternative both within and without the public school system, Street Academy was incorporated into the

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\(^{19}\)Mary Ellen Harmon and Robert S. Peterkin, Street Academy of Albany, ESEA Title III, Proj. No. 42-72-1107, October, 1972.

The Evolution of "The One Best System"

The reliance on one method for the education of all high school students has hampered the emergence of effective strategies operating from different perspectives. David Tyack, in *The One Best System*, accurately depicted this problem and others that have contributed to the plight of urban education:

The search for the one best system has ill-served the pluralistic character of American society. Increasing bureaucratization of urban schools has often resulted in a displacement of goals and has often perpetuated positions and outworn practices rather than serving the clients, the children to be taught. Despite frequent good intentions and abundant rhetoric about "equal educational opportunity," schools have rarely taught the children of the poor effectively—and this failure has been systematic, not idiosyncratic. Talk about "keeping the schools out of politics" has often served to obscure actual alignments of power and patterns of social injustice by blaming the victim, particularly in the case of institutional racism.20

Tyack credited John D. Philbrick with the creation of the one best system approach. As villages grew into towns and then cities, the new breed of school managers attempted to consolidate and centralize educational systems. Philbrick stated that the job of these managers

was to perfect the system and ignore the criticisms that this management approach placed organizational structure before education of students. Philbrick's theory was simple—that there was one best way of educating urban children everywhere.\(^{21}\)

Advocates of a systemization of education were in fact replacing the democratic structures of village schools with bureaucracies felt to be more compatible with increasing urbanization. The one best system was to be patterned after the successful example of private industry and analogies to the "modern" industrial setting were commonplace (without the negative connotations which they would elicit today).\(^{22}\) Ties between modern industrial society and the attempts to standardize the schools were strong. Schools prepared students for their place in industry by teaching them a sense of order, punctuality, regular attendance habits and loyalty. Educators saw those traits as particularly important for lower class students to succeed in the industrial setting.\(^{23}\)

The bureaucratic procedure implicit in the one best system spread rapidly during the latter half of the

\(^{21}\)Ibid., p. 39.

\(^{22}\)Ibid., pp. 41-2.

\(^{23}\)Ibid., p. 55.
nineteenth century as superintendents of schools from large cities across the nation formed organizations and exchanged opinions and research. Nathan Bishop of Boston, William T. Harris of St. Louis, William Harvey Wells of Chicago and Samuel King of Portland were among those superintendents who introduced the concept of standardization to their cities. In a survey sponsored by the U.S. Commissioner of Education in 1870, it was discovered that forty-five major cities had similar educational structures. Superintendents in smaller cities and towns spared themselves uncertainty of experimentation and readily adopted the systematic approach to education which was so popular in larger cities. By 1900, the one best system prevailed and it still prevails today.

To achieve their goal of systemization, nineteenth century educators designed standard curriculum and examinations which would make uniform the classroom experience of all school children. Standardized textbooks were distributed throughout school systems. Teachers kept their pupils on a pre-arranged schedule—presumably learning at a uniform rate. A dramatic example of these attempts to create one best system can be seen in the system in Portland, Oregon at the turn of the century.

\[24\] Ibid., p. 45.
As Tyack described Superintendent Frank Rigler,

... devoted most of his seventeen years in the office (1896-1913) to perfecting the curriculum and machinery of instruction he inherited. Lest teachers become too independent in interpreting the course of study, Rigler met with them on Saturdays and went through the text books page by page, telling his staff what questions to ask and what answers to accept. ... Rigler "could sit in his office and know on what page in each book work was being done at the time in every school in the city." 25

Most high schools existed only in large urban areas. This deviation from the principle of universal education was not seen as problematical since a high school education had little value in the market place of the time. This, of course, was not true in the twentieth century, when high schools and colleges were given a great deal of emphasis. The relative disregard for high schools during the creation of the one best system may partially account for the failure of this approach when later applied to high school settings.

According to Michael Katz, in Class, Bureaucracy and Schools, the bureaucracy which supported uniformity was advocated so that "professionals" could be assured their performance would be judged on "objectivity or expertise" and that "precision, continuity and discretion" were

25Ibid., p. 48.
allowed for the new class of professional educators.  

The failure of the one best system in urban high schools and the persistent reliance of school personnel on this approach has been amply illustrated to students, parents and critics if not to school personnel themselves. In fact, at the time of the creation of the one best system theory it was obvious that the systemization of education might not benefit all children, as Katz pointed out:

The creative child probably suffered agonies of boredom, since spontaneity was regarded as a form of naughtiness in such a system. The child whose home and neighborhood background was culturally different from that of the standard curriculum perhaps also suffered.  

Documentation of this failure has been dramatically provided in the literature: Death at an Early Age by Jonathan Kozol, Crisis in the Classroom by Charles Silberman, How Children Fail by John Holt and Colin Greer's The Great School Legend are but a few examples. Robert Woodbury suggested further that, while the schools have failed all segments of the student population, it is the black student who has suffered the most:

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26Katz, Class, Bureaucracy and Schools, pp. 63-65.

27Tyack, The One Best System, p. 55.
The inadequacies of all schools should not obscure the special failures of inner city schools. Most of our public schools do what our inner city schools do not do: provide tools and credentials for meaningful work or assure admission to higher education. By either test, urban schools do worse than suburban schools. If inner city children have skills and experiences—and they certainly do—these are not the ones tested for college admission. . . . (Blacks) typically lag one year behind whites on national academic tests in third grade, and the gap widens to almost three years by twelfth grade.28

Blacks have incomes approximately equal to 60 percent of that of whites and black unemployment is double that of whites (unemployment among black teenagers approaches 40 percent). He continued:

Clearly, such discrimination is also an educational fact. If inner city schools produce equal results on reading tests discrimination by business firms would still result in unequal jobs for Blacks; but discrimination in jobs is also a crucial variable in producing unequal results on reading tests. To a black fourth grader, his father's job and the health conditions of his home may be more vital educational variables than the reading method in school.29

Despite the failures of urban secondary schools, professionals who work in these schools remain steadfastly committed to the status quo. The traditional reliance by professionals on the one best system is seen as a real hindrance to educational change. The reason for adherence to the standard system is self-protection. Professionals

28Gentry et al., Urban Education, p. 6.

29Ibid., p. 7.
depend on public schools for their livelihood and standing in the community. Any "outside" interference, from parents or students, threatens the professional. Harvey Scribner, former Chancellor of Schools in New York City, spoke of the hidden agenda in many schools:

> Education is only part of their business. Schools also serve those who are employed in schools, most of whom are professionals in education. These school professionals need schools at least as much as the young; perhaps more. Schools have traditionally depended on professionals. Now schools are dominated by them.\(^{30}\)

School professionals have a vested interest in the schools. They administer programs, teach classes and respond to parents and students in much the same way they were trained to by teachers' colleges and universities. There is a belief that the administration of schools should be left to trained professionals, not the public. Scribner described the problem with this theory: "The fact that school professionals as a class represent a major obstacle to the reform of schools, because serious reform would threaten their dominance. . ."\(^{31}\)


\(^{31}\)Ibid., p. 6.
Options to the "One Best System"

Despite their self perpetuating cycle of school regularities and a traditional reluctance to change, teachers and administrators confront inevitable change. Educational failure is dramatically portrayed in the media and even professionals have demanded educational change. Local school boards, ever sensitive to public opinion, have asked for "accountability" or "back to basics". Educational institutions are now being criticized, not individual students. Professionals, caught unaware, are ill-prepared to deal with this new challenge and need staff development tailored to their setting.

The concept of options or alternatives should not be construed as the next one best system. Options should present consumers and professionals with a choice of philosophies, methods and programs heretofore unavailable in the public school setting. Options may be developed in conjunction with a variety of other approaches designed to reform urban schools. Subsequently, it is proposed herein to explore and encourage educational options within urban public high schools.

Educational options within public schools are a result of pressure exerted by the independent alternative schools movement of the 1960s and early 1970s. Fantini
described the impact of alternative schools:

Yet despite their aspirations of love, independence, self-direction, tolerance and social responsiveness, their real impact, like that of the voucher plan, has not been to achieve radical reform outside the system of public schools, but rather to stimulate a more progressive, albeit moderate, reform effort within the public school system.  

The recent report of the Carnegie Council on Policy in Higher Education advocated the promotion of alternative programs within the structure of the public schools, recognizing the failure of such programs outside the public sector. The report stressed a need for diversity within the public schools--specifically alternative and magnet programs. High schools have become too large. The report specifically recommended: "Change the basic structure of high schools by making them smaller or by creating diversity within them or both."  

The concept of alternatives is relevant to the problems of public schools for the following reasons:  

--Parents and students currently have little or no choice in a student's educational program. State and local educational requirements, such as civics, English,


\[34\] Ibid., p. 22.
math, science, health and physical education dictate as much as 70 percent of a student's educational program.

--Teachers' schedules are usually defined by their area of certification, negotiated contractual agreements of administrative assignment by the building principal.

--Teachers' preferences for course assignation are rarely honored and their other academic strengths are frequently ignored.

--Choices, in the form of options, provide students and teachers with the opportunity to exercise some power over their own futures through responsibility for their actions and deliberate self-governance of programs. With guidance and support, students choose options which suit their educational needs; teachers are able to develop options to match their own interests and teaching styles.

--Multiple options within the schools allow for division of the student population into the smaller units which were sacrificed when schools became larger. These often encourage more inter-personal teacher-student relationships.

--Options are small enough to allow their development or termination to occur without disruption of the total school. Options which no longer serve the needs of students and teachers can be modified or discarded; others can be developed to meet new needs.
Voluntearism can reduce the alienation felt by students and teachers. The ability to choose one's educational direction is often accompanied by feelings of ownership in and affinity with one's program. Options have value to all members of the school community currently dissatisfied with urban education.

Student and teacher input is crucial to the development of options within the schools. If the strength of options is in the ability of students and teachers to exercise choice, power and self-governance, that strength should be included in the development of options. Without this type of input, participants will not exercise their power, become alienated and as uninvolved with options as with traditional programs.

The success or failure of options hinges on their ability to present students with viable opportunities on a day-to-day basis and a sense of power and self-worth in their present and future choices. These opportunities may be observed in many existing options. Options have many names (dependent on their locale). The dominant characteristic of the concept of alternative programs, however, is not their commonality, but the fact that such programs can be developed indigenously to respond to local educational needs. Although there are some fundamental elements which must exist to differentiate options from the
traditional program, advocates of options should be comfortable with the development of a program especially designed to meet the needs of local students, teachers, parents and administrators.

Alternative themes derive their impetus from the population to be served. Themes usually center on a mandate to educate the under-served or unserved. Programs are designed for dropouts, poor and minority students, ethnic groups, talented and gifted youngsters and disaffected students. A list of alternative designs that have been successful at the secondary level in urban areas throughout the United States indicates the range of possibilities:

--Street Academies/Drop-in Centers. This option is generally developed for one of two purposes. The first purpose is to use the extensive resources of a city as a foundation for a vibrant, relevant curriculum. Students study urban planning, state and local politics, media and journalism as well as traditional subjects. This variation is usually developed by teachers and students.

Another purpose for which this type of option may be developed is to provide an alternative educational setting for alienated or disaffected students in large urban areas. In such circumstances, it is generally advocated by administrators, teachers or change agents
from outside the system (rarely by the students themselves), based on a belief that alienation arises from the monolithic structure of the physical plant and that students might relate more easily to an educational program closer to their "natural" environment—the streets of the city.

--Career Exploration concepts. This option presents students and teachers with an opportunity to center the teaching/learning situation on a career educational model. Students are given the opportunity to delve deeply into occupational areas they may choose for careers. Teachers display technical skills beyond what might be possible in a traditional classroom setting. For instance the MASH program at English High School was designed for juniors and seniors interested in health careers.

--Metropolitan Programs. Urban and suburban school systems may form collaborations designed to broaden programmatic possibilities for their student populations. These options bring urban and suburban students together in an effort to reduce cultural and racial isolation as well as to maximize the utilization of both systems' resources.
Performing and Fine Arts. These options are designed for students who have demonstrated talent or interest in the arts.

Choice Within the Traditional Structure

Students and teachers may also exercise some choice within the structure of the traditional urban high school. Possibilities include:

--Area Scheduling. This device, analagous to most college course registration procedures, enables students to select courses and teaching methods compatible with their individual learning styles.

--Cluster Grouping. Students can be assigned to self-contained teaching units. Initiated at the ninth grade level, cluster grouping can lessen the "culture shock" experience by most freshmen entering the high school environment.

--Work-study. Students who qualify for a part-time academic program may profit from a supervised work-study experience where the work situation directly relates to their academic preparation. Special needs students with limited capacity for full-time academic study, and an ability to handle the supervised work-study situation, should have access to this option. Special needs, as well as bilingual students, should have access to all programs within a school, provided they can profit from
the experience.

--Open or Flexible Campus. An outgrowth of the alternative schools movement, open campus gives greater flexibility to the entire school program by offering the resources of the community to students. Each placement provides an individual option to the student. These opportunities can be developed in colleges, businesses, social services or governmental agencies and cultural institutions.

--Early or delayed graduation. Students and teachers can be offered a flexible approach to graduation based on actual rate of progress of students. The length of stay in the high school might be from three to five years.

--Majors. The ability to concentrate their studies in depth within one subject area provides some students with sufficient choice within the traditional setting. Majors include languages, history, mathematics, science, vocational and business subjects.

Role Expectations and Change

There are several role expectations which inhibit the development of options within urban high schools. Reluctance to change on the part of school professionals has been discussed earlier; the one best system, a vested
interest in job security and a steadfast refusal to admit failure are all part of the development of resistant maneuvers toward options on the part of school personnel. In a discussion of the Boston School Committee in Village School Downtown, Peter Schrag discussed this refusal to deal with failure. In several articles published in the Boston Herald in the 1960s, he severely criticized the Boston School Committee:

But if the School Committee has inherited problems, it also seems to have inherited an inability to confront or solve them. With the collusion of the administrators, they engage in elaborate games, in formalized rituals about "our dedicated teachers" and "our wonderful system" and in elaborate strategies of defense against critics. . .35

The Boston School Committee today professes a different perspective on its responsibility to the electorate. The Committee promised educational reforms when appointing Dr. Robert Wood, a professional administrator and former President of the University of Massachusetts. A commitment to basic skills instruction, magnet programs (those special programs designed to voluntarily desegregate schools) and educational options were offered by the School Committee in response to Judge W. Arthur Garrity's insistence that they not only desegregate the schools but

also significantly upgrade the quality of education. Wood recruited skilled managers and charged them to institute modern management techniques and quality educational programs. Although there have been some hopeful signs that rejuvenation is underway in the Boston Public Schools little or no change is visible in the classrooms themselves (with a few notable exceptions). Wood faced declining enrollment, loss of confidence in public education, declining student academic ability, vandalism and violence.

Perhaps one of the most significant obstacles to educational change is the effect role expectations have on the attitudes and behaviors of teachers and administrators. The performance of teachers and administrators may often be dictated by the positions they hold and others' expectations of the behavior individuals occupying such positions. The process of change may be hampered by this stagnant arrangement, for any deviation from expected role behaviors is subject to misinterpretation.

Seymour Sarason examined the phenomenon of role expectations in his book, The Culture of the School and the Problem of Change: "The most important point is not that everyone has a conception of the system, but that this conception governs role performance even though it
may be a correct or faulty conception." Sarason continued his description of inappropriate role expectations:

When most people think about a school principal they almost always think in terms of what a principal can do, and attribute to him a good deal of power and freedom to act in his school. They rarely will think in terms of what he cannot do or the numerous restrictions, formal and informal, that limit his freedom of action.

Most administrators expect teachers to have "good classroom management," they are to maintain order at all costs. If perceived by teachers, this expectation quickly becomes their priority even if administrators do not hold that belief. If administrators encourage teachers to experiment with different teaching styles, teachers may believe that this is a trap—that the administrator wants little more than a well-managed class. Administrators, on the other hand, may view teachers as uncooperative or incompetent if they do not respond to the mandate for options.

Role expectations must be recognized for the hindrance they present to the development of a new relationship among students, teachers and administrators. The

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37 Ibid., pp. 118-19.
responses can and should be anticipated so that a plan of action may be developed to resist them. Among characteristic responses are the following:

--Interested teachers tend to be exploited for their "interest". Although the definition of a "good" or "interested" teacher is in dispute, and rejected as an irrelevant point by most teachers' unions, interested teachers are frequently encouraged by administrators to involve themselves in the development of options. These are the teachers administrators depend on to take extra administrative assignments, sponsor extracurricular activities, participate in parent-teacher associations, and teach extra or difficult classes. Interested teachers would probably be more amenable to this arrangement if less "interested" teachers didn't have reduced professional responsibilities because of their reputed disinterest; less "interested" teachers may actually be assigned less responsibility than their more competent counterparts, in a kind of reverse logic. Competent teachers may not receive an additional financial incentive from the school district for their superior performance. Administrators rely on interested teachers because they know that these teachers can probably accomplish most tasks assigned them.
Administrators committed to the development of educational options, who want options to succeed, will ask "interested" teachers to implement these programs because of their demonstrated competence and personal commitment of quality education for their students. Administrators may, however, ask these teachers to assume this additional responsibility and, at the same time, suggest or demand that they retain their other duties. Such individuals may soon suffer from that disease peculiar to alternative school personnel--teacher burnout. This occurs when teachers put so much energy into their program over the first few years that they exhaust themselves and have to withdraw from the situation to recover.

Harvey Scribner suggested a method of dealing with the disadvantages of role expectations for "good" teachers with respect to options:

The plan, therefore, calls for parents to select teachers for their children, and for teachers to be paid in keeping with the number of children each attracts. The more students who sign with a teacher, the higher the teacher's pay. . . . What a teacher earns is a direct reflection of how many students (and their parents) he can satisfy; nothing more. In the absence of any better, agreed upon performance criteria--and with a view toward empowering parents to take more direct control and responsibility for their own schools. . . What could be more reasonable. 38

38 Scribner and Stevens, Make Your Schools Work, p. 39.
Although this would appear to be a reasonable suggestion, it is highly unlikely that local school boards or teachers' unions would readily agree to Scribner's proposal. Some plan, however, must be devised to reduce the exploitation of the "interested" by the "less interested".

**Interference from Central Administrative Sources**

Although the pressure is on local school boards and subsequently on central administrative personnel to accomplish significant change, these sources often interfere in the development of options at the local high school level. Most superintendents and their staffs typically lack the perspective to understand the change processes essential to the development of educational options. This lack of knowledge does not prohibit central administrators from interfering with school personnel, often provoking an unanticipated paranoia amongst school personnel who feel that "downtown" does not understand problems and needs of the schools. Any suggestions, encouragement or support from central administration (superintendent, subject area supervisors, directors, etc.) are viewed with suspicion and outright hostility by some school personnel. Some typical responses to central administration are: 1) what do they know about
schools?  2) when was the last time they worked in the schools?  3) why don't they mind their own business and leave those who know what they are doing (i.e., school personnel) alone?

--Teachers in options should anticipate some negative reactions toward their activities by their peers. Some jealousy and resentment may be directed toward teachers who participate in the development of options. Initially these innovative professionals may pose an undefined threat to their more traditional peers. The fact that the traditional comprehensive program will be included in the available options hardly soothes those teachers who previously maintained a monopoly on the student body.

--Teachers who reject the optional programs are likely to experience certain visceral reactions and role expectations; the following reactions have been observed at the English High School:

1) There was a perception that colleagues in the optional programs were not "carrying their weight". Since teachers in options govern themselves and devise schedules (with student input), which may not parallel the traditional one, colleagues may interpret these deviations as indications of less strenuous teaching obligations.
Off-campus alternatives, supervised work-study programs and frequent field trips are examples of this controversy.

2) Traditional teachers felt that students in the options ignored general school rules and made enforcement of these rules more difficult with other students. Students in the MASH program at the English High School, by mutual agreement with their teachers, arrived one hour after the "regular" opening hour for other students. MASH students were accused of contributing to the school's tardiness problem, which had existed for decades.

3) A common perception was that teachers who worked in the options had the "ear" of administrators who were receptive to alternative education. The administrators were believed to support the smaller options at the expense of much larger traditional programs. (This phenomenon will be discussed later in the context of administrative concerns.) In Boston, when Federal District Judge W. Arthur Garrity conceived of Magnet programs to provide students with choice within the desegregation process, teachers in traditional programs were disturbed about the financial and staffing resources allocated to programs in Theater, Fine Arts, Career Education, Communications and Alternative Education. Special education and bilingual programs, mandated by need and state and federal statutes, were
similarly viewed with distrust.

4) Options, by their association with "free" schools and their alternative nature, would certainly lower educational and disciplinary standards in the school at large. The flexibility which defined options and addressed itself to the problems of traditional programs was seen as the options' greatest weakness. If program options succeeded in reducing student alienation and provided choice through relevant education, traditional teachers felt that problems had been solved and called for a return to the "one best system", the traditional program.

5) Some students viewed options as having less validity than the traditional curriculum. Students who had not found success in the core programs and were enjoying that success in the options still considered the core program to be the one where "normal" students succeeded. They found fault in themselves rather than in the institution. Taunts of peers in the traditional program and, oftentimes, the misguided advice of core teachers, aroused mixed feelings over the options in students.

6) Options were used as "dumping grounds" for disruptive or "slow" students. Recruitment of students by the options was seen as an opportunity to transfer problem students out of traditional classes. Also, options
which established specific criteria according to the goals of their program and attracted strong academic students were accused of taking "the best kids in the School", leaving traditional teachers to handle the "slow" kids.

7) The pressures of the "back to basics" movement was used to blunt the thrust toward alternative programs. Parents were seen by some school personnel as dissatisfied with standardized test scores, and one way for the school to answer this dissatisfaction was through a reversion to the traditional program--the "one best system". Support for this position will be drawn from the media. (When local school boards use declining reading scores in contract negotiations with teachers' unions, this issue becomes even more controversial.)

The characterization of doubts described herein is not intended to discourage the potential innovator, on the contrary, these reactions and questions are presented in an effort to give an accurate portrayal of attitudes toward the development of options which may exist in traditional high schools. Innovative teachers should not assume that the entire school community is eagerly awaiting alternative education. If that were the usual educational environment, the "external" alternative school movement would not be in the predicament it is today.
Innovative teachers should be aware of skepticism and plan for its influence on students, programs and themselves.

**Incentives for the Development of Options**

There are incentives to the development of alternatives as well. They are fewer in number but greater in scope than disincentives or negative role expectations. By participating in options, teachers place themselves in a new context. Evaluative comparison to peers in traditional programs becomes difficult, if not impossible, since different criteria for teaching styles, classroom governance, curriculum design and accountability now exist for traditional and alternative teachers. Teachers in options are "out there", experimenting with innovative styles; their success or failure is outside the traditional program. Teachers can thus return from options to the traditional program with little or no stigma attached, and can reestablish themselves as "good" teachers if alternatives fail.

Options can also provide breathing room for teachers who desire a change with minimum risk to their professional standing. Teachers in options can form affinity groups as sources of support and as sounding boards for new ideas. The course of evolution of options within public schools is not an easy one; the prospect of developing
substantive educational reform to reverse the inevitability of failure under the "one best system" serves as the strongest incentive to teachers.

The motivation to provide a working definition of options to concerned public educators lies in the need of most local school boards and administrators to have a concrete point of reference. Teachers and students promoting the development of options will be required to demonstrate the need for options and the philosophy behind such concepts. The range of options and the publicity they have engendered present a confusing picture to those who hold powers of approval or denial. If teachers are to win the approval to implement options, they need to devise a definition that gives meaning to a variety of programs in many different settings.

Free schools have given the often erroneous impression that participation in options meant students were able to learn what they wanted when they wanted. Fundamental schools countered with a theory of options as no-nonsense, highly disciplined "back to basics" structures devoid of humanistic perspective. Each new option added another definition to a confusing array of possibilities.
The most consistent theme in the literature on educational options is that of choice. John C. Woodbury, a former assistant to the Chancellor of New York City Public Schools, emphasized the importance of the choice factor:

Children are required by law to attend school. This fact helps make the system both alien and authoritarian to many city students. The simple process of introducing some choice of school and program for students might have a liberating and creative effect.\(^{39}\)

Woodbury saw the implications for options within public schools:

Within individual school buildings at every level, choices of programs and teacher could be expanded dramatically. For example, the idea of competing programs in a school is a useful devise. Most aspects of the schools are monopolistic. Why not create two English departments and let them compete with each other for students, and then provide resources based on student enrollment.\(^{40}\)

In "A Brief Rationale for Public Alternative Schools", Robert Woodbury indicated that the concept of choice was the rationale for the creation of options by increasing numbers of local school boards:

. . . over 200 school systems across the country have set up alternative schools and scores of other districts are planning them. Their format may range

\(^{39}\)Gentry et al., Urban Education, p. 81.

\(^{40}\)Ibid., pp. 18-19.
from a street school, to a learning center, to a school within a school, but their common thread is a commitment to voluntarism (a clientele participating through choice...)

Fantini provided a comprehensive interpretation of options-as-choice and, perhaps, the definitive view that is lacking. Fantini called his plan "Public Schools of Choice" and advocated matching the lifestyles of those in educational communities to their choices of educational program:

This plan calls for the cooperation of teachers, parents and students in the development of a variety of legitimate educational options within our public schools. Choice is a key term in this plan. Each of the participating groups—teachers, parents and students (the agents closest to the action)—have a choice of the option that best supports their style.

Fantini also recognized the relief options and choice can bring to the over-burdened traditional curriculum:

Public Schools of Choice established standard education as a legitimate option. We have overloaded the standard pattern of education, expecting this approach to reach all teachers, students and parents. No one pattern of education can reach everyone, and in a diverse society such as ours, a responsive system of public education provides a range of options and choices, including the standard.


43 Ibid., p. 116.
Options may provide the elements of voluntarism and choice missing from urban public high schools. Questions for urban school administrators which must be answered are 1) how to create a flexible atmosphere potent enough to challenge the "one best system" and 2) how to encourage teachers, students and parents to experiment with options within the schools.
CHAPTER II
THE CREATION OF AN ENVIRONMENT CONducIVE TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF OPTIONS

Proactive administrators interested in alternative education and substantive change within urban high schools must be prepared to develop an atmosphere in which students, parents and teachers may suspend reliance on the one best system as the theoretical foundation for educational delivery and examine the possibilities of educational options and more flexible organizational structures. Some notion of the potential and complexity of creating new settings can be seen in the case studies of Street Academy of Albany and English High School.

Street Academy of Albany, Albany, New York

An example of the benefits of the inclusion of parents, students and teachers in the planning process for alternatives is found in the case of the Street Academy of Albany. The Street Academy, by its own definition, "...is an alternative form of education, a non-graded school which uses the city as a significant portion of its curriculum and classroom." (See Appendix A.)

^Harmon and Peterkin, Street Academy of Albany, p. 5.
Classes were held all over the city, wherever educational resources could be found in their natural environment. There were classes in local businesses, stores, churches, community centers, colleges, governmental agencies, courtrooms and even jails. Students related better to the educational programs in these settings, although there were other variables which may have had some effect on the reaction, namely closer interpersonal relationships with teachers and other staff members, fewer restrictions, and increased involvement in school governance.

The Street Academy of Albany chose to invite all representative groups to the planning sessions for the development of its program. Now an integral option of the Albany Public Schools, Street Academy began as an independent adaptation of the National Urban League Street Academies in New York City. The founders, Lawrence Burwell, Executive Director of the Albany Urban League, and Sister Maryellen Harmon, A Sister of the Order of the Sacred Heart, theorized that the program warranted the broadest base possible for planning, governance, and support. They invited parents, students, teachers, residents of housing projects, college professors and students, businessmen, community service representatives, cultural organization members (many of them black), and
the superintendent of schools or his representatives to a planning session. This large group chose some of its membership to serve on a community board of directors, who in turn formulated the initial plans and chose the faculty. With the approval of the community board, the faculty determined the cognitive and affective curriculum for the Street Academy.45

This procedure paid off when the school system refused to incorporate the option and the Street Academy was forced to raise its own funds from the private and business communities. With considerable support from civic and business leaders over a two-year period, the school raised over $100,000 plus commitments of in-kind services. Years later, the Street Academy became a funded project under the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, Title III, with the Albany Public Schools as local educational agency. The Albany Public Schools threatened each year, during the three years of that federal funding, to withdraw from the arrangement and thereby close the Street Academy. At school board meetings when this item was on the agenda, the board was always surprised to find that hundreds of students, parents, teachers,

businessmen and community people were in attendance. Each year the school board recapitulated and eventually, in 1974, adopted Street Academy as part of its own educational delivery system.

This type of "confrontation politics" was employed by many alternative programs, both within and without the public school system, during the late 1960s and early 1970s; Harlem Preparatory School, Street Academies, and Project Redirection in New York City, Parkway Program in Philadelphia and the Chicago Public High School for Metropolitan Studies (Metro) all employed similar tactics.\(^{46}\) (This support contrasted with apathy and anger evidenced at Boston's English High School where parents, students and community groups did not feel part of the planning process.)

The English High School, Boston, Massachusetts

In contrast to the success of the efforts to include diverse groups at Street Academy the partial exclusion of parents, students and community groups from the planning process for options at English High School almost led to

\(^{46}\) A vivid example of this type of support can be provided by students of the Chicago Public High School for Metropolitan Studies, "Students at Metro Play the Political Game," (reprint) Alternative Education, Mario Fantini, ed. (New York: Doubleday and Co., 1976), pp. 421-22.
the failure of these programs.

The English High School, founded in 1821, was a boy's school. English High School was originally established as an alternative to Boston Latin School, a college preparatory school, to provide a higher level of education to those who were not going on to college. Constantly changing over the years to meet emergency priorities, English High School today is a comprehensive high school of 2,500 students. (Female students were admitted for the first time in 1973.) In 1974, a federal court ordered the desegregation of the Boston Public Schools and English High School in particular. At that time the English High School student body was composed of approximately 95 percent black students.

The court order also established English High School as a magnet school, one of the few schools in Boston which students could choose voluntarily, as long as the student population was desegregated. English High School chose options or alternative education, as its magnet theme, since Headmaster Robert Peterkin was convinced that programmatic diversity was one of the needs of the school. The magnet designation sought to maximize educational options by which all students could complete their high school education. In this manner, English High School blended the positive aspects of a traditional comprehensive
program (economy of size) with a wide range of educational options.

English High School met with varied degrees of success in its efforts to form its first planning groups for the development of educational options. The manner of selection for teachers was predetermined by School Committee and Boston Teachers' Union agreement. Options were being developed under a collaboration with the School of Education, University of Massachusetts, Amherst. Created under federal district court desegregation order, this collaboration was designed to assist the high school in 1) the delivery of innovative quality educational programs to students and 2) the development of onsite inservice programs for faculty and staff. Initiated in 1975, the collaboration was funded under Chapter 636 of the Racial Imbalance Act of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts (1975) with an annual budget of $87,000.

Harvey Scribner, Professor and former Chancellor of the New York City Public Schools, served as Project Director and member of the planning group. Consultants addressed specific needs of the planning group based on their experience in alternative education, humanistic education or proposal writing. The planning group was fortunate to have, in several of the teachers and Scribner, individuals who were experienced in group process,
decision-making and curriculum development. Other programs such as the Street Academy of Albany had to call upon the services of a skilled trainer/facilitator, at considerable cost, to assist them in group decision-making and program development. With a consultant, problems may arise if a dependency is developed; this phenomenon will be discussed later in this chapter.

The School of Education of the University of Massachusetts, Amherst had a reputation for leadership in the field of alternative education under the direction of Dwight Allen. The National Alternative Schools Program (NASP) provided a resource for administrators and teachers of alternative programs, advised existing alternatives and developed new programs both on and off campus. NASP had as its priorities:

1. Projecting an alternative educational leadership model which will train personnel to study, plan and implement institutional change.

2. Combat institutional racism by both exhortation and practice.

3. Address the plight of deteriorating urban schools head on.47

47 National Alternative Schools Program, School of Education, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, undated.
The English High School and the University of Massachusetts easily selected their representatives to the planning group but they ignored significant involvement by parents or students during the summer of 1975. One parent and one student joined ten teachers and various University personnel on the planning group. This alignment did not provide these significant educational consumers with adequate representation in the planning process. Additional parents and students attended three evening meetings where they heard reports by the planning group. Hardly the manner in which to obtain any type of meaningful input, none was forthcoming. This exclusion of students and parents from the planning process hurt the implementation of options later. Two of the four options developed were never implemented due to lack of student interest.

Less than one year later, an additional requirement was added for the submission of the continuation grant for funding of the alternatives. The official parents' council at the school had to approve of the programs. The council had little or no knowledge of the programs and subsequently, little investment in their continuation. It was only through intervention on the part of the Headmaster and those involved in the options, plus assurance that parents
would be included in subsequent revision/planning sessions, that the parents granted their support.

Ironically, in 1975 there were planning funds to pay all groups for their participation--teachers, administrators, students and parents. Parents and students came eagerly on the three nights they were invited although it was obvious after the first meeting that their input would be limited. The one parent and student in the planning group came to every daily meeting.

Two of four programs were eagerly accepted by students and were quite successful. To this date, the Urban Studies Center, an off-campus city-as-classroom option, and MASH, a health careers option, have attracted a total of 150 students in each year of operation and both had waiting lists. The Urban Studies Center offered a one-year program in visual and communicative arts, emphasizing the city as core subject. Study of traditional subjects was held in a friendly, informal atmosphere. Individual media projects were negotiated with one of four staff members. MASH (The Medical Alternative for Students in Hospitals) stated as its goals:

To provide an alternative program so that the MASH students receive instruction and complete the core requirements; to expose students to as many different health careers as possible through an audiovisual exploratory program, tours of health facilities and
Administrators Making the Transition from Small to Large Settings

The author's move from leadership of the small alternative setting (Street Academy) to a larger traditional setting points out a dilemma which many new administrators face. Coming from the classroom, guidance office or small alternative program, new administrators moving into a leadership role in large urban high schools are unprepared for the radical change. There is rarely any adequate training for the move since almost all administrators are trained as teachers and most of their experience has been in the classroom.

Street Academy of Albany was a venture in cooperative leadership. Staff, students and parents were engaged in a crusade to create and sustain a humanistic educational experience for disaffected students and radical teachers. The administrator leaned heavily on his force

of personality (charisma) to effect change and enlist support. Decisions were made at town meetings with students and staff having equal votes. Staff meetings were run on a consensus model. Basically the administrator participated and helped direct this communal venture and used the force of his personality to make things happen.

English High School was a different story. With 2,500 students and 150-200 staff members, it was impossible to determine a common agenda. The range of students was much broader than at Street Academy and the teaching staff was much more diverse. The organization of the School was traditional in that it was a pyramid structure—1) Headmaster, 2) Assistant Headmasters, 3) Department Heads, 4) Teachers, 5) Aides, and 6) Students. The Headmaster interpreted school board policy and issued directives based on this policy. These orders were carried out down the line. Class schedules and course offerings were typical of a comprehensive high school. Additionally, the teachers' union was a dominant factor in school politics.

The author's experience paralleled that of other young, relatively inexperienced administrators or teachers accepting the leadership of a large urban high school. In the smaller setting of the classroom or alternative school,
more direct contact and control is possible. In the larger setting the administrator must look to formal structures or organizational development to direct the school. In addition, there are political implications which have not been previously encountered. The uninitiated can easily be overwhelmed before they start.

The author sought out those staff members at English High School who were identified by mutual acquaintances as progressive forces in the school. In addition, black teachers sought out the new black Headmaster to give advise and direction. These individuals were asked to give the Headmaster their perspective on the school, its history, staff, students and current status. Assistant Headmasters and other key staff members were called in to serve as a transition team for the new Headmaster. The Headmaster was successful in petitioning the school district for funds to pay the transition team members over the summer in preparation for the next academic year. The staff members were subdivided into teams to produce reports for the Headmaster in the areas of curriculum, safety and security, staffing, transportation and innovative programs, student activities and course scheduling. Court-ordered desegregation further complicated that transition.
The atmosphere at English High School was receptive to the new Headmaster, with some qualifications. In large part the faculty eagerly anticipated this change in leadership since relations with the previous Headmaster were strained. The administrators had been loyal to the previous Headmaster or had applied for the position themselves. A cadre of teachers and administrators wanted to work for productive change which the Headmaster quickly recognized and allied himself with. Many of these persons were appointed by the Headmaster to positions of power in the school as class deans, housemasters, department heads, senior advisors and college/business coordinators. The advice of faculty representatives was sought on nominations for power positions but the final choice was the Headmaster's. It should be noted that there were no sweeping changes in personnel already holding power, thereby reducing the anxiety level in the school. The Headmaster made sure that he was accessible to all staff.

The next step was to deal with the politics which affected the school. This meant thoroughly reading the teachers' and administrators' contracts so that potential conflict could be anticipated or avoided. The Headmaster met with parents' groups (many of whom were hostile to the desegregation order but later became big supporters), the
Mayor, the Governor, the Commissioner of Education, the local pols, leaders in the communities feeding the school, school board members, fellow administrators, police, firemen, church leaders, student leaders, representatives of the Progressive Labor Party, the electronic and print media and as many teachers at the high school as possible prior to the opening of school in the fall. It was essential to meet individuals face-to-face so that they could become comfortable with the change in administration.

This preparation was done to satisfy two real needs. The first was to be adequately prepared for the opening of a new building for 2,500 students. This entailed having specific plans for opening day in the form of student scheduling, transportation, safety, curriculum, student services and activities, guidance, disciplinary procedures and athletics. The second need was to be prepared for the first full faculty meeting. New administrators must be ready to project an image of confidence and competence which puts the faculty at ease with the new leadership. In subsequent years many faculty members told the Headmaster that his performance at this meeting was instrumental in the initial success at English High School.

New administrators making the leap from a smaller setting to a larger setting may prepare for that leap using the experience of the author. Preparation should
be purposeful, using the information gathered during the period before assuming leadership to develop a plan of action which supports the leadership style and comforts the staff and student body. Comfort in a larger setting comes from the knowledge that the leadership is firmly in control and aware of the needs of the institution. A feeling of assurance is the beginning of a perception of a supportive environment fostered by the administrator. Ultimately this will be used to get people to take chances, to innovate and experiment with alternative forms of education.

**Realities for Parents**

Although parents have been ambivalent in their feelings toward large traditional school systems, they have not therefore supported educational innovation. In several forums, urban parents have indicated their dissatisfaction with the schools. The media and public parent/teacher meetings have served to deliver the message that parents do not perceive schools as doing their job—providing students with the academic skills necessary to succeed in adult life. This message has been accompanied by a demand for a return to basic skills. Educators have been told in these same forums that parents are tired of the innovations of the 1960s, that these innovations were
unsuccessful and that schools should return to the "business of education".

Tyack reflected on parental reliance on the benefits of urban public education:

Intellectuals talk about deschooling and abolishing compulsory education, but there is little evidence that parents want compulsion to cease or that those committed to the present system—such as school employees—would be likely to fold up their tents and slink away. Indeed, the September, 1973 Gallop Poll on Education reported...76 percent of the national sample answered "extremely important" to the question "How important are schools to one's future success...?" (Nineteen percent replied "fairly important"). Even in the inner city, where conditions in the schools are often worse, polls suggest that residents are basically committed to public education.49

Yet other messages are also being received. In a November, 1977 public opinion survey commissioned by the Christian Science Monitor, 80 percent of the parents in the greater Boston area indicated their support for the public school. Parents of Boston public school children indicated stronger support than their suburban counterparts. This support would seem to be inconsistent with the quality of education in Boston, a city under court-ordered desegregation with an unsurpassed record for educational failure during the past century. According to Schrag:

49 Tyack, The One Best System, p. 290.
Boston's educational program is pathetically irrelevant. It is true that there are good teachers, but they succeed despite the program, and then only with students who are already motivated. As a program, it makes sense only for those who see little value in powerful education in the first place, or who have accepted a subservient, limited image of themselves and their possibilities.\(^5\)

Parental support for school systems, however, when it is voiced in cities like Boston, is often qualified by statements such as, "But I wish they would teach the kids the basics" or "But I wish I could become more involved with the schools, let them know what I want." Parents and students have been conditioned by school personnel to respect professional educators. They have bought into what Sarason called the "existing regularities" of the school setting. Although the schools may be dysfunctional, these consumers have an interest in their maintenance. The first problem for administrators to face is how to facilitate a willingness on the part of parents to examine the need for change and to actively participate in that process.

The following suggestions are offered to building administrators who are committed to maximum participation

\(^{50}\) Schrag, *Village School Downtown*, p. 116.
of parents in the developmental process:

--Parents can rarely be contacted through the traditional avenues of parent-teacher organizations and open houses. Attendance at these functions is slight and the parents in attendance rarely represent the student constituencies who are in need of expanded options.

--Parents must be sought out in the communities in which they live; church groups, community service agencies, CETA offices, ethnic clubs and volunteer organizations are examples of possible forums. Administrators should present their schemes in simple and concise terms, without excessive educational jargon, encouraging parents to participate on a meaningful level.

--The role of the parents must be adequately defined. Are they advisory persons or decision-makers? Are they also expected to work in the options developed?

--Subsequent meeting times should be established which do not conflict with work situations, child rearing or other family responsibilities.

--Explanation should be provided that students and teachers will be involved in subsequent meetings.

The Plight of Students

Students have expressed their alienation from large urban high schools in several ways. Attendance in these
high schools continues to drop; in Boston, daily high school attendance is 68.6 percent of enrollment, while the system-wide figure (including elementary, middle and high schools) is 78.2 percent. The cost of vandalism, now a common problem in school buildings, has risen to over $600,000,000 annually nation-wide. The United States Congress held hearings in 1976-1977 on the impact of vandalism on school buildings which produced two large volumes of "horror stories" of student vandalism. For the past decade the dropout rate for high school age students has remained at 15-20 percent with black students leaving school at double the rate of whites. Unauthorized absence from class (cutting), wandering in the corridors of school buildings, and excessive tardiness to both school and classes are also evidence of student apathy and/or dis-enchantment.

Students face a monopolistic situation which confronts their parents as educational consumers. Unless they can afford increasingly more expensive parochial or

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51Boston Public Schools, Daily Attendance by Level, District, School and Race, 1977-78 School Year.
private schools, students have no choice of educational settings. Urban public high schools constitute the only system available to urban poor students. This situation creates a monopolistic environment for high schools.

Alienated students may resist supporting administrators seeking a broad base of support for educational options. These students may be emotionally, intellectually and physically involved with urban high schools, as the legitimate (in the eyes of the community and, more importantly, their peers) educational agents in the cities. One must remember that 70-80 percent of the high school age population seems to cope with available programs of urban high schools. Those who are no longer in this mainstream may still wish they were back in the schools "if things were different". An administrator has to counteract these feelings and involve students in the change process.

The following are suggestions to elicit student participation in the development of options:

--Students should be sought out at every level of the school. Need assessments should be made of the entire student body--not solely of potential dropouts or the gifted. At the Street Academy of Albany, all students between the ages of 13 and 18 were accepted for a
two-week trial period. The alternatives developed at the English High School had an Open Access Policy. All students were eligible for application. Interviews were held with each student. The only selective criteria was that the student population in the alternatives reflect the racial, ethnic and sexual composition of the school at large. This single criteria restricted the growth of MASH and the Urban Studies Center. White students did not participate in large numbers, thereby limiting the number of black and other minority students these programs could accept.

--If students are to perceive that their input is valued, then their participation must be sought in the initial phases of alternative planning and their roles in the decision-making process must be defined.

--Students should be sought without prejudice to their traditional standing in the school. Many students have participated in other "innovative" programs during their elementary and secondary school experience which promised to perform miracles--and often failed. Students may suspect the administrator's motives. Personal interaction between building administrators and students may lessen these feelings.

--Student leaders should be solicited at all levels (student government, athletic, service clubs, street corners), to explain the thrust/philosophies of
educational options and solicit their support for the enterprise. These students may advocate options with their peers. If student leaders perceive a need for choice and power in their high school situation, they should be enlisted to create support for the administrative plans and to encourage participation in the developmental process on the part of their peers who might profit educationally from a new environment.

Teacher Perspectives

Teachers often exhibit a commitment to the status quo because they depend on schools for their livelihood and professional standing. Within their ranks, however, there is a recognition that something has gone drastically wrong. Teachers are sensitive to the public indictment of educational programs in the schools. The newspaper columns of Albert Shanker, President of the American Federation of Teachers, in the New York Times have advocated for school teachers by expressing teacher dissatisfaction with current conditions in the schools: 1) declines in reading, math, and college board (SAT) scores, 2) discipline problems, 3) high absentee rates, 4) assaults on school personnel, 5) declining respect for teachers and, 6) low teacher morale. As Scribner asserted in Make
Yours Schools Work, Shanker and school professionals close ranks when threatened by teacher layoffs, school building closings, decentralization, parent and student advisory councils and teacher accountability:

Produced by the universities, certified and licensed by the State, the school professionals do more than staff the schools of America—they rule them. In turn, the schools respond to the needs and interests of the young. Contrary to popular belief that schools exist to serve the young, schools often work better today for the professionals employed by the schools than for the children who populate the classrooms.52

Scribner concluded:

The school professionals are indeed the ruling class in the schools, and their dominance has a good deal to do with the resistance of the schools to proposals for reform. Any dominant group seeks to retain its favored place by preserving status quo and fending off change. The school professionals are no different.53

From an organizational development point of view, Sarason discussed teachers' reluctance to change in terms of "behavioral regularities". Behavioral regularities are those "habits", behaviors or structures within a school which tend to be repeated and thus give definition to school life. These may include the length of academic periods and the actual school day, the number of students

52 Scribner and Stevens, Make Your Schools Work, p. 12.

53 Ibid., p. 13.
per class, the length of the school year, etc. These behavioral regularities inhibit the introduction of any significant change because school personnel cling to existant behavioral regularities. Sarason's findings closely parallel the development of the educational bureaucracy described by Tyack. According to Sarason role expectations, as discussed in the previous chapter, hinder the change process. Although building administrators may express their commitment to change, teachers perceive the administrator's role as a monitoring function with supervisory/evaluative overtones, "What does the administrator really want?" The traditional gulf between teachers and administrators is difficult to close, yet a cooperative relationship is essential to the change process contemplated by innovative building administrators.

Some suggestions for encouraging teacher involvement in the development of options include:

--Creation of an atmosphere in which teachers perceive a flexibility to experiment, with administrative support and without an accompanying fear of administrative

54 Sarason, The Culture of the School, pp. 77-78.
censure. Administrators who 1) publicly advocate their commitment to educational options, 2) personally initiate the collective planning process, 3) ensure participating teachers of job security and seniority rights, 4) allocate adequate resources to the development and implementation of options, 5) ensure equity with the traditional program and 6) otherwise demonstrate visible support of the alternative process may be successful in breaking down the stereotypical role expectations of students, parents, and more importantly, of their teaching colleagues.

--Having served as facilitators, building administrators should give teachers considerable latitude to develop, in concert with parents and students, the types of options which will suit the teaching and learning styles of providers and consumers within local, state and federal mandates. Administrators cannot expect to mandate what types of options they wish for the schools; as professional educators, teachers have the primary responsibility for the delivery of educational programs by the concerned parties. Administrators should, however, maintain a level of support which develops this atmosphere.

--Staff development must provide teachers with skills necessary for the development of options such as program management, curriculum development, humanistic
education, group-building or other areas where teachers have had no previous responsibility or experience. Administrators should facilitate the acquisition of these skills by providing release time whereby teachers may attend seminars or workshops, or by bringing needed resources to the teachers themselves. Concomitant with the development of options at English High School, for example, teachers were offered an onsite graduate degree program by the School of Education of the University of Massachusetts, Amherst. A needs assessment of the faculty of English High revealed five areas where teachers specifically requested training:

1) Curriculum
2) Teaching and Learning
3) Leadership and Administration
4) Evaluation and Research
5) Foundations for Urban Education

Administrators should help arrange for training by outside agencies. Role expectations may inhibit teachers from making use of administrators as a training resource.

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55University of Massachusetts, School of Education, Graduate Program with English High School, 1976, pp. 3-7.
Teachers may have to be selected for the planning process by building administrators. Energy, creativity, dedication, flexibility and concern for the total well-being of students are characteristics which administrators will want to look for in prospective candidates. Where possible, teachers who were involved in the planning stages should be chosen for available teaching positions in the options if they so desire. At English High School, Headmaster Peterkin chose one/half of the teachers for the planning process while the faculty, by a contractual agreement between the School Committee and Boston Teacher's Union, chose the other half. After the planning sessions were completed, those teachers who wished to work within the options and who met the stated criteria of the program, were encouraged by the Headmaster to do so.

Creating the Atmosphere for Change--Issues of Power and Control

Parents, students and teachers are not asked by most administrators or school boards to participate in decision-making for educational processes. These groups are usually the recipients of decisions made at various administrative levels within and without school buildings. On rare occasions when their input is sought, it is usually on an advisory level or to meet "community involvement" requirements for the acquisition of state or federal monies.
In the latter case, input is sought when major decisions have already been made. In Albany, New York, and Boston, Massachusetts, ESEA Title I-mandated Parent Advisory Committee (PAC's) requested that these essential federal funds be withheld from their respective districts because of a lack of meaningful parental input. Both groups successfully petitioned the federal agency to force the local school districts to negotiate with them in good faith.

Building administrators can initiate an atmosphere where parents, students and teachers perceive a need to work toward change. Sarason stressed the importance of the building administrator as leader in the change process:

There are many reasons for starting with the principal, . . . the most important is his relationship to the problem of change. The change may be of two kinds: that which principals initiate in their own schools, and that intended for all schools in a system. In either case, principals play a fateful role. Particularly in our urban centers where schools have become a battleground involving community groups, city, state, and federal government, teacher unions and student groups--and where the role of proposals of change has to be reckoned in terms of weeks rather than months and years--the leader of the school would seem to be a good starting point.56

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56 Sarason, The Culture of the School, pp. 110-11.
Sarason added that he has never seen a proposal for change within a school that did not take into account the presence of a building administrator, whether that administrator was seen as the change agent or as an inhibiting factor:

When he is in favor of the proposed changes, he is faced with the task of leading the process of change so that the intended outcomes are realized, which is another way of saying that he has to help and insure that other people change.57

Proactive administrators have the responsibility of discovering methods to make these constituencies comfortable with the process of change.

**Issues of Boundary Definition**

If administrators have spent the considerable effort required to encourage and obtain the cooperative planning efforts of parents, students and teachers, they should also define the limits under which these schools must plan. Administrators who have promised meaningful input to these groups and want to meet the real educational needs of students should not dictate the thrust of the planning process. That can only come from the participants.

57Ibid., p. 130.
Some of these delineations of authority may stem from system-wide regulations of local boards of control while others may originate with the administrators themselves. Such limits should be explained in the initial phase of the venture so that participants may decide during the planning process which restrictions they can live with and which will ultimately have to be negotiated. For example, planning groups cannot change the graduation requirements set by local school boards or state departments of education. They may, however, negotiate school-based requirements or modify those requirements in terms of course requirements or academic content to meet the needs of their students. Similarly the number of school days in a given academic year is not negotiable in most states but daily school hours can be arranged with the principal. Street Academies would be ineffective if their students remained inside one building as is usual. The staff retains the responsibility for the well-being of students when out in the community. Students in vocational programs are often prohibited by state or federal law from working in industry (hospitals, cosmotology and printing are examples) until they are sixteen years of age. Vocational programs either have to restrict their student population or reject the "hands-on" component of the program.
Within the public school setting parents and students may play policy-making roles in the development and implementation of options. Administrators who have participated in the planning of options and cooperatively designed the scope and sequence of programs with other parties may feel more comfortable in sharing the policy-making power with a group representative of the involved constituencies. In this type of atmosphere, students, parents and teachers may respond to the needs of options while governing within established ground rules. All parties can then be more comfortable with the fact that building administrators historically have the ultimate responsibility for programs under their purview, as mandated by local school boards.

By establishing limits and/or ground rules, administrators can avoid many "boundary disputes" during the life of the options, as the realities of implementation cause structural changes within both the optional and traditional programs. Teachers are then aware of the limits of their authority and able to plan accordingly. Participation in options can only be useful to teachers as their sense of authority and growth as professionals is realized.
A balance between limitations and rewards should be struck as early in the development of optional programs as possible. Most teachers started with the hope of providing students with the best education possible. The satisfaction derived from achieving that goal often wears thin when teachers are faced with the frustrations inherent in teaching in American schools where violence and vandalism are everyday realities. These frustrations may be accompanied by feelings of powerlessness to change a dysfunctional bureaucracy. When teachers are given opportunities to direct the educational process, within well-defined limits and with support of administrators and the cooperation of students and parents, their sense of professional worth should be enhanced and reinforced. Participation in these options may infuse teachers with a sense of rebirth which may allow them to flourish in their profession while others become frustrated or leave teaching altogether.

Within their realm of control, building administrators can delegate policy-making responsibility to the planning group as they would other areas of responsibility to their professional subordinates. A model which served the English High School-University of Massachusetts collaboration was the conversion of its planning/advisory groups into a policy-making board. This
conversion was the result of a near-disastrous experience on the part of the participating institutions when parents and students were inadequately represented during the planning stages. The policy-making board was established within the school for the supervision of options and other educational programs. The Headmaster, teachers, parents, students, and University personnel were members. The group succeeded without formal structures of governance such as bylaws, but this success relied too heavily on good interpersonal relationships. Other groups might not enjoy amiable relations and a more formal structure might be appropriate.

The Planning Process

Administrators bring valuable experience to planning groups and can demonstrate their support by active participation. The faculty, student body and the community-at-large will then have proof of the administrator's continued support of innovative change within the traditional structure of the high school. This demonstration may prevent many obstructions which might have arisen if a lack of support was perceived by the school community. Throughout the planning process and during the implementation of options, the strong support of building administrators should be in the foreground.
At English High School, in the summer of 1975 Headmaster Peterkin assigned members of his administration to the groups involved in the planning of educational options. In addition to the options being developed by the English High School-University of Massachusetts project, the school was also sponsoring collaborations with Brandeis University and the Massachusetts College of Art for the development of options in Theater Arts and Fine Arts. These representatives of the Headmaster initiated the planning process, represented a universal, i.e., administrative, view, participated in cooperative decision-making and reported substantive developments to the Headmaster. The Headmaster, who had established some general, though not inviolate, guidelines for the planning groups, attended these sessions periodically and observed the process and progress of each group. In this manner he was able to make both formative and summative evaluations of the planning process.

The Headmaster shared his observations with the various planning groups. His evaluations were strengthened by frequent reports submitted by his subordinate administrators. The comments ranged from group process concerns, curriculum content, thematic direction, and validity of needs assessment to perspective staff, monetary concerns
and redefinition of parameters. In one memorable session, the Headmaster rejected the "basic skills" theme of one of the options because he felt it was too similar to the traditional program. He reversed his decision when the planning group reaffirmed their support of the back to basic skills theme. (The option failed to generate enough student support for implementation.)

Before this process was initiated, the Headmaster pledged his support for innovation and educational options in particular in several faculty meetings with all professionals and paraprofessionals present. A vote of support was sought and, with a great deal of controversy (the reasons for which have been seen), granted by this body. In designating the overwhelming majority of state funds under Chapter 636 to the development of options, the Headmaster demonstrated the extent of his support of options within English High School.

The Costs of Support

Administrators may have to bear personal, professional and fiscal costs to insure the successful development and implementation of options. These costs represent a realistic demonstration of the solid support administrators may have to exhibit to the involved groups. This
support may include:

--Disportionate distribution of funds and other resources to the options.

Proportionately, implementation of options within the school framework may prove to be initially more costly than the traditional program. Costs will commence with student recruitment and may include a reduced teacher/student ratio, use or conversion of coveted building space, the requisition of new and/or innovative materials, increased pupil services, and increased services to faculty (consultants, internships, etc.). Included in this area are any costs that administrators are willing to absorb to insure the proper sustenance of options which might not be absorbed for the traditional program.

--Possible confrontation with the Superintendent and the Board of Control.

Administrators may have to justify the existence of options to the chief administrator and the school board. The introduction of innovation is rarely received warmly by these parties. Items such as reduced teacher/student ratios may raise questions of equity by the teacher's union as well as those of cost-effectiveness by the school board.
Increased student expenditure is likely to be viewed dimly when most districts face fiscal austerity.

--Waiver of traditional school rules and structures. Rules of governance developed by students and teachers in options may conflict with overall school policy. Since most traditional schools ensure control and minimize student (or teacher) independence, participants in the options dislike regulations that rely on collective control rather than individual responsibility. Administrators should negotiate these rules with representatives of both options and the traditional program and waive unnecessary restrictions.

--Potential conflicts with teachers, parents and students over proposed changes in familiar structures.

Despite the attempts of administrators and/or participants in options to minimize conflict with the traditional program, there is a strong possibility that such conflict will occur. Bureaucracies cannot deal with ambiguity and uncertainty; bureaucrats resist change as a matter of course. At English High School, teachers in the traditional program feared for their jobs if options became
the predominant mode of instruction. Students and parents may also get caught up in the "legitimacy" of the traditional program; they are no more immune to fears of change than school personnel.

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**The risk of failure as well as the potential for success.**

Innovative administrators take chances and cause disruption. Not every new program will succeed, especially those which may meet the needs of urban youth. Administrators must accept a failure index and prepare the school community for its inevitability by appealing to their self interest. If options are successful, there should be less disruption, vandalism and student/teacher assaults. Additionally, failure of alternative programs is small enough not to disrupt the overall school.

Planning groups for the Street Academy of Albany, during both its private and public school status, were given autonomy by the administrator (who was a member of the groups) to develop and then modify the total program given graduation requirements and the restrictions imposed by the policy-making community board and the State Board of Education. The primary cost for the administrators was in serving as a buffer between the school board, which was not supportive of an innovative,
cooperative process, and the groups within the alternative school, who wanted total independence for programmatic design. Regardless of the approach used by administrators, support for the development and maintenance of educational options must be demonstrable to the total community. It is only support of this nature which will enable the providers and consumers of education to perceive a conducive environment for the development of options and to proceed to use all possible resources to achieve that goal.

Issues of Equity and Choice for Teachers and Administrators

Participation in the development of options is useful to teachers if it helps them grow professionally. Possible rewards in terms of personal power, increased skills and enhanced self-image should be evident to teachers as they are being recruited. Administrators alone are empowered to make these assurances for teachers. They must demonstrate to teachers, parents and students that these rewards are adequate to the demands placed upon them, if these groups are to feel any ownership in the options. To feel "good" about oneself may be one of the most important rewards for participating in options.
Also essential to building a conducive atmosphere for the development of options is the concept of equity. Participants should feel they are being treated fairly and honestly and that they will be given a chance to develop and grow on their own terms. With the kinds of support herein mentioned, administrators can demonstrate to participants, observers and critics that they are committed to the development of alternative forms of education. With such assurances, participants feel secure that their efforts will develop into quality educational programs.
Constituencies represented in the planning process for development of educational options (within urban high schools) include students, parents, teachers and administrators, each in their roles as providers and consumers of the educational delivery system. These planning groups, with whatever technical assistance they require, are responsible for the development of the structure and thematic assignation of options.

Teachers have responsibility, with student and parent input, for the design and development of cognitive and affective curricula both to meet student needs or formulate an organizational structure for the options. These teachers may, as was the case at English High School, choose to develop such curricula in collaboration with a college or university. Whether planning groups develop their options in collaboration with external agencies or not, certain considerations must be contemplated and dealt with before options can be implemented as viable programs. These considerations include, but are not limited to the following.
Identification of the student population is essential to the development of a cogent program, if it is to meet specific student needs. The program must relate to the interest, concerns and problems of its anticipated student population. Bruce Powell, Superintendent of the Tulsa, Oklahoma Public Schools, warned that options, to be successful, must be based on the "emerging needs of students" rather than institutional needs. Failure to heed this advice was seen in early demise of one of the options planned at English High School. The institutional needs (as viewed by teachers) was an emphasis on basic skills. There was only one student in the planning group and minimal student input during the review process. When the option was presented to students, there was insufficient response to warrant its implementation.

The thematic design is an important element since it incorporates student needs into a programmatic direction.

An adequate needs assessment leads to the development of a theme for the option. Translation of these needs into a single theme provides for the evolution of a philosophy for the option, based on the shared beliefs of those involved.

The development of a theme depends on the agreement by all parties on a philosophy for the school. This philosophy should encompass the innate worth of students, social and academic expectations for students, power and limits of power for the individual and group, and the impact of the institution on society, i.e., classism, sexism and racism.

Curriculum

The curriculum of any alternative must contain specific subject matter but must also subsume objectives and activities designed to meet them. Objectives should be designed for students and teachers as well as the program itself. Program objectives are basically institutional goals toward which all other objectives and activities are directed. Objectives reflect the level of competency students and teachers must demonstrate at the end of certain prescribed activities.

Curriculum may be generally defined in two distinct yet intertwined terms--cognitive and affective. Cognitive experiences or courses are based upon subject matter
external to the students themselves. Such experiences are generally academic in nature although, in the true alternative sense, they may not take place in the traditional classroom. Examples of cognitive curricula would be English, Spanish, Algebra, Media, Urban Architecture and Black Studies. Affective, or humanistic, curriculum is that in which students themselves are the subject matter. This curriculum operates on a formal or informal level. On a formal basis an affective curriculum includes courses in values clarification, needs gratification or even organizational development. Interpersonal relationships and the overall humanistic atmosphere of an alternative program comprise the informal affective curriculum. (At the Street Academy of Albany and in the options sponsored by the English High School, students articulated the fact that this affective curriculum, and the humanism displayed by teachers, was the significant difference between the option and the traditional setting.)

**Governance Processes**

The governance of educational options is a cooperative group process in contrast to the "top-down" approach common to traditional schools. The individual teacher and student must assume responsibility for their actions. To achieve this goal, one must assume power over one's life.
This internalized approach to self-determination contrasts with the external structures used to maintain order and discipline in most traditional settings. Options typically use town meetings to communicate and govern. The concept of one person one voice one vote permits students, teachers, administrators and parents to voice their concerns and opinions as well as providing them with an opportunity to participate in the decision-making process.

The structure and governance of faculty meetings is another level of decision-making that is crucial to the success of options. Faculty meetings are useful for discussion of curricular matters, policy issues and agenda items unresolved at the town meeting. Planning for staff meetings should include some device to encourage full participation from all faculty. If the administrator or teacher-in-charge dominates meetings, other faculty members may not perceive an atmosphere of dialogue and cooperative decision-making. Feelings of ownership and responsibility will not be fostered under such conditions.

Rotating chairpersons, timekeepers, facilitators and open-ended brainstorming are devices which may provide full participation by all staff members. The rotating chairperson ensures that faculty members have an opportunity to present their views. The facilitator's
role is that of the participant-observer; this resource person can interrupt the meetings to make participants aware of group dynamics. (For example, the group may be thwarting the efforts of one individual to present his or her views.) Brainstorming allows all ideas to be put forth without fear of immediate censure or negative comment. Whatever the devices used, the decision-making model should be well-defined and above-board. This makes for a clear understanding of the process of governance and reduces the possibility of hidden agendas.

Organizational Structure

Decisions need to be made about structure of the option, including class or activity format, daily schedule, off-campus activities and relationship to the traditional daily schedule—eight class periods of 45 minutes each, a 22-minute lunch period, 5 minutes filing time between class and a 15-minute morning homeroom period. The only deviation from that schedule may be for assembly programs, final exams, late buses, etc. For options to co-exist in this type of structure, it is necessary to determine the needs of the program, develop organizational framework compatible with those needs, and if possible, adjust
the traditional program so it accommodates the structure of the option. The latter is rarely possible since the traditional structure is of a more ponderous size than the option.

Options may have a schedule unlike that of the traditional program. Students in the option require more mobility than their counterparts. Teachers schedules in the options reflect the needs of their students rather than the organizational needs of the larger institution. The Urban Studies Center and the MASH Program derived their own schedules and organizational patterns which were approved by the Headmaster of English High School. Students were given passes to enable them to come and go freely. Faculty and staff in the traditional program were fully informed of this development to avoid potential conflict.

Another example of organizational diversity was found at the Street Academy of Albany. Each of these mini-schools had a different thrust and maintained individual schedules and administrative structures.

Selection of Teachers

The staffing of the options is crucial to their success. Optimally, teachers should volunteer to participate. They should, however, be selected carefully, for not all teachers can teach in an alternative situation.
A representative group of providers and consumers should be involved in the selection process; students, parents, teachers and administrators all have a stake in this process.

At the Street Academy of Albany, candidates were interviewed by all constituencies, both individually and collectively. At times, the community board reviewed the candidates. All potential teachers were required to teach a "sample" lesson to a class; that performance was reviewed and judged against others. The candidates selected would then be presented to the Superintendent for hire. Street Academy initially enjoyed this latitude because it was an independent school within the school district. When the relationship with the school district was formalized, this selection process was maintained by consent of the Albany Teacher's Union.

At English High School, the Headmaster announced teaching vacancies in the options so that any teacher could apply. Once applications were submitted each applicant would spend a day in the program and be interviewed by faculty and students. The faculty of the option would nominate a desired candidate to the Headmaster, who would approve the nomination and forward his decision to Associate Superintendent, Personnel. This procedure
was in compliance with contractual agreements negotiated by the Boston Teacher's Union and the Boston School Committee.

Rudolph Crew, in his discussion on teacher selection, pointed out that:

Although there is no established rule for the selection of a quality teaching staff, several key characteristics of prospective candidates have seemed significant for good teaching. These basic characteristics should be combined with other criteria developed by members of the particular option. Significant characteristics include: 1) enjoyment of teaching, of students, and of people in general; 2) skill and expertise in a particular subject area; 3) ability and genuine interest in working with all students and other colleagues in a variety of learning experiences; 4) flexibility and openness to new ideas, including those ideas which foster student and parent participation in the learning process; 5) the ability to be sensitive and responsive to students who represent different ethnic backgrounds; 6) ability to understand the teacher's role in combating racism and sexism within urban schools. 59

Crew added that to the extent possible, the racial and sexual composition of the faculty should reflect that of the student body, as the student population of the option should reflect the composition of the school-at-large.

Evaluation

Options will be scrutinized and evaluated by individuals and groups for different purposes. Building administrators and local boards of control will monitor the success or failure of options to determine continuance or termination. Those involved in the option should develop their own evaluation design, based on the needs and objectives of the program. The evaluation process should gather pertinent information for the improvement or modification of the program; the goal of the evaluation process should be constructive, determining the extent to which objectives have been met.

Evaluation should be both formative and summative, providing critical information at designated periods during the implementation of the option, so that deficiencies may be corrected. The terminal evaluation should serve as a summation of the option's progress in meeting its objectives on a continuing basis.

Since options generally have to "prove" themselves, students in the options should be obligated to meet the requirements of the school districts. These may include graduation requirements. The academic requirement of most school districts must be considered as the minimal assurance of study competency. Options may also develop
requirements of their own, based on the social and academic skills needed by students to successfully compete in society.

Professor Ronald Edmunds of Harvard University warned that the recent emphasis by districts on evaluation of the minimal competencies attained by students may be ill-advised. He stated that issues of equity must be recognized if requirements of minimal competency are to be properly established. If these issues are not dealt with, such requirements will place an unfair burden on students while ignoring the schools' responsibility to provide them with the skills needed to acquire these competencies. Minority youth will suffer disproportionately if equity is not a priority with regard to minimal competency. Edmunds proposed six standards to address these issues:

1. Student competency begins with a description of those bodies of knowledge and sets of skills that describe mastery of the level of schooling to be assessed. There must be very substantial parent and citizen participation in describing those competencies if they are to be legitimate. It is especially important that poor and minority parents be represented for otherwise they are denied the opportunity to influence the uses to which the schools are to be put.

2. The tests of the student competency should measure what the schools actually teach. There is cause for the gravest concern if it can be shown that the schools' instructional purpose is not directed to those bodies of knowledge and sets of skills that describe student competency.
3. The student competencies should be multi-cultural. This means that minorities, when required to demonstrate certain masteries, should be assessed partly on the basis of their familiarity with their own culture. This also means that minimum familiarity can reasonably be expected of the cultural majority. The absence of this multi-cultural dimension may constitute prima facia evidence of discrimination in the construction and implementation of a competency program.

4. If the competencies are going to be a prerequisite to graduation or otherwise represent a potential student penalty, then the competencies must be implemented in phases. No student or teacher can properly be judged on student mastery of competencies until the student has had reasonable time to learn the competencies and the teacher has had reasonable time to teach the competencies. In practical terms this means that competencies that are required for high school graduation must be phased in over several years.

5. In school districts that require competency mastery for graduation, student progress must be assessed early and often. Moreover, students must have more than a single opportunity to demonstrate competency mastery.

6. The language of the competency program must clearly establish that responsibility for competency mastery is shared by student and school. My major research is intended to demonstrate the easy educability of elementary age children in basic school skills independent of pupil family background. My own judgment is that for school purposes family background rises in importance as the student grows older.60

Teachers and administrators involved with options should be aware of these issues. While it is advisable to

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require students to meet the mandates of local districts, such requirements must be implemented in an equitable manner if students are to view options as fair and equitable programs.

The Final Consideration--Innovation without Major Disruption

The advantage of introducing alternative programs is that dysfunctional behavioral regularities, i.e., restrictive student-teacher interactions, suspensions, failures and dropouts, can be discarded and new programmatic and behavioral regularities introduced without changing or challenging the existing regularities of the entire school. Sarason posited that:

Any attempt to introduce an important change in the school culture requires changing existing regularities to produce new intended outcomes. In practice, the regularities tend not to be changed and the intended outcomes therefore cannot occur, that is, the more things change the more they remain the same.61

If the new regularities are successful, the opportunity exists for implementation on a larger scale. If they are unsuccessful these regularities can be modified or discarded without a major upheaval of the entire organization.

61 Sarason, The Culture of the School, p. 63.
CHAPTER IV
THE VALUE OF COLLABORATION

Once the planning of options has been initiated, school based personnel (primarily teachers and administrators) involved in the implementation of options should consider available resources. Collaborations with colleges, businesses, cultural and medical institutions benefited the Street Academy of Albany and English High School in Boston.

Collaborations with external institutions may also bring fresh and innovative approaches to the persistent problems of urban high schools. Teachers and administrators have grown weary of trying to solve problems of irrelevant curriculum, absenteeism, apathy, alienation and vandalism. New partners may bring fresh enthusiasm to the school situation. Such institutions have generally been successful at their specialty because, unlike urban public schools, they limit the scope of their activities and responsibilities to areas in which they have expertise.
College Collaborations

Colleges and universities have an integral role in the improvement of curriculum and development of options. They can provide valuable consultative services in areas of alternative education, curriculum development, humanistic education, staff development and teacher training, magnet education, as well as traditional academic offerings. These institutions can provide direct services to students by enlisting student teachers and providing advanced placement courses. Additionally, teacher participation in a degree program provides some coherence to the curriculum and staff development efforts. The theoretical base of the campus is allied with the reality of the public school.

In Boston, these kinds of collaboration were incorporated into the desegregation order of the Federal District Court, State of Massachusetts. Each high school was paired with a college and university, often to support magnet, alternative or "special" programs offered by the school. These collaborations were to develop programs which offered students and parents a choice of educational programming. The court hoped to encourage voluntary desegregation in this fashion; a goal which has been achieved in most of the magnet schools in Boston.
The element of choice is also essential to the concept of options. English High School has maintained collaborations with three universities for the direct support of magnet and/or alternative programs. The University of Massachusetts program of studies described that collaboration:

The first college-high school partnership offered in Boston was that between the University of Massachusetts and the English High School. The express purpose of this collaboration was the development of options within the traditional school framework:

The University of Massachusetts and the Boston Public Schools seek to bring together the forces of SCHOOL AND UNIVERSITY at the new school on Avenue Louis Pasteur not merely to prove the effectiveness of such a collaborative but primarily to give new direction and vitality to Boston's secondary education program and to furnish a dynamic learning environment for students or the city. . . .The educational program of the English High School. . .will be based on the following basic guidelines:

a. The School will offer a wide variety of curriculum options, with a latitude of student choices. . .

b. Students will assume increasing responsibility for their own learning with opportunities provided to work in small group activities and independent study. . .

c. Educational resources--personnel and material will be easily accessible to all students. Learning materials will be constantly developed by students and teachers.

d. Opportunities will be provided to introduce a variety of student-teacher interactions and arrangements within the context of appropriate
student-teacher ratios. The individual initiatives of the teacher will be encouraged. 62

This collaboration facilitated the development of MASH, the health careers alternative, and a revamped Urban Studies Center. Professors from the University offered graduate courses to teachers and administrators and supported the development and sustenance of options. More importantly, the interaction between faculties fostered an atmosphere at the high school for experimentation with alternative forms of education, opening the way for additional collaborations with colleges, businesses, and cultural institutions.

English High School also implemented a collaboration with Brandeis University for theater arts. This program was an alternative to the traditional program and 200 students had the opportunity to experience a professional experience in theater arts. Professional theater people were hired as instructors rather than classroom teachers. Students had quality instruction in acting, voice, playwriting, directing and technical theater,

62 University of Massachusetts, Amherst, Proposed Collaboration Effort Between the Boston Public Schools and the School of Education at the University of Massachusetts, Amherst, 1974.
although the thrust of the program was not to train professional actors.

As in all the options, students retained their right of access to core subjects and the extensive extracurricular programs offered at the high school. The staff integrated the theatrical experience with the study of other disciplines and assisted young people with "the awakening of self" during the difficult adolescent period. 63 The elements of choice and power were present in the philosophy of the Theater Arts Magnet Program. The objective of the program were similar to those of other options. "Growth of the student's human resources through an awareness of self, others and the physical environment. Development of self-discipline, self-evaluation, objectivity and cooperation. . . ." 64

The Massachusetts College of Art and the English High School developed an option in fine arts. The program was developed for three types of students, 1) those pursuing a course of study in visual arts, 2) those involved


64 Brandeis University, "Theater Arts are Bidding for Stronger Education Role," Brandeis University Bulletin, 6 February 1976.
in other options who "wish to enrich that program by participating in the art program," and 3) those who had not yet chosen a course of study whom might "use the art program to get in touch with ideas and feelings toward themselves, others and the world."65

These three major collaborations offered options to the traditional program at English High School. Students exercised choice in the selection of their academic program before final selection. Several students enrolled in an option and continued to take courses in the traditional program. In this manner, students accommodated their interests and the necessities of their traditional academic programs. There was a feeling of community in these options due to their smallness, informality and humanistic approach. The first real sign of integration in English High School under the desegregation order occurred in the options. According to Christopher Lane, then Assistant Headmaster at English:

The first year, when all our students were zoned (assigned) here, we had plenty of trouble. The past two years have been better. Instead of an element of force, there's an element of choice. We still have problems, but I don't think there are racial problems. When kids get together

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around programmatic things, around what they are interested in, race is no longer a factor.  

Colleges and universities, in collaboration with schools, opened doors to young people which heretofore had been closed. Yet these efforts must be supported by other institutions in the city, such as business and cultural institutions.

This is not to say that such collaborations will be perfect unions. Mistrust historically exists between school systems and colleges. School systems view colleges as research-oriented institutions who want to "rip-off" the schools with little or no benefits to students. Sarason identified additional problems when colleges and universities are introduced into the schools:

In recent years some of the most vocal critics of the school culture have been found in universities, particularly in the areas in the arts and sciences departments. It is unlikely that any aspect of what goes on in the schools has escaped criticism.

School personnel may subsequently harbor feelings of mistrust and disdain toward university personnel. Sarason saw this criticism of the university expressed in the

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following terms: 1) college personnel have no training in teaching; 2) college courses are dull and repetitive; 3) student concerns are not the concerns of the university; 4) college life does not compare to "real life"; 5) the university resists the same type of change it prescribes for the schools; and 6) bureaucratic concerns dominate university life. These feelings of suspicion and mistrust also spill over into relationships with business and cultural institutions.

Business Collaborations

Collaborations with the business community may suffer similar problems to those experienced by the colleges. Businesses are apprehensive schools have tried to press them for financial contributions and jobs for students. Schools feel that the business community has no background in the educational process, is interested in the schools as a public relations ploy, and will withdraw from the schools as soon as problems arise.

An honest exchange of preconceptions can reduce the tension which has existed between schools and their collaborating partners. Early recognition of the limits of each

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68Ibid., p. 17.
partner school can establish a more realistic partnership. School partners can feel comfortable requesting additional resources or technical assistance. With a commitment to urban education and a need for qualified graduates, colleges and universities are prepared to provide a heretofore unavailable assistance to urban high schools.

The Street Academy of Albany depended upon both the colleges and business communities as resources for their basic curriculum. The directors of the Academy met with representatives of each institutional resource and described what behavior might be expected of students. Street Academy representatives sought honest responses from the colleges and businesses with regard to possibilities and possible restrictions of the programs. This atmosphere allowed open dialogue between the school and its collaborative partners. The institutions made suggestions for new curriculum, organizational revisions, and programmatic innovations. Those institutions which assisted Street Academy were originally petitioned for financial contributions. Companies willingly contributed because they felt that money spent to return these young dropouts and potential dropouts to the educational process would be considerably less than would be required if, as adults,
they remained outside the mainstream of society, uneducated, jobless and without hope. The larger companies also provided services which the Street Academy could not provide on its own, such as volunteer teachers, classroom space, job placements, printing and xerox costs, secretarial services, and capital equipment. Perhaps the most significant contribution of business was the legitimacy they gave the struggling alternative school in the eyes of the community. The support of the traditionally conservative business community offset the reluctance of the Albany Board of Education to adopt the Street Academy.

English High School initiated a business/high school partnership with the John Hancock Life Insurance Company. This collaboration and others were so successful that Federal District Court Judge Garrity made them part of his Phase II desegregation order of May 10, 1975. Judge Garrity considered collaborations to be the most innovative part of his court order. In July, 1974, the ground rules of the partnership had been established; the business community would assist the schools in providing quality education for the school children of Boston:

Most high school students delay their search for a career until after graduation. Often this is because they are unfamiliar with what the business world has to offer. As a result many students end up searching for a career by trial and error.
Some of the chance has been taken out of (the) career decision(s) thanks to a growing partnership between the English High School and the John Hancock Mutual Life Insurance Company. The partnership is based on the belief that a realistic view of the world of careers is as much a part of education as preparation in mathematics, history and English.\(^6^9\)

In the future interests of society and in their own self-interest, John Hancock has lent its considerable resources to English High to upgrade its educational program and develop alternative programs. The initial deliberations were unique in the open and frank quality of the discussions.

Representatives of both institutions recognized the pitfalls and strengths of such collaborations and resolved to build the relationship on honesty and information-sharing. John Hancock made it clear that there were two areas that they felt they could not negotiate—extensive job placements for students and substantial expenditure of funds. These were the areas where the company felt a lack of latitude; burdensome requests from the school in these areas would have damaged potential business-school relationships. Therefore, school officials avoided making unreasonable demands in these areas.

For its part, English High School felt it lent John Hancock some perspective on where students, as potential employees, were coming from. The company influenced the educational program of the high school to meet the needs of the business community by the infusion of job-related skills into the curriculum, such as electronic office and data processing. Representatives of English High School emphasized that this collaboration could not be a public relations gimmick. Students must profit from enhanced educational programs made possible through the collaboration by actual experience in the market place or by studying business related curriculum.

John Hancock lent its resources to the improvement of curriculum in the following areas:

1. Curriculum revision (Business Department)
2. Employment workshops
3. Electronic data processing
4. Insurance workshops
5. Printing of school documents
6. Non-traditional careers for women
7. Restaurant internship
8. Executive internship
9. Reading workshop
10. Workstudy
11. Journalism workshops
12. Scholarships

13. Career exploration programs.

Options at the high school utilized these resources to supplement the curriculum. MASH made extensive use of the career explorations and career education possibilities of John Hancock. As an employer of 7,000 people, John Hancock maintained its own medical staff. These professionals were eager to assist high school students in their field. Similarly, the Urban Studies Center used the services of the media, law, public relations and education departments.

The Tri-Lateral Council for Quality Education, Inc. was established for the coordination of school/business partnerships. The Council is composed of representatives from three areas: The Greater Boston Chamber of Commerce, the National Alliance of Businessmen and the Boston School Department. (The Private Industry Council (PIC) has since replaced the National Alliance of Businessmen.)

Helping to improve the quality of education in the Boston schools, each public high school has been paired with a business with the Tri-Lateral Council's staff providing support and back-up information for the special programs conducted in each partnership.  

The ultimate benefit of business collaborations is their capacity to address specific needs of the individual, program or school. This is the flexibility which makes such collaborations so valuable to those involved in options.

**Collaboration with Cultural Institutions**

Cultural institutions lend support to the development and maintenance of options by establishing collaborative partnerships with these organizations. Institutions such as museums, architectural centers and theater and dance companies enhance the educational delivery system of both options and the traditional programs by extending their resources to these programs and/or encouraging student use of institutional facilities and resources. Traditionally, cultural institutions have offered courses to students who are preparing for advanced study. Museum schools are the most obvious example of this approach.

There are thematic relationships between cultural institutions and several alternative programs. Students in fine arts options receive additional training in museum schools and build their portfolios. Theater and dance companies serve as training grounds for students by providing opportunities for performance. Exposure to the professional members of these institutions develops an
artistic and cultural awareness in these students. Students attain a level of experience lacking in most school programs by working with artists and other professionals in cultural institutions.

Cultural institutions can offer rich experiences to those students who have chosen other options. Students who may not take advantage of the cultural resources of their community can be exposed to a new dimension of experience through these collaborations. Many cultural institutions have accepted the challenge of bringing America's cultural heritage to young people who might otherwise ignore it.

Coordination of the Collaboratives

School administrators using the collaborative model will perceive a need for a mechanism to coordinate the interrelationships between collaborating parties. Without coordination, the efforts of collaborating partners could be duplicative of one another. Consequently, participating institutions may become frustrated and/or discouraged and withdraw their vital support. The ideal situation is one in which teachers report the options' needs to the building administrator, who then assesses the resources of collaborating institutions and designs a structure for their effective use.
The English High School adopted alternative education as its magnet theme and developed options through collaboration with colleges, businesses and cultural institutions. The theme of the school was designated by the acronym M.O.D.E.L. which stood for Method of Developing Effective Learning. The MODEL concept demonstrated the commitment of the administration and faculty to address the needs of their student population by providing "options by which all students may complete their high school education."\textsuperscript{71} The MODEL concept was accepted as the official theme of English High School by a formal vote of the faculty in 1976.

Thematic concepts such as MODEL cannot guarantee the coordination of valued collaborative programs. Administrators need to define this responsibility in terms of their commitment to alternative education and open campus experiences. At English High School, the MODEL concept was designed by the Headmaster and the Flexible Campus Coordinator and supported by faculty, students, parents and collaborative partners. The Flexible Campus

\textsuperscript{71}The English High School Method of Developing Effective Learning, Introduction, 1977.
Office was designated as the structure responsible for the coordination of all collaborations and options. Initiated by the Boston Public Schools during a period of student unrest and dissatisfaction in 1971, the Flexible Campus Program was designed to expand the curriculum of Boston's high schools and as the forerunner of the MODEL program it seemed the logical choice for coordination of the opportunity-expanding collaborations.

The Flexible Campus Program is an alternative approach to the traditional classroom learning situation. The program is designed to allow each participant school the flexibility to develop programs both on and off campus in an effort to better meet the changing needs and interests of their students. There is no master plan for the city's high schools. Rather, there is a district plan for each school, although there are more similarities than differences among the programs of each school.\(^2\)

The Flexible Campus Coordinator already had the experience of placement of students in educational and workstudy situations outside the traditional curriculum. The Coordinator was assigned the additional responsibility for options and supportive collaborations. The total resources of the community would be brought together under the umbrella of the Flexible Campus Coordinator to provide

students and teachers with choice, flexibility, and the opportunity for self-direction. The Coordinator was responsible for: 1) the creation of a policy board for each collaboration, 2) the creation of an advisory group, composed of representatives from all the collaborations, for monitoring the various MODELS, and 3) coordination and supervision of all curriculum development efforts in the school.

An example of the successful implementation of this approach was the staff development effort offered by the University of Massachusetts, Amherst and funded by the John Hancock Life Insurance Company. Teachers in various options were concerned over the low reading skills of many of their students and their own (the teachers') inability to teach reading skills through the content area. This concern was reported to the Flexible Campus Coordinator who, in turn, shared it with the Headmaster. The school system could not provide assistance to teachers or students. The Headmaster and the Flexible Campus Coordinator approached the representatives of the University of Massachusetts for assistance. The University proposed to offer a course in reading in the content area to interested faculty members.

The Headmaster wanted to ensure maximum participation in the course by teachers and sought financing to
pay for tuition fees and educational materials for all participants. The University could not absorb the cost of the course. The John Hancock Life Insurance Company agreed to fund the course. Each partner brought their resources—technical expertise from the University partner and financial support from the business partner—to bear upon a problem, providing teachers in several options with an opportunity to acquire essential teaching skills.

Administrators will want to create a structure of their own for the coordination of options and collaborations. A director of alternative education at the building level is another possibility for this effort. Regardless of the format, the importance of institutionalizing this coordinative capacity cannot be overstressed. If institutional changes, in the form of options, are to thrive and grow within public school systems, supportive mechanisms must be firmly established and sanctioned by building administrators. Although individual commitment is essential to any change process, formal recognition of support mechanisms is also mandatory if changes are to be a permanent component of urban secondary education.
CHAPTER V
MAINTENANCE OF A SUPPORTIVE ENVIRONMENT FOR OPTIONS

The administrator's tasks only begin with the development and implementation of options. Although considerable energy is expended by all involved administrators need concomitantly to initiate efforts for the maintenance of a supportive atmosphere for these new programs. Options, as any innovation, must be given a chance to grow and experiment, fail and succeed, if they are to be properly assessed as potential solutions to a lack of choice and power within schools.

Administrators will have to deal with two main issues in the evolution of options: 1) establishing and maintaining an atmosphere conducive to the sustenance of the options, and 2) maintaining the motivation, drive and energy of teachers in the options and/or preventing teacher burnout endemic to alternative school personnel. The latter issue is obviously related to the former. Teachers can become frustrated by having to cope with typical bureaucratic obstacles of urban high schools while they are developing new programs.
Maintaining the Atmosphere

Building administrators must cope with several potential obstacles if options are to develop beyond initial implementation. Teachers in options need the support of administrators to overcome hurdles which the teachers themselves cannot handle alone. They should not have to handle these concerns alone; their energies should be directed to the continuing development of programs which respond to their needs and those of their students. In addition, building administrators must respond to issues of professional atmosphere, adequate financial support, and bureaucratic concerns (dealing with unions, the school department and state education offices).

The Supportive Environment

Veteran teachers and administrators claim that they can tell a good school within a few minutes after entering the building. Similarly the author claimed that a supportive environment for a change process is equally apparent to the experienced eye. The components of the supportive environment are 1) an aura of respect among students, teachers and administrators, 2) involvement of the total school community in school activities, 3) sharing of power by the administrator with students, teachers and parents.
and 4) a relaxed atmosphere. If the administrator has actively sought the involvement of students, parents, teachers and others (colleges and businesses), these groups should feel that their input and participation are respected because they have valuable experiences. This is manifested in a sharing of governance and power by the administrator.

What does the supportive environment look like? Students, teachers, parents and administrators should feel relaxed in the school. There should be little evidence of the confrontative atmosphere prevalent in many urban high schools and less vandalism, extortion and student and teacher assaults. Students should demonstrate pride in their environment and themselves and should feel that their educational program has value for them. Teachers should feel that they have the support of administrators to experiment, grow and direct and/or govern the teaching-learning situation. Parents should feel that they can approach the school with no fear of rejection or condescension.

At Street Academy of Albany students, teachers, parents, administrators, community residents, community board members and school department personnel had open access since it was their school. New ideas were advanced without fear of intimidation as dialogue between parties was encouraged. The supportive environment at Street Academy
was best summed up in the main rule of governance: No one had the right to disrupt the learning of others.

The English High School was too large to permit the same flow of traffic as was seen at Street Academy. The supportive environment consisted of the ability of the members of the school community to have access to the Headmaster. Innovation was encouraged for the positive impact that it could have on students and teachers. The administrator was willing to negotiate, share power, publicly support programs, exhibit flexibility and pay the personal costs of support for a nurturing environment for educational change.

The elements described at Street Academy and English High School constitute the supportive environment or atmosphere which allow school persons to feel comfortable in their environment. If participants feel good about themselves and their environment and sense that they have some power over their lives, then they can be encouraged to participate in innovative activities. They can be solicited to take a chance on the development of alternative programs.
Creation of a New Atmosphere Among Professionals in the Options

Role expectations and peer relationships impact on administrators and teachers interested in creating a positive atmosphere which is of relevance to the status of professional relationships between teachers in options and those in the traditional program (although the traditional program may be seen as one "option among equals" by administrators, teachers in the traditional program may not share that view). Teachers in new programs have an opportunity to establish new forms of both personal and professional relationships with each other. Faced with new challenges and the possibility of a rejuvenated sense of collegial roles, these teachers can develop supportive relationships both within their own options and with teachers in other programs. These relationships, known as affinity groups, may be formal and informal. Teachers may feel free to discuss new strategies to teaching, student and faculty concerns, philosophical issues and even personal problems. Traditional barriers to communication and support can be overcome by feelings of empathy and shared commitment.

Administrators must provide time and opportunity for the development of these new relationships. Retreat, such as used by the clergy for reflection and rejuvenation,
might allow time to establish new lines of communication. If necessary, a consultant might assist them in group-building exercises. Additional time for this purpose will be required throughout the life of the options. Opportunity for communication, curriculum development, student and staff assessment and program monitoring should be provided on a daily basis. Administrators may choose to participate in this dialogue as a demonstration of their support and in their roles as members of the total school community.

Professional Relationship within the Total School Community

Staff members in the options will participate in self-assessment and evaluation of each other. Their ownership of the programs as well as their responsibility for the social and emotional growth of their students dictate a high level of expectation and commitment. To withstand the correspondingly intense evaluation process, teachers should have access to substantive peer support. This support can assist teachers in relationships with their peers in the traditional programs. Relationships may become strained as teachers in traditional programs view those in options as having lower student-teacher ratios, lighter teaching schedules and greater flexibility. New
programs also attract attention and arouse resentment from others who perceive that they are also "doing their jobs". Administrators and the teachers in options must define and sustain a new and positive professional atmosphere in the school. Administrators must provide faculty meetings or release time during which all members of the school community can learn about the concept of new options, the efforts of the teachers in those options and progress to date in meeting their goals. Administrators must also assure teachers in the traditional programs of their stature in the school's professional community and their rightful place in the framework of options.

When traditional teachers discover the sacrifices alternative teachers make for their increased power and flexibility, their jealousy may be reduced. Teaching in options may involve home visits, employment counseling, job placement and guidance counseling—activities which are not required of traditional teachers (although obviously some teachers routinely perform these activities).

If traditional teachers perceive educational value in other options and experience senses of inclusion and collaboration, they can be enlisted in the overall effort. Dr. William White, Director of Instructional Planning and Development, Jefferson County Public Schools, Lakewood, Colorado, encountered this phenomenon while examining the
fiscal structures of alternative schools. In discussing the relationship between traditional and alternative teachers and the extra effort put forth by teachers in options, he observed that when teachers in the "regular" school program see the positive results of the efforts of alternative teachers, they are often willing to perform additional tasks to "free up" the alternative teacher. Professional collaboration and commitment, coupled with a sense of understanding, can reduce feelings of frustration and alienation felt by all teachers in a new situation.

Adequate Financial Support for Options

The unique thematic and programmatic directions of options may require additional financial support. Program development workshops for students, parents, teachers and administrators and the retreats for staff development bring additional cost to the school. Thematic designs such as performing or fine arts may demand special, expensive materials which the traditional program does not require. Initially, consultants may provide skills unavailable with existing personnel, while building a capacity for such

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skills within the staff so that teachers can become more independent and self-reliant. Options may need contingency or petty cash funds which can be used with greater flexibility than other school funds.

Administrators must acquire the funds necessary to provide options with these resources, although teachers may assist in applications for external funding. Administrators have four major sources of funding for innovative approaches to the education of urban high school students, 1) local funds and state reimbursements, 2) state and federal grants, 3) private foundations and 4) collaborations.

Ninety percent of the funding for public schools comes from local tax dollars and/or reimbursements by state governments, legislation for local educational aid formulas.\textsuperscript{74} These funds are generally allocated to the schools by the central district administration on a per capita basis (in other words, according to student enrollment). New options should get their share of these funds based on their enrollments. The distribution of funds is within the usual scope of authority of most building administrators.

\textsuperscript{74}Gentry et al., \textit{Urban Education}, p. 92.
Standard purchasing procedures hinder alternative programs which require consummables and unusual materials and/or expenditures. Modifications in requisition and purchasing procedures must be negotiated by building administrators such as the ability to "walk through" requisitions for essential options, thereby acquiring necessary approvals within one day.

School business managers may accept the establishment of a small contingency fund provided the building administrators accept full responsibility for the fund and adopt sound business practices of accountability. Administrators should address these issues before the implementation of the options and negotiate any alternative procedures with school district business officials.

Most of the remaining ten percent of funding for public schools is provided by state and federal government grants. These funds include entitlement funds and categorical aid. The former constitutes monies granted to local school districts on the basis of demonstrated need on the part of a segment of the school population. Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965, for example, provides funds for those students who reside in "poverty areas" and are two or more years behind their peer group in reading ability.
State and federal agencies foster innovation through the provision of categorical aid to school systems. Under these programs, school systems may write proposals in application for grants by category, ESEA Title III (now Title IVc) offered local school districts the opportunity to apply for funding for innovative projects. The Emergency School Assistance Act (ESAAA) provided school districts undergoing desegregation the opportunity to experiment with innovative approaches to that problem.

The "Rand Change Agent Study," in their study of four federally sponsored programs for educational innovation, found that "promoting innovations...accounts for approximately ten percent of the federal aid to public schools which currently exceeds $3.5 billion annually." These programs rested on common assumptions:

...that American education should be doing better with respect to a variety of goals ranging from special objectives, such as student reading achievement, to the broad concerns of student personality and social development. They also assume that educational practices, procedures, and methods can be improved within the existing educational structure.75


76 Ibid., p. 2.
Federal funds are usually awarded to local educational agencies (LEA), or school systems through state education departments. These innovative funds provide "seed money" to school districts for experimentation which the districts might not otherwise be able to fund. If successful, it is anticipated that school districts will continue programs started in this manner. 77

Administrators who wish to experiment with options may be able to obtain funds for the development of these programs or for additional resources needed for proper execution of a unique curriculum. Some administrators have freed a teacher to write proposals for these funds. Since these applications require the approval of the superintendent and local school boards, administrators will have to develop strategies to obtain such approvals. If these superordinates have approved the concept of options for the high school, they should welcome the opportunity to acquire funds from sources other than the local tax dollar.

To a lesser extent, state education departments may offer funding for the development of educational innovation. Such funding may be tied to the use of alternative or magnet programs as vehicles for voluntary desegregation of schools. In Massachusetts, the State Department

77 Ibid., p. 24.
of Education has offered monies for the development of magnet programs under Chapter 636 of the General Laws of the Commonwealth. These funds, largely allocated to the cities of Boston and Springfield, provide the funding for all university collaborations and options at English High School.

Philanthropic institutions were directly involved in the funding of private alternative schools in the 1960s and early 1970s. The Ford Foundation, Rockefeller Brothers Fund, the Exxon Foundation and others "bankrolled" the efforts of many independent alternative schools.

Private foundations generally will not provide direct funds for public school systems since these systems are supported by tax dollars. Robert Wood, Superintendent of the Boston Public Schools, circumvented this problem by creating a private fund, the Fund for the Boston Public Schools. Monies were sought from private individuals and foundations, to be used with greater flexibility than local tax dollars, for the improvement of education in the Boston Public Schools through innovative and experimental programming. Initiated in the first quarter of 1979, it is too early to assess the success of this venture.

Urban high school administrators could lobby for their fair share of these monies, as limited as they may be. Aggressive and proactive administrators can get more than
their share of such monies by being prepared with innovative and unique approaches (including options) to high school problems and by presenting them to the Superintendent at a timely opportunity.

Some collaborative partners, especially businesses, may provide financial assistance as well. At English High School, the John Hancock Life Insurance Company not only paid for the reading course for teachers but also funded the following:

--a career awareness/job opportunities program for female students
--an annual one-week program in Washington, D.C. during which students studied the federal government
--a workstudy program
--two annual $1,000 scholarships for students
--printing of brochures, literary magazines, student handbooks, etc.

These programs and other opportunities for students cost the company approximately $25,000 per year. Since these funds were expended for the total student body, students in options received their share as well as additional resources provided them upon request by the collaborative partners.

Sufficient funds exist for the development and sustenance of options provided high school administrators
are aggressive in their pursuit of financial support. Some funding is automatically provided. Other funding is contingent upon a proactive stance by the administrator toward the acquisition of funding to meet the unique needs of options.

**Bureaucratic Concerns**

The development of a supportive environment for options may also face challenges from bureaucratic "red tape" and/or organizational requirements. Simply put, innovations are likely to conflict with standard operating procedures in the bureaucracy.

As options develop, administrators will have to overcome these obstacles and/or develop systems of mutual accommodation between options and existing regularities. Areas of concern generally include school system regulations, state education department requirements and local teacher's union/school board contractual relationships. Each has the potential for hampering the progress of options as well as the power to prohibit their implementation. A brief description of the specific problems each brings to the maintenance of options and suggested offsetting strategies may help clarify this concern.

Most school systems are traditional bureaucracies designed to provide a sense of order in modern society.
Katz pointed out that the bureaucratic form triumphed as the phototypical organization for school systems in the 1800s and remains virtually unchanged today. Designed to meet the needs of an urban industrial society, schools were developed to prepare young people for commerce. Urban high schools were designed as the first structures for centralization of schooling and school authority. School systems have spent the past one hundred years refining and strengthening that bureaucracy.

Urban high schools have also solidified their organizational framework. Most urban, comprehensive high schools present a similar picture—five day-a-week course schedules, 40-45 minute periods, five minutes for filing and a six hour day. Generally the teaching staff is divided into departments by subject area, with a department head who supervises teachers and reports to the principal. Since most options are established on the dual premises of flexibility and self-determination, they conflict with existing regularities of the school system.

78 Katz, Class, Bureaucracy and Schools, pp. 32-3.
79 Ibid., p. 34.
Superintendents and local boards of control usually have regulations concerning teacher certification, student tardiness and attendance, local curriculum requirements, discipline and fiscal accountability. These offer some sense of order to the district as a whole but may seriously hamper the growth of students and staff in options. Most school systems, for example, require teachers to have certification in their subject area. Unique situations in some options and the special themes of others may call for teaching outside areas of certification (although teachers may finally get a chance to explore areas where their interests and expertise may lie) and/or the hiring of persons to teach who are uncertified or who will teach in areas where certification does not exist.

Guidelines should exist for qualified teaching personnel and staff members working with students should be of the highest possible caliber. If uncertified, they should be given a certain period of time to obtain certification. The question here is one of flexibility, the flexibility to match the most qualified teacher with the most appropriate teaching situation.

Any bureaucracy has difficulty dealing with crisis, uncertainty and ambiguity. If building administrators do not anticipate the concerns of the bureaucrats, they will be challenged at the frontier of innovation. Allaying the
fears of bureaucrats allows building administrators to negotiate difficult areas of control and flexibility in a manner which the bureaucracy can handle without fear of resistance. Administrators may be required, however, to assume a greater personal responsibility for any consequences of these exceptions than they would under normal circumstances.

Requirements of the State Education Department

The State Education Department generally sets minimum educational standards for local school systems within a particular state. Local school systems address these standards in acceptable fashion or risk the loss of state aid and reimbursement. State education departments generally set standards in the areas of:

--- student attendance
--- minimum curriculum requirements (including vocational education, bilingual and special education)
--- graduation requirements
--- school calendar year
--- teacher and administrator certification

State education departments have become involved in establishing standards for basic skill competency, mandating programs which ensure that students will have certain levels of literacy and competency before graduation from high school.
Options usually encounter difficulty with state education departments in the areas of curriculum requirements, school calendar and teacher/administrator certification. Due to the unique approach some options adopt in meeting the needs of students, strict adherence to state standards might hamper the programs. Administrators can negotiate these points with state education representatives. Within the requirements of legal statutes, sufficient latitude may exist for compromise.

Many state "requirements" may carry no legal mandate. Teacher certification is a good example of this point. The state education department sets the criteria for and awards the actual certification. In some states, New York and Massachusetts for example, local school systems can apply for waivers or emergency exemptions for uncertified teachers they wish to hire. Generally, these teachers must acquire certification within a specified period.

Curriculum requirements may be another area where supposition is not necessarily fact. Most state curriculum guides specify what should be taught. In New York, the Board of Regents goes so far as to prepare tests in various high school subject areas which students must pass to receive a Regents academic diploma. State education agencies do not dictate how material should be taught. This fact should enable teachers in options to be creative in
their teaching approaches, adapting or individualizing their methods to meet the learning styles of their students.

Local Teachers' Unions

The status of the relationship between the teachers' unions and the local school board may have an impact on the development and implementation of options. This relationship includes the current standing of contractual negotiations with respect to teaching conditions. As the end of the contract period nears, confrontation heightens to the extent that no quarter is given. The period following ratification is an excellent time to seek accommodation on educational issues.

The level of commitment required of teachers in options exceeds the boundaries defined by the teachers' contracts. Teachers in alternative programs may be characterized as having longer hours and heavier work and work-related schedules than their traditional counterparts. Teachers' contracts generally specify the length of the work day, the maximum number of periods to be taught, the extent of non-academic assignments and maximum class size. With the exception of class size (the average class size in options is smaller than in the traditional program), teachers in options, by the nature of their responsibility, are required to exceed these limits.
Teachers' unions may file grievances on behalf of their membership if the perception is that teachers are forced to accept more strenuous working conditions. In principle, the perception is accurate; in fact, it is not. Teachers will work harder because they choose to do so. This commitment should be clearly understood by all parties when teachers are selected for the program. The important point is that teachers may leave the options if they no longer wish to make this commitment. Choice and power remain the essential reasons why teachers participate in options.

The teachers' unions may also criticize the hiring of uncertified teachers, even in the event of a waiver from the state education department. This criticism is generally designed to support job security for current members and should, along with considerations or working conditions in options, be formally or informally negotiated between the union and the local school board. If the timing and the climate are right, supporters of options may want to build appropriate recognition of options into the teachers' contracts. Such exemptions could be negotiated and inserted into the contracts as required. Conversely, the school system may want to establish an informal agreement with the union on pertinent issues. Since working conditions are voluntarily accepted by
alternative teachers, there is really no need for conflict. In fact, these teachers have established the very conditions which violate union contracts.

Summary

If administrators develop a supportive environment for maintenance of options by 1) creating a dynamic and supportive professional atmosphere, 2) providing adequate fiscal resources and 3) reducing or eliminating bureaucratic "red tape", teachers will be able to work in an entirely different manner in exciting new programs. Teachers will spend incredible energy in the evolution of options and that energy should be spent on teaching and professional growth. With fewer obstacles, it may be possible to avoid teacher burnout. Administrators must watch for signs of burnout and plan for "rejuvenation" of teachers at critical points during the year. In any event, administrators must consciously plan for the continuing support of options, and their personnel.
CHAPTER VI
IMPLICATIONS FOR STUDENTS

The introduction of options in large urban high schools has been examined herein for its impact on the total school community--building and central administrators, local school boards, teachers, parents and students. Although emphasis has been directed to the role of building administrators and development of teachers as professionals, the success or failure of options must finally be judged by their ability to answer student needs especially of choice and power. Most large urban high schools have not well served their total student population and cannot do so under their present organizational structure. Options, therefore, must have a positive impact on students in the areas mentioned if they are to be more than a viable addition to traditional comprehensive structures.

Urban high schools (and schools in general) have not changed dramatically in the past one hundred years except in size. The "one best system" has been retained through size increase, so that schools of 3,000 to 5,000 students are now commonplace. Over the same one hundred years, American society has undergone dramatic changes with startling developments in communications, transportation
and electronic technology. Increased urbanization and wide-ranging socioeconomic differences have heightened the inability of transitional urban high schools to adequately educate their students. This failure is best illustrated by the fact that standardized test scores of minority children generally lag behind those of their white counterparts in urban school systems.

Kenneth Clark, and others, concur that American urban education has failed its students. Clark stated:

Study after study has shown that those schools attended by predominantly black, Puerto Rican, Mexican-American and low-income white students are criminally inefficient in providing these students with the type, quality, and effectiveness of education that will make them able to compete with more privileged youngsters at any public, parochial, or private school in this country.\(^\text{80}\)

Nowhere is this failure more dramatically evidenced than in urban high schools. Many students in these schools reach the end of their formal schooling without experiencing either the joy or success they should have. In an increasingly materialistic and success-oriented society these students are acutely aware of the lack of control they have over their lives and futures, and therefore see

themselves, as having little effect on their future (or, interestingly, the future as having no impact on their lives). Alvin Toffler called this the "impersonal future."\(^1\)

During the late 1960s and early 1970s students, especially those in urban areas, reacted to this plight in two manners. Students expressed their dissatisfaction by 1) dropping out of school (although most school systems are guarded about releasing dropout figures, estimates vary from 15 to 30 percent among urban high school students) and 2) becoming disruptive and destructive of school property. Black students are frequently suspended at twice (or more) the rate of white students. In Boston 5,076 suspensions were recorded in high schools between September 1978 and May 1979. Of these, 3,375 or 66 percent were black students and 1,346 or 26 percent were white students.\(^2\) In New York City, Philadelphia, Detroit and Newark, the pattern was similar. Clearly these expressions of dissatisfaction are unacceptable and dysfunctional for students themselves. Yet many perceive their actions

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as the only recourse to the subtleties of racism, the inappropriateness of organization structure and the sameness of curricula and teaching approaches.

Disruption is the most visible sign of protest; dropping out is the ultimate protest, one in which the individual withdraws from a situation which has become intolerable. Albert Hirschman characterized these two responses in the terms of voice and exit, claiming that they result when organizations experience decline. Individuals within organizations have three open to them:

1. **Exit**—individuals leave the organization or otherwise cease to participate in the organization.

2. **Voice**—individuals express their dissatisfaction with the activities of the organization.

3. **Loyalty**—individuals retain their attachment to the organization.  

Hirschman argued that all organizations contain a mixture of these three options and successful managers create an optimal mixture of exit and voice to insure the continuation of the organization. In business the exit option is particularly effective. When consumers become dissatisfied with a product or service and cease purchasing these commodities the business must either address these

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dissatisfactions or go out of business. Even if they continue the product, the voice option (in the form of complaint) will generally produce changes. If not, consumers can still choose the exit option.

In public education, responses by school systems to the use of exit and voice have not been as dramatic as those of their business counterparts. The monopoly which the public schools have on the education in this country blunts the effectiveness of exit and voice. Both responses, if used by students and teachers, have been unacceptable as change agents within the schools. Little or no effort is generally expended to prevent students from dropping out of high school or in recapturing them once they have dropped out. Students' complaints in the 1960s and 1970s often were only heeded after their protests became violent. Under these circumstances, it is inevitable that students will become increasingly frustrated by their lack of choice and/or power.

Since options have been offered as one possible solution to these problems, they must be designed so that they offer students a reasonable opportunity for exercising choice in their education program and a chance to develop skills necessary to exert power over their present and future. The evaluation of these programs, therefore, must address itself to the assessment of their impact on
students and student performance. This impact should be assessed in the areas of:

--Affective growth
--Cognitive growth
--Self-determination
--Ability to interact positively with others
--Increased awareness of oneself within the context of one's community
--Improved attendance
--Reduced disciplinary problems
--Graduation

All of these areas and their corresponding interrelationships are the measure to success of options in meeting the real needs of students.

Affective Growth

If options offer opportunity for student choice and power, it is obvious that curriculum cannot be limited to the acquisition of cognitive knowledge. The traditional program stressed the cognitive process while ignoring the affective growth of students. A sense of powerlessness, lack of self-confidence and self-direction and ennui experienced by many urban high school students are evidence of this problem. For students in options to experience success, their affective needs must be addressed.
Alternative schools and in-school options have generally made affective education one of their first priorities. There are attempts to get the students "in touch with themselves." Affective growth in alternative programs is generally promoted through both formal and informal methods. The formal approach is characterized by actual classroom courses where the curriculum is the students themselves.

Gerald Weinstein and Mario Fantini urged a "curriculum of affective" and a harmony between affective and cognitive curricula. Affect deals with the inner needs of students as they relate to concerns about self-image, disconnectedness (from one's environment) and control over one's life. Courses effect certain behavioral changes in students in response to these needs. Weinstein and Fantini stressed that affective growth will be demonstrated by actions and statements. In the case of control over one's life they stated that:

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... evidence of person's sense of power is seen in the ability to plan and develop a variety of strategies for overcoming obstacles, in the knowledge of a variety of sources to tap, reorganize, and manipulate in order to get things done. One demonstrates feelings of control by trying and persisting through alternative routes. One makes statements such as "Let's try it this way" or Let's figure out how to do it".

The staff of the Street Academy of Albany was committed to a strong affective program. One of the objectives of the program dealt with demonstrated affectiveness growth of students:

The student will exhibit, a. stronger self-concept, b. improved ability to relate and interact with others, c. improved ability to understand and control his own anger, and d. greater involvement in schools, as evidenced on the respective summary scales of the Affect Checklist by staff observation.86

The Affect Checklist was devised by staff to be used in recording demonstrated changes in students' behavior (see Appendix B).

Affective growth is the key to cognitive growth and other successes on terms which individual students determine for themselves. In addition to the formal affective structure, an informal affective structure can be established through supportive relationships between and among

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85 Ibid., pp. 44-5.

teachers and students—a humanistic atmosphere which permeates the entire program. This type of environment should enable students to "try on" new behaviors acquired in the affective courses. The ability to test these new behaviors in a supportive environment is essential to acquisition of successful behavior patterns.

**Cognitive Growth**

Just as essential to student achievement is the acquisition of cognitive skills. Options have the same responsibility as the traditional program to provide an adequate instructional curriculum so that students can acquire the cognitive skills necessary to thrive as democratic citizens. These skills include reading, writing, computation, inquiry and analyzation. Although alternative schools and in-school options stress the affective curriculum and the humanistic atmosphere, students cannot use their new affective skills if they do not possess the cognitive skills to compete successfully. With the exceptions of some segments of the "free school" movement, most options would not allow students to decide if they were going to learn. The element of choice in the teaching-learning situation extends to how students learn.

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Fantini warned that students will have need for both
cognitive and affective skills:

...it is possible for certain alternative forms of
education to cultivate people who are happy, joyous,
ecstatic—but who cannot read, write or qualify for any
realistic economic career. Perhaps, in the name of
humanistic education, certain educational options may
emphasize primarily affective objectives. The learner
who has selected these options may realize too late
there are other requirements for full involvement in
the multi-environment (economic, political, cultural,
social) of modern society. Ironically, in these cases,
the very humanization the option sought to realize may,
in the end, have produced exactly the opposite effect,
i.e., denying the learner options in the real world.88

Students have the right to choose their educational program,
with the assistance of their teachers. This assistance may
be necessary until students are comfortable with the new
sense of control over their lives. The humanistic atmo-
sphere may allow students who have failed academically to
experience educational growth in a less threatening (and
consequently more supportive) environment.

Cognitive growth can be measured by both objective
and subjective means. To establish the credibility of
options as valid educational programs, participants may want
to use the same objective criteria for evaluation of cog-
nitive growth as their traditional counterparts. Regard-
less of teaching approaches or the possible bias of

88Ibid., p. 375.
standardized tests, the skills being evaluated by such measures are those necessary for success in contemporary society. Additional data may be sought to indicate that the rate of learning (especially in the basic skill areas) of students in options is equal to or greater than their rates while in the traditional program. 89

To insure that students have the requisite skills, option participants may require that students demonstrate mastery levels in certain basic skill areas. Most states have passed legislation in this area which mandates that school systems develop basic skill competency programs and that students be tested for mastery of those competencies prior to graduation. The Street Academy of Albany, as early as 1974, required that students attain basic graduation requirements:

Reading: at or above 23rd percentile, 12th grade norms, SAT (Scholastic Aptitude Test) or Davis Reading Survey.

Math: at or above a Grade Equivalent of 9.0 on Iowa Test of Basic Skills (ITBS; Test M. Form 5 and 6) and/or control on the General Math Skills Flow Sheet and cooperative General Mathematics Test.

Composition: control (mastery) on the COMP Level of the Composition Skills Flow Sheet (see Appendix C). 90

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89 "ESEA Title III Continuation Application," Street Academy of Albany, pp. 26-7.

90 Ibid., pp. 30-1.
Street Academy students made significant gains on the standardized test in reading and math; all graduates attained the required level with little or no difficulty. Other public high school options such as Quincy's Senior High II, Philadelphia's Parkway Program and New York's Harlem Prep experienced similar academic results. Students who choose options can learn as well as their traditional counterparts if they can choose their learning situation, one which is supportive and virtually free of the structures which formerly led these students to non-productive behavior.

Self-Determination and Governance

Through various stages, students begin to gain more control over their own environment. Eventually, they should be able to make conscious decisions about all aspects of their lives—social, political, economical and educational. This self-determination should become intertwined with an enhanced self-image—students should rely more on how they perceive themselves as opposed to the reactive perception of how they are viewed by others.

As students become more comfortable with these new perceptions and behaviors, they should also participate in the shared governance of the option. Recognizing that compliance with local and state requirements is a necessity, students can participate in the selection of new courses
to be added and others to be deleted, the establishment of rules and regulations, selection of new students and staff (within legal parameters), formulation of daily schedules, dress codes and collaborative partnerships and choices of textbooks and other materials. The affective training and staff development workshops are essential to this shared form of decision-making, since neither students nor teachers and administrators are likely to be prepared for this model of governance. Each group has most likely been conditioned by many years of powerlessness.

In the individual classroom or in town meeting, students should participate in all decisions which affect their lives. If not, students should be given reasons for the exception. With the opportunity to participate, students can invoke the voice response, make their feelings known and remain within the educational environment rather than be forced to use the exit response and drop out of school. As one student who was involved in options in Ann Arbor succinctly stated:

Participation in decision-making regarding policies which affect the school community has been a very worthwhile learning activity for me. The increased opportunity to make personal choices about how to use my time and available resources has caused me to do some thinking about this and has stimulated my
personal growth.  

More importantly, students who have some measure of control over their own lives and are actively involved in decision-making in the options will be prepared to make the difficult choices they face at the end of their high school careers. The Street Academy of Albany required that all students choose college, career-training or a career by the time of graduation. Harlem Preparatory School required all students to have at least one college acceptance by graduation. The MASH Program of English High School required students to choose the area of medical career they wished to pursue and to have considerable volunteer experience in that area prior to graduation. For students who have felt disenfranchised from a hopeful future, the ability to select their future, and to have the confidence and skills to pursue that future, may be the single most important benefit of their participation in options.


Increased Awareness of Oneself Within the Context of One's Community

Through affective and cognitive programs, options enable students to obtain a clearer perspective on their place within their own community. This realization could be a by-product of the development of a healthy self-image. As students acquire some sense of control over their lives and environment, they will recognize the impact they can have upon this environment and the concomitant impact the environment and the people within that environment have upon them.

Options which adopt a city-as-classroom approach naturally orient students to this new level of realization. As students study the city and use its resources, they become aware of the role neighborhoods play in relation to the entire city. These students witness the interrelationships between the neighborhoods of a city and discover the extent of its racial and cultural diversity. Such experiences should make it possible for students to assess more appropriately their place within this environment.

Improved Attendance

Students who choose their own educational program, based on perceived needs, learning styles and other preferences, should attend the program on a regular basis.
Students who were previously chronic truants or potential dropouts should attend their chosen options with greater frequency than was the case in the traditional program. The logic here is simple—people will do things they like to do or choose to do more readily than they will pursue that which they do not like or have not chosen for themselves.

Since prospective employers and college admissions offices consider regular attendance a key factor to success in their respective institutions, students should acquire this habit before leaving high school. The affective training students receive in options should result in improvements in attendance.

Options which were created to retrieve a dropout population should experience an increase in student attendance since these new students did not previously attend school at all. Many options which deal with disaffected students have an increase in student attendance, perhaps a slight increase initially but a dramatic one in the end. The Street Academy of Albany stressed increased student attendance as one of its objectives and subsequent evaluations demonstrated that this goal was easily achieved. MASH and Urban Studies did not use attendance as a criteria, yet their students' attendance rates exceeded the previous rates in the traditional program. Teachers and even
students in the options will telephone absentees on a daily basis; this act is part of the daily routine of the Street Academy and the options at English High School. Chronic absentees may even receive home visits from teachers, students, or streetworkers. The latter are usually associated with city-as-classroom options and are as familiar with the out of school habits of their students as the students themselves. Thus, students in options often have more incentive to attend, and are encouraged where those in the traditional program may be overlooked or neglected.

**Graduation**

Graduation is the culmination of student efforts in alternative and traditional programs. In options designed for potential or real dropouts, graduation is a vital statistic. Graduation from high school and possession of the essential skills for employment or further studies are still part of the "American Dream".

The totality of the successful student's experience in options should be evident in the increased power the student has over his/her life. The measurement of such outcomes may be an evaluation in objective or subjective
form. The important issue is that the students experience these outcomes and increase their awareness of self, their life sustaining skills and requisite control over their destinies.
CHAPTER VII
THE CHALLENGES FOR INNOVATIVE BUILDING ADMINISTRATORS

The challenge for building administrators is to act as an innovative change agent within traditional school structures. Administrators will have to adopt new roles and approaches in order to meet the real needs of their students. The introduction of new options is more difficult to administer than the traditional comprehensive structure. Some priorities of these new roles include:

--Creation of a flexible, supportive and non-threatening environment for the development of options by teachers and students.

--Maintenance of this environment as well as maintenance of a positive relationship between teachers in options and "traditional" teachers.

--Primary interactions with potential collaborative partners.

--Delegation of responsibility; restructuring of the chain-of-command; redefinition of the closed-door policy in support of an open campus situation.

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--Provision of material and fiscal resources.

--Preparation and submission of proposals for additional funding for the development and maintenance of options.

--Intercession with school district superordinates to allow options to develop.

--Evaluation of students and teachers in terms of their stated goals rather than assumed goals of the institution.

The risk for administrators and their constituents is offset by the fact that the primary public educational institution may be able to address the needs of an increasingly disaffected minority of its students, which it is not doing at present. The key to the value of alternative programs is their ability to give students (and teachers) real power and choice over their educational programs, social, political and economic lives.

The advantage to the introduction of options into the large urban high school setting is that options afford teachers and students opportunity for self-determination and growth which have been impossible in the larger structure, while also affording these individuals the benefits of the unique resources of a large school. English High School presented author Alex Haley,
actor Dick Shawn and dancer/choreographer Merce Cunningham. Options give students and committed educators a "hope factor" which is sorely lacking in the mainstream of contemporary secondary education.

Charisma Vs. Organizational Management

In the introduction to the dissertation, the author questioned the relationship or conflict between the effectiveness of charisma, or personal power, and the more formal structures of organizational management in the design of successful programs for urban school youth. A definition of these two approaches may lend some clarity to the controversy.

Charisma, according to the American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language (1975), is "A quality attributed to those with exceptional ability to secure the devotion of large members of persons." More succinctly, charisma is an extraordinary power as a leader to influence others. Four types of charisma have been visible in the leadership role, 1) personal power or force, 2) short term charisma or leadership, 3) situational charisma or leadership and 4) the aura of charismatic leadership. Some of these types may be brought together in given situations.
Personal power is evident in that the force of the leader's personality exercises considerable influence over others. This type of charisma was evident in religious, military or governmental figures who were able to arouse powerful feelings of loyalty or enthusiasm. Personal power is now recognized in many individuals in a wider variety of settings.

Short term leadership or charisma can be extremely effective when a strong force is required to influence the behavior of others in making a change over a short period of time. Short term charisma may "burn brightly" but may "burn out" rather quickly.

Situational leadership relates to the ability to select the appropriate situations in which to exercise charisma. The key to this type of charismatic approach is the recognition of charisma as a limited leadership tool which does not work in the same fashion in all situations. Situations may have to be adapted to permit the influence of charisma or the leadership style must be adapted to different environments.  

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The aura of leadership is probably best recognized. A charismatic aura may be seen in such disparate company as movie stars, presidents, church leaders, school administrators and students. Sometimes this type of charisma is called "cool" or "having it together" as related to someone who is generally admired for the ability to lead while remaining calm, often in the midst of chaos. Effective school administrators adopt this pose to reassure students and teachers that everything is under control and on schedule.

Organizational management, on the other hand, is less reverential in its approach to leadership. Hersey and Blanchard defined this approach as "...working with and through individuals and groups to accomplish organizational goals" or "the achievement of organizational objectives through leadership." According to Hersey and Blanchard, management functions by planning, organizing, motivating and controlling.\(^{95}\) Charisma could be seen as related to the latter two. Organizational management could be described as a more systematic approach to leadership than the more personal charismatic method.

\(^{95}\) Ibid., pp. 3-4.
Uses of Charisma at Street Academy of Albany

The impact of charisma was clearly visible at Street Academy of Albany. The administrator lent his personal power to the other members of the school team in the development of relevant programs for disaffected and powerless students, teachers and parents; this form of charisma was also used to negotiate with school district officials, teachers' union leaders and business community representatives.

The thrust of Street Academy rejected the alienating structure of urban public high schools for a more humanistic approach, one where choice and power were more available to the entire school community. In this small setting, personal power and the aura of leadership were effective in challenging traditional patterns of school organization.

In an atmosphere infused with humanism and informality, the effect of charismatic aura was able to directly support the efforts of the small participant population. The administrator knew all of the staff well and, in turn, the staff knew the students well.

Given the dynamic atmosphere of the alternative schools movement of the later 1960s and early 1970s, the
force of the personality of the administrator of Street Academy was able to heighten the same trait in the students and teachers. Students were educated, and alternative structures developed on the strength of youthful zeal and charisma alone.

The move to English High School was a sobering experience. From the smaller informal setting, the author moved to the leadership of a traditional urban high school of 2,500 students and 150-200 staff members. The move was calculated; the author believed that small semi-autonomous alternative programs could be isolated and ignored by school systems as aberrations. In addition, once the excitement wore thin, the inadequacies of small independent alternative schools became evident. These programs could not provide their students with all of the resources which were necessary for quality education. Once the Street Academy became a public school businesses and colleges were more reluctant to donate their resources to the program. After all, their tax dollars, in the case of businesses, supported public education.

English High School presented several organizational problems for the author. Simply put, the charismatic approach which had been so successful at Street Academy was rejected as inadequate and inappropriate in the
larger setting. Administrators cannot know staff or students well when they number in the hundreds and thousands. This being true, it would be impossible to use personal power to an effective extent in the larger setting, and situational leadership was not considered.

The author was committed to innovation in the high school; the reason he came to English High School was to work with the School of Education, University of Massachusetts, Amherst on the development of alternative programs at the school. The size of the high school convinced him that innovation could not be produced by the force of personality alone.

The dissertation has described the conflict felt by the author as he proceeded to work with others on the development and maintenance of an atmosphere conducive to the implementation of alternative programs. Although initially rejected, charisma in the form of personal leadership was used to convince the faculty of the need for alternative programs with the University and others to recruit students and parents for the program, to secure resources for the alternatives and to intercede formally and informally with central administrators, teachers' unions and the school board. The stress on
organizational management was seen in the effort to institutionalize the alternative structures and supports for these structures. Alternatives were defined in terms of their relationship to the larger traditional program. Supports such as the Office of the Flexible Campus Coordinator and the business and college partnerships were appended to the existing bureaucracy of the school and school system in a belief that this approach could best be used to insure that the structures would draw life from the long-lived bureaucracy. The history of education reflects several periods of attempted reform and innovation with the result being that the institution/bureaucracy remained intact, and relatively unchanged for the most part of the twentieth century.

Charisma and Organizational Management

In retrospect, the author examined the perceived conflict between the use of charisma and formal organizational change and recognized that both approaches are present in any institutional setting and/or attempt at institutional change. In the course of the dissertation, both approaches continued to be examined as valuable tools to the administrator; there was evidence that both approaches were used in the English High School setting. At English High School, it quickly became
apparent that to ignore the effect charisma could have was to neglect a powerful resource as well as a reality. Personal power was used to enlist teachers to participate in the alternatives, to secure central administrative and school board support for alternative programs and other attempts at innovation, to negotiate with power brokers such as the Business Manager, teachers' union representatives, state government funding sources and local and national media. The author also used the aura of charismatic leadership to develop an underlying supportive atmosphere for students in an otherwise impersonal environment, one beset by the problems and resultant violence of court-ordered desegregation. This atmosphere was created by his being more accessible to both students and staff in a manner which closely resembled the behavior of the author as administrator of the Street Academy of Albany.

The realization that charisma could be a resource at the high school came with the recognition that no real organizational change was evident in schools since the one best system became dominant. Once the educational bureaucracy was entrenched, it became a crutch for many educators who could rely on the format and reduce the level of personal effort or personal power inherent in building the bureaucracy as a force in education. The
bureaucracy of schools has become refined to the extent that change is assimilated into the system with minor effect, rather than any massive accommodation on the part of that same bureaucracy. Ironically, this fact may be the strength of alternative programs since they can be introduced without a massive upheaval of the bureaucracy.

The key to the apparent conflict is that it is not a conflict at all. There is a need for both charismatic leadership and a formal approach to institutional change. Successful administrators achieve a balance which works in their situation. The real choice is to select the strengths of each approach with a sense of timing which allows those strengths to be maximized in the change situation.

Informed Charisma

The combination of these approaches in the change situation augers for a new informed charisma. This would be the use of charisma in a more controlled or examined manner, one in which charisma is recognized as a force and used to maximum benefit (situational charisma is most applicable in this case). One of the limiting aspects of charisma in the alternative schools movement was its denial of use as a manipulative tool of power. Since the
essence of the movement was away from traditional power struggles, charisma was seen as the extension of a powerful humanistic or cooperative atmosphere. This belief was false in its lack of recognition of charisma as a force. In most situations, it is essential to know the power of charisma and to use it as a resource. Otherwise others will recognize charisma and use it to their own advantage.

Informed charisma is recognition that effective leadership may exist on its own power. That power is made more effective by the recognition of its impact and the purposeful extension of its influence. With this recognition comes a corresponding acceptance of the burn-out factor or short term charisma among urban high school administrators. If the change strategy accepts the primary of informed and short term charisma, it is inevitable that high school administrators will exhaust their personal resources in a short period of time, perhaps in one generation of high school students. The author and others have denied or struggled with this problem for some time, but the reality must be recognized—that educational gains made will be valuable but short-lived.

Recognition of the short term charisma/leadership among high school administrators actively involved in change reinforces the need for alternative programs as
vehicles for growth for teachers. If administrators are to have a limited life span, there is a real need for a training ground for future administrators. Opportunities in the traditional program are limited; enrollments are declining and fewer middle-level administrative positions are available. In addition, the retirement age has been advanced to 70, reducing available slots for new administrators. Alternative programs offer teachers the opportunity to exercise leadership in a smaller, more controlled environment. The alternatives help give the teacher some additional perspective on being a leader as well as a subordinate—an essential lesson for the prospective administrator who wishes to motivate as well as lead others.

The dissertation used a hybrid approach in that the case study method was employed to draw on an analysis of effective leadership in the change process. As mentioned in the Introduction, this hybrid was used to develop a study of institutional change which would be of value to future administrators. The author has waged both sides of the argument because practical experience has demonstrated that there is no one best answer to the problem of inadequate urban public high schools.
Future Directions

The inevitability of the burn-out factor inherent in the use of informed charisma points toward possible lines of research into the area of institutional change. If schools are becoming increasingly ineffective in educating large numbers of students, then the bureaucratic structure of the schools requires analysis. Why does the bureaucracy have to look as it does if it has become dysfunctional? As the institution becomes larger and more entrenched, does its purpose become self-preservation as observed by Harvey Scribner in Make Your Schools Work? Scribner indicated that the schools now exist for the professionals in terms of salary and status in the community. If so, the organization of the urban high school must be examined. It presently serves a narrow band of students very well, those who are easiest to serve. Research needs to be undertaken to determine the nature and extent of institutional change necessary to provide all students with a quality educational experience, one in which they can exercise some power and choice over their own lives.
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APPENDIX A

ESEA TITLE III ABSTRACT OF STREET ACADEMY
OF ALBANY, 1972
ABSTRACT

The Street Academy of Albany is an alternative form of education, a full-time, non-graded school which uses the city as a significant portion of its curriculum and classroom, and is designed to meet the needs of youth between the ages of 14 and 18 years, who are presently dropouts or probable future dropouts, for reasons of alienation, non-achievement, chronic truancy, and/or disruptiveness. This Street Academy is located in a free (open classroom) environment, close to the street, with staff using affective and cognitive education techniques, and by volunteers from host institutions. The Street Academy proposes to bring these students to successful completion of requirements for a high school diploma, with adequate skills for college entrance or job training, and with a better insight into their own potential and how to realize it.

Having operated a small-scale pilot project for two years to establish feasibility, the Street Academy directors and staff hope by means of this three-year project for 100 students to show that this open form of education is more economical, appropriate, and feasible for a portion of the school population than is the present
institutional approach and if adopted early in a student's secondary career, could prevent his reaching a crisis level of alienation. Such a school could conceivably be a division of a larger school, or be housed separately in a storefront or on-the-street facility, more inviting to students for whom the lure of the streets is greater than that of school. More significantly, if the project is successful, it could serve as a model for gradual change of whole segments of the educational system to a more open and relevant approach to education for all students.
APPENDIX B

AFFECT CHECKLIST, STREET ACADEMY OF ALBANY, 1973
AFFECT CHECKLIST

STREET ACADEMY AFFECT CHECKLIST IN HOUSE USE ONLY

STUDENT
RATED BY:
DATE:

I knew this student

very well

in class only

pretty well

out of class only

not very well

both in and out of class

EVIDENCE SCALES

SELF CONCEPT.

Sense of Competence . . . a b c d e f
Defensiveness . . . . a b c d e f
Attitude Toward Tasks . . . . . a b c d e f
Attitude Toward Evaluation . . . . . a b c d e f
Willingness to Reveal Self . . . . a b c d e f
Willingness to Modify Self . . . . . a b c d e f

COMMENTS:

ASSIMILATION

Interaction . . . . . . a b c d e f
Group Contribution . . . a b c d e f
Participation/Initiation . . . . . . a b c d e f
Description of Interaction . . . . . . . a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r

COMMENTS:
CALMNESS

Characterization
Expression
Understanding

COMMENTS:

IN Volvement IN SCHOOL

Attendance at
  School
Schedule
Class Attendance
Duration of Class
  Attendance
Attachment to
  Street Academy

COMMENTS:
THIS IS THE TEACHER'S PERCEPTION OF THE
STUDENT'S PERCEPTION OF HIMSELF

SELF CONCEPT

Evidence Scales

Sense of competence: The student seems to feel that he does

a. virtually all things well
b. most things well
c. some things well
d. a few things well
e. one thing well
f. nothing well

Defensiveness: The student seems to feel that he is

a. generally not defensive
b. somewhat defensive in some situations
c. sometimes very defensive
d. often very defensive
e. constantly very defensive
f. defensive all the time to everyone

Attitude toward tasks: The student seems to feel that he

a. generally accepts and seeks tasks
b. accepts some tasks on his own and requires supportive help on others
c. is led to the completion of tasks, but only with supportive help
d. sometimes seems to sabotage self in task completion
e. avoids most tasks in situations in which he feels he will be judged
f. does not accept any task

Attitude toward evaluation: The student seems to feel that he is

a. willing to discuss performance in a group
b. willing to discuss performance in a group of friends
c. listens to criticism but does not actively respond
d. excuses behavior prior to any criticism and may argue with criticism
e. accepts positive comments but becomes angry at criticism
f. will not listen to discussion of performance whether positive or negative
Willingness to reveal self: The student seems to feel that he

a. is completely open when appropriate and risks by sharing ideas and/or feelings
b. shares some intimate material with group of trusted people
c. shares minimally in a group in low risk situations
d. shares ideas or feelings with a trusted person
e. listens passively in situations requiring exposure of self
f. rejects all activities in which he is asked to reveal anything about self

Willingness to modify self: The student seems to feel that he

a. generally will change his behavior pattern when he realizes the inappropriateness
b. sometimes will change behavior pattern with support
c. will continue with behavior pattern despite the fact he knows it is inappropriate
d. will continue in behavior pattern and does not seem to realize the inappropriateness

ASSIMILATION

Interaction: The student interacts

a. with a chosen few and frequently with others
b. with no one group but does frequently interact with others
c. with no one group and occasionally interacts with others
d. with no chosen few, but does occasionally interact with others
e. rarely if ever with others

Group contributions: The student contributes

a. time and ideas to group
b. some, but no great donation of time or effort
c. minimum acceptable to others or when coaxed
d. barest verbal support only
e. neither to the group nor detracts from it
f. not at all but rather subverts or detracts from the group
Participation/initiation: The student exhibits one of the following behaviors.

a. usually initiates and leads activity or discussion
b. often initiates and leads activity or discussion
c. actively participates as a follower, but does initiate at times
d. actively participates as a follower, but does not initiate
e. participates minimally in most activities
f. participates only in activities which he enjoys or gains from
g. does not join or participate in any activity

Description of interactions: This student's interactions can be generally described as: (Select all that apply)

a. friendly  g. respectful  m. dominating
b. antagonistic  h. predatory  n. fearful
c. distant  i. parasitic  o. intense
d. noncommittal  j. helpful  p. oppressive
e. strained  k. aggressive  q. needful
f. concerned  l. conforming  r. affectionate

CALMNESS

Characterization: The student evidences

a. no anger
b. justifiable anger
c. irrational anger rarely
d. irrational anger frequently
e. deep, persistent often hidden anger suspected because of (please specify)

Expression: The student exhibits anger in one of the following ways

a. verbally and rationally
b. verbally, but often irrationally
c. verbally and physically
d. physically
e. physically sometimes
f. refuses to relate to others when angry
Understanding: The student seems

a. to understand his own anger and usually finds the cause and works at solving the problem
b. to understand anger, but needs and accepts help in solving the problem
c. to understand anger, but will not try to solve the problem at that time
d. not to understand anger, but makes an attempt to understand
e. not to understand anger and refuses to talk about it

IN卷VOLUTION IN SCHOOL

Attendance at school: The student attends

a. almost every day
b. 4 days out of 5
c. 3 days out of 5
d. 2 days out of 5
e. 1 day out of 5
f. so erratically that it can't be predicted

Schedule: The student takes

a. a full schedule
b. a full schedule, but drops some courses during the term
c. a light schedule
d. a light schedule and drops some courses during the term
e. scheduled courses, drops them and schedules others
f. schedules courses and tends to drop almost all of them

Class attendance: The student attends

a. all classes
b. most classes, misses a few
c. some classes, cuts many
d. few if any classes

Duration of class attendance: The student is

a. usually present the entire class period
b. occasionally late for class or leaves early
c. frequently late for class or leaves early
d. generally late for class or leaves early
Interest in academics: The student shows evidence of

a. seeking extra work
b. sometimes questioning and trying to do best work
c. answering questions and trying to do passing work
d. trying to complete most assignments and showing some interest
e. doing assignments with minimal interest and little effort
f. rarely, if ever, participating or showing interest

Attachment to this school: (check as many that apply)

The student seems

a. to see the school in no greater regard than other schools
b. to be especially attached to this school but not academically
c. to be academically attached to this school, but not socially
d. to be both socially and academically attached
e. to take pride in associations with this school
f. to protect the school when he feels it is threatened
g. to participate in extra-curricular activities
h. to participate in work activities (candy sales, jacket sales, etc.)
i. other (please specify)
APPENDIX C

COMPOSITION SKILLS FLOWSHEET, STREET ACADEMY
OF ALBANY, 1973
COMPOSITION SKILLS FLOWSHEET

ORGANIZATIONAL SKILLS

SENTENCES:

1. Writes single words. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .

2. Connects words into meaningful phrases using conventional English . . . . . . . . . . . . . .

3. Connects words into full sentences . . . .

4. Writes direct and indirect questions . . .

5. Links two main clauses with joiners like "and", "but", "or". . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .

6. Uses verb forms and tenses correctly . . .

7. Uses prepositions correctly. . . . . . . . .

8. Specifies a general idea by sentence additions. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .

9. Uses parallel structure where appropriate. . .

10. Uses subordinate clauses with conjunctions to express intended relationships (because, if, although, before, since, when, after, unless, until, while) . . .

PARAGRAPHS:

11. Fills in words in an incomplete paragraph so as to make sense of the paragraph . . .

12. Writes dialogue. . . . . . . . . . . . . . .

13. Writes several sentences linked meaningfully . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .

14. Writes a topic sentence and develops it with several related sentences . . . . . . . .

15. Writes a paragraph with a concluding sentence . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .

16. Arranges details in a paragraph in time order. . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .
17. Arranges details in order of importance. . . ________
18. Develops a paragraph of opinion with sentences stating facts or illustrations . . ________
19. Arranges ideas, facts, details, etc., in clear subordination to develop a paragraph . . . . . . . . . . . ________
20. Arranges ideas, facts, details, etc., in parallel order to develop a paragraph . . ________

COMPOSITION:
21. Rewrites a story in own words. . . . . . . . ________
22. Develops an original dialogue or narrative of some length. . . . . . . . . . ________
23. Organizes an extended dialogue or narrative with a clear beginning, middle and conclusion . . . . . . . ________
24. Develops a description or opinion with more than one illustrative paragraph . . ________
25. Writes an introduction to a description or essay . . . . . . . . . ________
26. Writes a conclusion to a description or essay . . . . . . . . . ________

CONTROL OF: NOT AT ALL WITH PROBLEMS GOOD EXCELLENT

Standard English Usage
______________________________________________________

Mechanics:

Punctuation
______________________________________________________

Capitalization
______________________________________________________

Spelling
______________________________________________________
In general, the student is working on the:

- Sentence Level
- Paragraph Level
- Composition Level

The student needs help with
APPENDIX D

REPORT ON BUSINESS PARTNERSHIP, ENGLISH HIGH SCHOOL/JOHN HANCOCK, 1977
Employment Workshop

Three hundred students in grade 12 participated in a 3-hour workshop at John Hancock learning the strategies for finding employment, interviewing techniques, and how to keep a job. Fifteen company employees and 10 faculty members participated in the delivery of the program.

Electronic Data Processing

Twenty students from grades 10-12 Bi-lingual math classes attended a 2-hour class at the company which introduced the students and a faculty member to the various functions of Electronic Data Processing.

Insurance Program

Forty students in grade 9 General Business Course attended a session on insurance concepts and policies as well as career opportunities within the insurance industry.

M.O.D.E.L. Catalogue

John Hancock employees lent their expertise and resources to the development and printing of the Method Of Development of Effective Learning Catalogue which is used to describe the educational offering available at English High, and used for the recruitment of students.
Sports Award Banquet Program

The company provided technical expertise and printed the program for the banquet which was attended by some 400 students.

Literary Magazine

John Hancock provided 20 students with technical assistance and printing of the Literary Magazine which is written and edited by students.

Senior Reception

The Dorothy Quincy Suite and refreshments were provided by the company for the reception which was attended by some 800 students, faculty and community members.

Brochure

This brochure of the Partnership Program was jointly developed and printed by John Hancock for distribution to parents of students attending English High or interested in the school.

Wider Opportunities for Women (WOW)

Some 100 students participated in a career awareness/job opportunities program conducted by WOW and sponsored and funded by John Hancock.
Restaurant Internships

Twenty-five economics students go to John Hancock in the morning, observing and participating in all operations involved in the serving of breakfast to employees.

Executive Internships

Five seniors in the college course have each spent three weeks learning the functions and operations of departments such as Electronic Data Processing, Policy Holder Services, Advertising, and New Business, while interning with an executive of the company.

Close-up

John Hancock sponsored 8 seniors who attended a one-week program in Washington, D.C., observing the Federal government in operation through briefing sessions conducted by members of the House and Senate committees.

Reading Workshop for Teachers

John Hancock sponsored 25-faculty members who attended U. of Mass., Amherst, workshops on remedial reading.

Printing Department Tour

Twenty students from grades 10-12 Career Exploratory Program visited the printing department as a follow-up to their studies of printing occupations and career paths.
Course Scheduling
The company helped the school develop the course scheduling, and then designed a computer program to handle 150 faculty and their 2400 students who attend English High School.

Operations Improvement Program (OIP)
John Hancock helped evaluate and made recommendations for English High's Guidance Department operation in preparation for the October 1977 evaluation of the high school.

Workstudy
Nine students have participated in a workstudy program which provides students with opportunities to explore a wide variety of occupations throughout the company.

Flexible Campus
Forty-five students participating in the Bi-Lingual Flexible Campus Program have been provided with the Signature Room for workshops on intercultural understanding. Students come from East Boston High, English High, and Brighton High, and are primarily Hispanic, Italian and Chinese.
Opening Week
Two employees from the company spent three days at the school during opening week to assist faculty.

Student Handbook
The company helped develop and then printed the Student Handbook in both English and Spanish.

Football Program
John Hancock produced a program for the Latin/English football game which was played on Thanksgiving Day.

Photo Lab
Seventy-five students from grades 11 and 12 have attended sessions at the photographic lab learning about operations, occupations, and skills requirements.

PAYS Program
John Hancock provided a $1,000 scholarship for a senior and jobs for two juniors from English High.

Yearbook Development Workshop
Ten students from grade 12 and two teachers spent one day at John Hancock learning about all the steps involved in the development, layout, and production of a yearbook.
Vocational Exploration Program

John Hancock participated in the VEP during the summer of 1977, placing 20 high school students throughout the company for eight weeks.
APPENDIX E

OFFERINGS AT ENGLISH HIGH SCHOOL, ENGLISH HIGH SCHOOL/UNIVERSITY OF MASSACHUSETTS, AMHERST, 1976
AREAS OF CONCENTRATION AND OFFERINGS AT
ENGLISH HIGH SCHOOL

English High School is an urban school engaged in a significant change effort. It intends to design and implement new programs and new curricula, expanding options for students. It perceives, and intends to make greater use of, the city as a resource. It is committed to a reexamination of curriculum, staffing, and organization, to see how it can better serve English High School students. Discussions of the English High School summer planning group, other English High School faculty and staff, and the English High School Policy Advisory Group at Amherst led, during the Fall, to the identification of competency areas perceived as critical if alternative programs and offerings were to be developed. These competency areas were categorized, and the number of categories was reduced based on value judgments made regarding which categories were most crucial in supporting the objectives of English High School. The categories initially and tentatively identified were: Curriculum and Instruction; Leadership, Management and Change; Evaluation and Research; and Foundations for Urban Education.
Concurrently, during the 1975 fall semester, participants at English High School enrolled in program planning seminars designed to help prospective degree candidates clarify and indicate the areas in which they wished to pursue graduate study. Results from informal questionnaires, tentative programs of study, and judgments of the four University faculty members involved in the seminars were considered in relation to the categories identified above. This resulted in the separation of the areas of Curriculum and Instruction into two categories; it affirmed a high degree of congruence between individual and institutional goals; and it reinforced the idea that the program should provide substantial concentration in a limited number of important areas of broad interest.

Finally, the English High School Policy Advisory Group at Amherst, and other University faculty, grappled with issues of human resource availability from Amherst and the offerings and requirements necessary to insure the academic integrity of the off campus degree program at English High School. Recommendations regarding advising, requirements, specific offerings, the level of those offerings, and the academic organization of the project were made and are reflected in the following pages.
The areas of concentration identified in the following section define the basis of the graduate program at English High School. The areas are designed to:

1) provide knowledge and skills which can enhance participants' abilities to carry out the goals of English High School

2) reflect the expressed interests and desires of the participants at English High School

3) encompass sufficient breadth and depth to provide a solid basis for graduate study at all levels.

Areas of concentration. Five areas of concentration will be offered by University of Massachusetts faculty members at English High School. Each semester, at English High School, at least one course will be offered in each area. The areas of concentration are indicated below.

**CURRICULUM**

Virtually all participants at English High School are involved with the evaluation, development and implementation of curriculum. Alternative programs represent major curriculum development efforts. More traditional curricula are being examined and revised to meet student needs and interests. Courses offered will be designed
to give candidates both theoretical and practical perspectives on these processes. Most courses will cross disciplinary lines. However, where a concentration of participants want to explore trends in particular subject areas, these, too, will be offered. Courses will support English High School teachers' efforts to analyze, write, implement and evaluate curriculum at the School. Courses will also help participants at English High School to know, and to use as appropriate, the efforts and products of others across the country.

**TEACHING AND LEARNING**

All participants at English High School, including counselors and administrators, interact with English High School students in a teaching capacity on a daily basis. Much of the coursework in this concentration will start from a base of looking at the realities of teaching at English High School. Courses will encourage teachers, counselors, and administrators to look at themselves, understand their own behavior and teaching styles, and how these work and don't work with different learners at English High School. Workshops in which participants can explore and expand their own repertoires of skills, and microteaching clinics will be offered. Supervision will be studied and conducted with colleagues. Particular
attention will be given to the challenges presented by
the wide range of cultural backgrounds from which English
High School students come.

LEADERSHIP AND ADMINISTRATION

In addition to participants in "main-office" ad-
ministrative positions at English High School, a signi-
ficant number of candidates are in positions which re-
quire sophisticated leadership and management skills and
insights. Directors of alternative and special programs,
and department chairpersons are among these. Courses
offered in this area will relate closely to real admin-
istrative challenges and issues at English High School
now. Course topics will include urban and secondary
school administration, urban community relations, organ-
izational and staff development, supervision, legal issues
and constraints, decision-making procedures, and political
issues in school administration. Theories and strategies
for initiating and managing change will also be addressed.

EVALUATION AND RESEARCH

All participants at English High School are engaged
in a process of examining, inventing or revising, imple-
menting, and assessing the effectiveness of what they do
at English High School. To do so effectively, all need some skills and knowledge to evaluate what they are doing and to read the related research of others critically. Course offerings will be selected and designed primarily to provide assistance and support to candidates who are examining and writing about their new teaching, curriculum, and program efforts at English High School. How does one judge the success or failure, the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of a traditional or innovative practice? How does one who cares deeply about what he or she does also report on it without extreme bias? How should questionnaires be constructed, and what does one do with the results? What are basic ground rules for doing case study? How does one distinguish good research from bad? Courses will address these questions. Few candidates have expressed a desire to concentrate in this area, but many will use it to support their area of concentration and dissertation efforts.

FOUNDATIONS FOR URBAN EDUCATION

Every participant at English High School is involved in an effort to make a major urban high school work effectively. A vast body of literature in education, sociology, history, philosophy, and economics exists to
help participants develop frames of reference, ways of looking at and understanding English High School from a broader perspective. Courses will be selected which have a clear relationship to English High School, to Boston and other urban centers, to alternative, and to other areas of concentration offered at English High School.

Course Offerings

Each semester, at least one will be offered in each area of concentration. Over the three-year period of the program, sufficient courses will be offered at an advanced (700+) level to enable M.Ed. and C.A.G.S. candidates to meet University requirements. Specific course offerings will be announced for each semester prior to preregistration for that semester. Offerings will be determined on the basis of participants' programs of study, University faculty advisors' recommendations, and faculty availability.

Scheduling. Courses will be scheduled on Tuesday, Wednesday, and Thursday afternoons from 2:00-4:30 p.m. at English High School. When more than one course is offered during a semester in one area of concentration, every effort will be made to schedule them on different days. The school system's vacation calendar will be used.
Participation. All faculty and staff at English High School who are degree candidates or who are accepted as non-degree candidates are eligible to enroll in courses, except as limited by any individual course prerequisites. Where enrollment is limited, first priority will go to degree candidates at English High School. Courses will also be open to graduate students from the Amherst campus, just as Amherst campus courses are open to graduate students at English High School.

Course planning. University faculty will be encouraged to visit at English High School, to interact with English High School participants, and to consider appropriate course adaptations prior to offering a course there. University faculty teaching at English High School will periodically meet with program participants to review courses, to identify participants' needs which are and are not being met, and to plan future courses to be taught at English High School.
APPENDIX F

MODEL CATALOG, ENGLISH HIGH SCHOOL, 1976
THE ENGLISH HIGH

METHOD OF DEVELOPING EFFECTIVE LEARNING

M.O.D.E.L.

The English High Method of Developing Effective Learning, for each individual student, is to provide the best educational environment possible.

To attain this goal, the English High School has chosen not to emphasize one magnet theme but instead offers as a magnet school several teaching and learning M.O.D.E.L.s.

A wide range of programs are available at the English High School because of its excellent traditional educational program, an experienced staff, a modern facility, the John Hancock Partnership, collaborative programs with Brandeis University, Massachusetts College of Art and the University of Massachusetts at Amherst.

These items, blended in a curriculum which reflects both the best traditions of the oldest public high school in the country and the newest alternative programs in the City of Boston, produce a model of excellence.

A student may select one of several M.O.D.E.L.s during his or her high school career.
The M.O.D.E.L.s. currently available are the following:

- BASIC SKILLS
- BUSINESS SKILLS
- COLLEGE PREPARATORY
- FLEXIBLE CAMPUS
- HOME ECONOMICS
- INDUSTRIAL ARTS
- M.A.S.H.
- URBAN STUDIES CENTER
- VISUAL ARTS/COMMUNICATIONS

In addition, the individualized programs offered by each M.O.D.E.L. are supplemented by support services for bilingual and special needs students.

If after reading the description of the available M.O.D.E.L.s, you wish further information concerning English High and its programs, either visit the School at 77 Avenue Louis Pasteur or call the Guidance Department of English High at 738-6302 any day, Monday through Friday from 8:00 a.m. to 2:00 p.m.

Community groups wishing more information about the School may call 738-6300 to obtain an audio visual presentation or tour.