DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 062 720 24 EA 004 304

AUTHOR	Hentschke, Guilbert C., Comp.; And Others
TITLE	Management of the Educational Enterprise. Report of the 1971 Institute for Chief State School Officers (San Diego, California, July 29-August 6, 1971).
INSTITUTION	Stanford Univ., Calif. Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching.
SPONS AGENCY	National Center for Educational Research and Development (DHEW/OE), Washington, D.C.; Office of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C. Bureau of Educational Personnel Development.
BUREAU NO	BR-5-0252
PUB DATE	71
CONTRACT	OEC-6-10-078
GRANT	OEG-0-9-146003-2450-725
NOTE	84p.
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.65 HC-$3.29
DESCRIPTORS	Administrative Agencies; *Administrative Principles; Agency Role; Conference Reports; *Educational Administration; Educational Change; Educational Finance; Educational Objectives; Educational Planning; *Management; Management Systems; Organizational Change; *State Departments of Education; *State Officials; Teacher Certification; Teacher Education; Urban Education

ABSTRACT

Each of the three main parts of this report focuses upon a different aspect of the general issue, how best to manage State departments of education. Part I, "The Problematic Framework of State Education Agency Management," deals primarily with some of the major legal, financial, instructional, and social problems facing schools today, and with their implications for educational management. Part II, "Managing State Education Agencies: The Perspective of Professional Management," focuses attention upon the principles of general management and the strategies for achieving desired change in organizations, as developed by specialists in management. Part III, "Planning and Management Strategies of State Education Agencies," examines a variety of specific management approaches developed by several individual States in response to their own particular needs. (Author)

MANAGEMENT OF THE EDUCATIONAL ENTERPRISE

Report of the 1971
Institute for Chief State School Officers

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The conference reported herein was supported by funds made available to the Stanford Teacher Leadership Development Institute pursuant to Grant No. OEG-0-9-146003-2450-725 from the Bureau of Educational Personnel Development and to the Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching under Contract No. OEC-6-10-078 with the Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Contractors undertaking such projects under Government sponsorship are encouraged to express freely their professional judgment in the conduct of the project. Points of view or opinions stated do not, therefore, necessarily represent official Office of Education position or policy.

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GENERAL INTRODUCTION

No more helpful service could be rendered our States, for a decade or two to come, than for those who are or would be the educational leaders to set themselves to a serious study of the problems relating to proper state educational organization, administration, finance, and control. If this is done, in a decade or two we may hope to find the results of such a study in better state educational legislation and in better state board of education and state department of education control.[1]

The above need, outlined by Elwood P. Cubberley over half a century ago, has not diminished. In fact, demands upon and expectations of States to provide "quality" education have never been stronger than at present.

Note, for example, the following statement by the Advisory Council on State Departments of Education.

How nearly the national goal for (universal and excellent) education is attained depends largely upon the level and character of leadership that is marshaled for education in each State. A major responsibility for developing that leadership necessarily falls upon the State department of education, the professional arm of each State's education agency. Ideally, the State education department should provide the overall leadership and coordination needed to develop and implement statewide plans to attain universality and excellence in education. For most State education departments, however, this represents an essentially modern—if not new—role, one that few are adequately equipped to perform. Indeed there are wide variations in both quantity and quality of leadership services now provided by State education departments among the several States and among the several professional areas of service within the States.[2]

The fact that the delivery of first-rate educational services to the entire public cannot be accomplished without top quality management is a truism does not detract from its significance, and the realities of day-to-day life have made State Superintendents and State Commissioners of Education—the group collectively referred to as the Chief State School Officers—more aware of this than even the most strident critics of the educational establishment.

There is an old aphorism in business which states that if you want something accomplished, ask the man who is busiest, most likely resting upon the assumption that he is so busy because his past successes have attracted an increasing number of clients and responsibilities. In the United States, this axiom has been followed by society with respect to education as a social institution and its practitioners. Since, according to the Constitution, education is a responsibility of the states, as the culture has become more complex and education has continued to be generally successful in the completion of the tasks given to it, state departments of education find themselves constantly acquiring new and more challenging problems. This means that there always exists the need to upgrade the managerial capabilities of the present to the level of those required by the increasing demands of the future.

As part of their effort to accomplish this, the majority of the country's Chief State School Officers

[1] Ellwood P. Cubberley, *State School Administration*, Cambridge, Mass., The Riverside Press, 1927, pp. ix-x.

[2] Advisory Council on State Departments of Education, *Improving State Leadership in Education*, Washington D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1966 (OE-23047), p. 1.

met at the 1971 Institute for Chief State School Officers, held in San Diego, California from July 29-August 6. The Institute, sponsored by the Stanford University School of Education and the Bureau of Educational Personnel, U.S. Office of Education, provided an opportunity for Chief State School Officers to analyze some of the most pressing educational and social problems with which their organizations are faced, to update their management skills, to increase their awareness of potentially useful State Education Agency activities in other states, and to discuss management strategies for State Education Agencies with their occupational counterparts. This document, *Management of the Educational Enterprise*, reports on the presentations delivered at the Institute.

Each of the three main parts of this report focuses upon a different aspect of the general issue, how best to manage State Departments of Education. Part I, "The Problematic Framework of State Education Agency Management," deals primarily with some of the major legal, financial, instructional, and social problems facing schools today, and with their implications for educational management. Part II, "Managing State Education Agencies: The Perspective of Professional Management," focuses attention upon the principles of general management and the strategies for achieving desired change in organizations, as developed by specialists in management. Part III, "Planning and Management Strategies of State Education Agencies," examines a variety of specific management approaches which have been developed by several individual states in response to their own particular needs.

Specific presentations are discussed in the introductions to the different sections.

PART I: THE PROBLEMATIC FRAMEWORK OF STATE EDUCATION AGENCY MANAGEMENT

INTRODUCTION

This part of the Report surveys some of the major imperatives and constraints that are currently facing public education. The general theme which underlies each of these papers is that the developments discussed will require a positive leadership response by the state departments of education. In his keynote address to the Institute, Dr. Marcus Foster views the problems in public education from the perspective of an urban superintendency. As Superintendent of the Oakland, California schools, he is able to present a first-hand account of urban educational problems, and the strategies developed to deal with them. Dr. Foster describes both the student population he serves, with particular emphasis upon their minority group composition, lower economic status, and educational needs, and the financial plight of his district which has necessitated cutbacks in services. He goes on to discuss the changes introduced in his district, including the institution of educational accountability, the decentralization of the system, the involvement of the community, and the development of new management techniques. Perhaps most important, he concludes with a series of suggestions dealing with several specific ways in which state departments of education might develop constructive cooperative alliances with urban school districts.

Dr. Stephen K. Bailey of the Syracuse University Research Corporation begins his paper with the assumption that conflict is ubiquitous. Moving from this point, he advances the view that educational leaders cannot hope to avoid conflict, but rather should first learn to understand what conflict is, and then become proficient in dealing with it. To this end, he devotes the first part of his paper to the discussion of a typology of conflicts; following this, he offers his views on the kinds of behavioral arts skills which educational leaders must develop, the types of practical experiences they should undergo, and the varieties of administrative strategies they should employ in order to resolve conflicts as they arise.

Although David Lyon's presentation focuses attention upon the imminent financial crisis facing Philadelphia's municipal government and its school system, the inherent weaknesses he finds underlying the problems there are typical of large urban areas in general, and hence of concern to educators across the nation. Lyon details how budgets have zoomed upward, due largely to inflated labor and material costs and the provision of increased services, while during the same time, local sources of revenue have grown much more slowly. The forecast is for continuing deficits, likely to be $500 million or more annually by 1975. Since his analysis indicates that substantial jumps in local taxes, even when accompanied by cost-cutting, will not eliminate the gap, he suggests that the municipal government and the school system will be forced to seek increased aid from state and federal governments, an event which will have significant consequences for the three-cornered partnership existing among local, state, and federal educational agencies.

Whereas David Lyon's paper concentrated upon the fiscal shortcomings of current methods of school financing, James Kelly surveys the legal attacks which have recently been undertaken against these same financial arrangements. Kelly reviews the logic which argues that since rich school districts are able to raise and spend more money per pupil than poor districts, the former are able to provide better services that the latter. The law suits which have been instituted claim that these inequalities in services between districts

within the same state violate the equal protection clause of the 14th Amendment, the *Brown vs. Board of Education* decision, and some state constitutions. Since, in Kelly's opinion, there are good reasons to believe that these suits will be successful, he goes on to discuss some implications of the suits for educational finance, with particular emphasis upon the alternative methods of full state funding, and then concludes with a discussion of some of the possible ramifications which may arise out of such a fiscal restructuring.

One of the major responsibilities of the State Departments of Education has been that of teacher certification; generally speaking, evidence of a Bachelor's degree including specified courses from an accredited institution has served to qualify a candidate. There is considerable evidence, however, that the profession requires new criteria for teacher certification, and it is this question which B. Othanial Smith addresses in the final paper in this section. Smith distinguishes three levels of criteria—academic proficiency, teacher skills, and the ability to produce changes in pupil behavior—and argues that the first two be used for initial certification, with the last serving as measure of professional development over time. If these new criteria, which rely more heavily on demonstrable teaching competence, are to be adopted and implemented, Smith contends, then the State Departments of Education must be prepared to accept new roles vis-a-vis certification, including responsibility for evaluating teacher candidates, for developing catalogs of desirable teacher behaviors, and for constructing the alliances among the public schools, the universities, the U.S. Office of Education, and the State Departments necessary for the carrying out of needed research.

URBAN EDUCATION AS A PROBLEMATIC SITUATION

Dr. Marcus A. Foster
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With a school population of nearly 68,000 enrolled in a total of ninety schools, the Oakland School District is about fiftieth in size among the city and county school districts in the United States. We rank fifth in size in California.

The most recent census data show Oakland to have an estimated 360,000 residents of which approximately 45 per cent are members of ethnic minority groups. The ethnic makeup of the school population is somewhat different, however. Almost three fourths of our students are members of minority groups—59 per cent black, 8 per cent Spanish surname, 5 per cent Asian, and less than 2 per cent in the other non-white category.

The economic plight of the families who send children to our schools is staggering. During the past five years we have seen the number of children from AFDC families rise from 10,000, or about 16 per cent of our elementary and secondary enrollment, to more than 24,000, or 38 per cent.

The educational needs of our students are equally impressive. More than two thirds of our students read below national and state averages. It has been estimated that *approximately one third of our high school entrants do not complete the full three-year program.* Of those students remaining in school at the beginning of grade twelve, approximately one third fail to meet the new state graduation requirements of eighth grade performance in reading and mathematics which will take effect this coming school year.

I would have to state, however, that an even greater challenge to urban education exists today. I have reference here, of course, to the crucial matter of the adequate financing of our schools.

For example, in our district we have had serious financial problems for the past several years since our revenues have not kept pace with steadily increasing costs and demands for needed additional programs. Our local tax ceiling has not changed since 1958. In the past we have been able to balance our budgets by reducing or eliminating central office services and by drastically curtailing our maintenance and custodial staffs.

This year our financial difficulties have reached crisis proportions. In a $68 million budget our projected 1971-1972 deficit is $3.5 million with no provision for cost-of-living adjustments for our employee groups. To balance our budget we have been obliged to cut 150 classroom teacher positions, 5 principals, 2 vice-principals, 7 nurses, and 48 positions in an already depleted custodial/maintenance staff. We have also made substantial reductions throughout all areas of the instructional and supportive program. Thus, when our teachers return to school this fall (if indeed they can be persuaded to return) they will find significantly larger numbers of children in their classrooms, and they will not have the materials, the books, and the other supplies that they will need to help these children achieve. The major reasons for this fiscal crisis are more than familiar to each of you: the increasing resistance of local property owners to add to their already heavy tax burden, the reluctance of state legislatures to increase taxes for school spending, and the minimal contribution by the federal government to the support of our general education programs. Further, it must be recognized that the problems of urban education are considerably different from an instructional program that can be conducted in a suburban area and that the needed programs for most urban children are quite costly.

Now, despite my rather gloomy portrayal of the fiscal plight facing urban schools today, I would like to

turn to a discussion of a number of changes and courses of action upon which we have already embarked in Oakland in our efforts to improve the educational program in our city. The first of these new directions is the establishment of a precise and equitable program of educational accountability. As one of the first steps in the development of our accountability plan in Oakland, our Board of Education adopted a number of districtwide goals which now provide the general direction for the activities carried forth in our school system.

A second element in our accountability program was the development of objectives which resulted from the charge I gave last fall to each of our staff members to take upon themselves the personal and heavy responsibility of setting, within the framework of our overall goals structure, their own institutional objectives for the year. This task involved the development of objectives stated in measurable terms within a specified time frame. Similarly, each school was charged with the responsibility for developing and submitting schoolwide objectives reflecting the instructional activities and accomplishments expected for the year at the school. Needless to say, I was most gratified when I learned that all ninety of our schools met the November 15 deadline for submission of their schoolwide objectives statements. At the present time members of our staff are evaluating the results of our first year's efforts.

A second new direction in urban education which I believe has great potential is that of decentralization. Through decentralization it is possible to place administrative authority closer to the individual school sites, to improve the delivery of services, supplies and program resources to schools, and to augment community involvement in order to more effectively utilize this important resource.

Another important new direction in urban education is that of parent and community involvement. For many years I have been committed to the notion that, where parents and community are interested and involved in the work of the school, their children will achieve better, and the school will provide better programs for students. Since my arrival in Oakland, this has been one of the areas in which I have placed considerable emphasis. We have initiated a very successful procedure for community involvement in the selection of school principals. Also, we have charged each principal in the district with the responsibility for assisting with the development of a systematic plan for involving the parents and community in the activities of their local school and have encouraged parents to involve themselves in matters such as curriculum, school facilities planning and upkeep, school discipline, and other school site procedures and activities.

Another community involvement procedure initiated this year has been the establishment of what we call our Master Plan Citizens Committee. Described by some as the world's largest committee, this citywide group is comprised of representatives from every school in the district and includes staff, students, parents, and various interested community resource personnel, and we have tackled together the difficult job of developing a master plan for education for our city. After a period of a year, we hope to receive from this citizens committee a blueprint for guiding the activities of our district in a number of key areas such as curriculum, fiscal and capital planning, community resource development, etc., for the immediate and longer range years ahead.

A fourth new direction I see is that of applying new management techniques to the field of education. Along this line, we are taking steps in Oakland to insure the best possible use of our personnel and material resources. We are initiating a Planning, Programming, Budgeting System which we expect to have operational by the 1972-1973 school year. We feel sure that the PPB system will significantly increase our ability to use our resources more effectively and hopefully it will provide us with improved evaluation data for enabling us to make better decisions in improving our various programs.

The more I discuss developments in Oakland, the greater the temptation to dwell exclusively on this topic. But I have also been asked to express some views on how chief state school officers and their departments might forge more effective partnerships with urban districts like our own. For what they're worth, I offer the following suggestions and observations.

(1) **Financial Aid.** Educationally crippling budget dilemmas are common to virtually all urban districts. In most states the search for state support formulas more equitable to urban areas remains just that—a search. In Oakland, state support has declined in 15 years from approximately one half of our budget to one quarter. Categorical aid, particularly in compensatory education still needs strengthening, but where we are on the brink of collapse is for want of general purpose monies. One fruitful area is for state superintendents to give leadership to the identification of those aspects of urban school programming which are uniformly more costly, for example, insurance against fires and vandalism, and help formulate relief legislation.

(2) **Urban School Advisory Bodies.** One device showing promise is the creation of advisory groups to state school chiefs composed of urban superintendents. Such groups can serve not only the obvious purposes of proposing programs and legislation and acting as sounding boards, but could pave the way for another crucial development. I'm sure it didn't take any of you much time to discover that we urban superintendents are not only free with our advice, but this advice, coming in from various cities, is frequently contradictory. With an advisory body representing a cross-section of urban systems, you might be in a position

to, in effect, close the door on a meeting and keep us under lock and key until we can boil down the alternatives to those plans that would serve *all* the urban districts in your state.

(3) **Personnel.** I'm sure you are all keenly interested in improving the level of your own staffs, and are frequently in a poor position financially to do so. As urban educators, we seem to have a special problem in relating to many of our bureaus in the Department of Education. We approach quietly, but seem to have "bells on our fingers and rings on our toes," and the message is not "she shall have music wherever she goes." It's more like "here comes those guys with their unsolvable woes." We all recognize that many able staff members are from smaller districts and that this is a part of it. Another aspect is that urban school folk are so used to trying to cope on their own they are sometimes ignorant of the services which the state can offer.

Allow me to make two suggestions. One is that from time to time state department specialists be released to serve for brief periods with urban districts in their state. By cycling your people in this manner, they not only might hone useful skills by working shoulder-to-shoulder with people who serve particularly insistent clients, but they could bring needed expertise and perspective to our own local endeavors. The improvements in long-term relationships, city to state, would be a happy by-product. Another move which might be considered is a more creative and aggressive plan for sharing the wealth of educational talent throughout any state. Any local superintendent ought to be able to call his state executive and ask for the names of the two or three best people in the state for ungraded primaries, or bond elections, or differentiated staffing. The chief state officer should then encourage such individuals to make themselves available for an agreed-upon number of days to the district in need. Similar teams could assist the state for brief periods in numerous ways. When one stops to think that education in America is a state responsibility, that every state is rich in skilled practitioners, it is disquieting to contemplate how much consultant money we have paid out to one-eyed "experts" from private firms and universities. It is time to stop discussing "resource files" and "talent banks" over coffee. We built a lot of barns in this country through effective and enjoyable cooperation. Why not better school programs the same way?

(4) **Accreditation.** I know you are formulating exciting plans with Commissioner Marland in this important area and we are going to watch closely for the new possibilities. In seeking to establish high professional standards, we have, if I can make a generalization, inadvertantly denied ourselves the participation of many individuals whose backgrounds, while different, have much to bring to contemporary education. Or while provisionally admitting them to our ratified ranks, we have sentenced them to years of hard labor taking courses with the most marginal relationship to their job realities. *The whole concept of accountability suggests that local districts be freed to hire whoever they need to deliver upon their commitments.*

(5) **Research and Evaluation.** Too often study results developed at the state level end up on our desks providing a kind of indexed catalog of invidious comparisons. We urbanites are practised at deciphering the results: On "good" lists we learn to watch for our names in the basement; on those other kinds of lists we know we'll be right up top. With its access to such a broad data base, the state has a fine opportunity to make comparisons *among districts with comparable constituencies*, then go on to tease out those variables which had positive significance. Assessments on how these productive dynamics made a difference in this or that program undertaking could be summarized and shared as actively as the raw results. Finally the state could determine which districts are ripe for special kinds of new program assistance, based on interpretive data, rather than personal relations and political considerations.

(6) **Racial Isolation.** In a growing number of urban systems, the solution to pupil racial separation must eventually lie in cooperative arrangements involving most or all the districts in a metropolitan area. Oakland has a beach-head project, our Urban Studies Center, which brings together children from a score of neighboring districts for joint educational adventures. It seems inevitable that not only must state executives concern themselves with desegregation within districts then, but *among* districts. Regionalism is fraught with difficulties, but the time is running out when we can educate our young in carefully walled-off balliwicks, then expect them to be effective citizens in a metropolitan area where economic, political, recreational, transportation and cultural interdependencies are a matter of simple survival. This is an area where we are one step ahead of court decisions, and I am calling for movement, for once, under our own steam.

(7) **The Demands of Leadership.** When one thinks how chief state school officers have had their greatest impact, one thinks of the role as spokesman-leader: with the governor, the legislature, and the state population as a whole. This role demands special insights, and perhaps some ingredients not required in a quieter time. I would mention a few, recognizing their relevancy to educators generally.

The first is *advocacy*. There is a natural tendency to seek consensus and move with popular currents. I submit that we must find ways to simplify our commitments, and focus on schoolchildren. This means putting second our staffs, teachers, legislators—all the rest—and measuring each move against our advocacy for children. This entails no diminution of loyalty, but such loyalty cannot serve equally every reference

group within a state.

Next is the concept of *vulnerability*. I find it useful to analyze an educational situation not only from the point of view of strengths but soft spots. In what areas are we vulnerable to charges of poor management, underdevelopment or imprecise planning? We have problems enough without promptly and unflinchingly attacking issues which are known, in some quarters, at least, to be lingering without resolution.

The matter of *social interpretation* is often unfortunately taken for granted. You can't take for granted the ability of everyone to devine where your commitments lie, and the motives behind your initiatives. If improvements are being made, but people—of all levels of sophistication—don't sense it and feel it, then the value and significance of these improvements is seriously compromised. Let me challenge you with another question: what are the four highest priorities set by your office? How many of your second echelon staff, let alone your constituents around the state, could name three of these?

Finally, the phenomenon of *conflict utilization*. Many of us were trained to avoid controversy and conflict at all costs. One would have to admit today that conflict in schools, whether intergroup, ideological or intergenerational is a fact of life. My own view is that while sometimes distasteful, this reality is in fact a sign of social health, an opportunity for change and growth rather than stagnation.* This topic merits far more attention than my time permits, but the key concepts include: moving from confrontation to negotiation; clarifying the one or two key matters at stake and not allowing the issues to become switched or entangled; helping protagonists see that compromise can be creative and mutually beneficial, rather than a matter of lost face; encouraging new and more equitable power relationships; and ensuring that both leaders and followers fully understand the value and significance of the negotiated agreement.

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*See discussion of this topic by Stephen Bailey in this report. —Ed.

PREPARING EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS FOR CONFLICT RESOLUTION

Stephen K. Bailey
Chairman, Policy Institute
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The ubiquity of conflict is one of the oldest motifs of human history. Since Homer, conflict has surely been the very stuff of literature. Since Genesis, conflict has been part and parcel of all epic religions. For the secularly oriented, conflict is unquestionably a pervasive theme of modern psychoanalysis and of existential psychology.

Since conflict is, and has been for many, an uncomfortable if not terrifying reality, mankind has spent an uncommon amount of time and effort trying to contain and to resolve its various manifestations. The history of law, of ethical religion, of dynastic succession, of government, of politics, can in one sense be reduced to a single common denominator: they are all considered attacks upon the prevalence of, and man's seeming propensity towards, conflict.

In view of this long and pungent history, one would assume that the arts of conflict resolution, or at least of conflict management, would be known to men and women the world around.

Alas, this is not so. Or, at least, if most men and women understand how to contain, manage, and resolve conflict, they are patently inept in translating what they know into logically derivative action. This generalization is, I think, true even of most professional students of social combat: to wit, political scientists. Perhaps it was this ineluctable reality that caused the late T. R. Powell to remark that political scientists should be humble for they have much to be humble about.

I start with this melancholy manifestation of professional and personal insecurity for, in terms of tight theory and validated pedagogy, I have not the foggiest notion how to prepare educational administrators for conflict resolution. My only real clue comes from a recipe I read recently in a women's magazine while I was waiting for my dentist. The recipe was for "Roast Duck with Orange Sauce." The recipe began, "Take a robust and carefully seasoned duck weighing at least 5 pounds . . . " I suggest that in preparing educational administrators for conflict resolution, we start with a robust and carefully seasoned educational administrator weighing at least 195 pounds, preferably Black and a former NFL middle-line backer.

Now, of course, with these profundities I could sit down and you could go about more urgent business. But in order to fulfill program expectations, and at the risk of massive redundance, let me dawdle a bit. For it is just possible that we may know more than we think we know. To paraphrase John Gardner, the pieces may be lying around if only we can develop the knack of putting them together.

First of all, what is it that we are talking about? One of our conceptual problems, I think, is that we have often struggled for a definition of conflict when we should have been searching instead for a typology of conflicts. If anyone is to be prepared for conflict resolution, he had jolly well better be told early on that the term "conflict" is as rich a species as, say, the term "mammal." The elephant, the dolphin, and the bat are all mammals, but the differences are not without significance. War, strikes, and bureaucratic status-struggles are all forms of conflict, but their respective care and treatment are hardly identical. Even within educational organizations, perceptive educational administrators could, if they pondered the matter, construct a rich typology of conflicts. Actually, the term "educational organizations" is itself maddeningly all-encompassing, containing as it conceivably might, everything from John Brademas' Subcommittee or the

United States Office of Education, to State Education Departments, local K-12 schools, colleges and universities, day-care centers, and Channel 13.

Take some possible "for-instances" within the educational organizations with which we are most familiar: schools and colleges. One typology might discriminate among subordinate conflicts, superordinate conflicts, and lateral conflicts. Put in another way, there are conflicts among those who are legally and/or administratively under the administrator; conflicts among those legally or administratively over the administrator; and conflicts among those legally or administratively removed from the administrator, but impinging upon his domain. Any administrator who assumes that he can use the same techniques or style in resolving conflicts that emanate respectively from below, above, and sideways is either a genius or a fool. For example, let us assume that a superintendent observes a raging conflict inside his board of education. Quiet catalysis in the form of friendly visits to the homes of contending leaders may be the most useful approach. If the conflict is between two subordinate principals arguing about bus routes, a structured confrontation may be desirable. If the struggle is between the local John Birch Society and the local chapter of AAUW over sex education, public rhetoric and careful and elaborate coalition-building may be the superintendent's most effective tactic. My only point is that such strategems are not usually interchangeable. Conflict-resolution styles and techniques useful in one context may be quite disastrous in another.

Another typology might center on "constructive" versus "destructive" conflicts—viewed of course from the vantage point of the values of a particular educational administrator. Until fairly recently, Western man has suffered a kind of Hobbesian anxiety: a concatenation of beliefs that all conflicts are bad. Many writers have reminded us that conflict can perform an indispensable function in keeping organizations dynamic. When I was Dean of the Maxwell School at Syracuse, I consciously tried to keep unresolved the healthy conflict between those holding disciplinary loyalties and those holding interdisciplinary loyalties. Some conflicts are resolved only at the price of mildew.

But other conflicts, unless quickly resolved in some fundamental sense, can destroy an organization. As Bertram Gross has written in his classic and gargantuan study, *The Managing of Organizations*, "For those who want to destroy an organization or its effectiveness, there is probably no more efficient method than the promotion of internal conflict." Divide and conquer is one of the oldest of Machiavellian tactics. In the late 1960's, California, Columbia, and Cornell (among other universities) provided a variety of examples of faculty, administrators, and students attempting to promote internal conflict in one another's ranks in order to render a given establishment or anti-establishment helpless.

A third typology might distinguish "horizontal" and "vertical" conflicts. Horizontal conflicts tend to be about matters of substantive jurisdiction; vertical conflicts tend to be about matters of procedural jurisdiction. For example, a horizontal conflict is exemplified by a Humanities division and a Social Science division both claiming jurisdiction over the History department; or a Welfare Agency and a Board of Education both claiming responsibility for determining the components of day-care center programs. A vertical conflict is exemplified by a struggle by a local superintendent and a state commissioner over who should set standards for student dress; or between a college vice-president and a dean as to who should have the right of line-item transfer in a divisional budget.

A fourth typology—almost seismographic in nature—might be addressed to the question of the severity or quality of conflict. Every organization has an endless simmer of petty personality conflicts reflecting the chemistry and foibles of interacting humans. The wise administrator uses a dozen devices to keep such conflicts under control. He separates antagonists in terms of physical space; he redefines roles; he expresses confidence in both in each other's presence; he appeals to the maturity, good sense, and common organizational goals of everyone concerned. Ultimately, he settles for a low hum of contentiousness as a necessary (and at times healthy) noise of the human condition; and he tries to internalize the wise words of Harlan Cleveland, "Do not get caught in the web of tensions you observe."

A second level of severity involves conflicts over program and budget. These may at times be rationalizations for personality or status conflicts, but they are often quite genuine manifestations of differences of opinion about institutional priorities and goals. These are the daily-diet conflicts that most educational administrators spend the overwhelming part of their time adjudicating and managing: should language be required of Ph.D. candidates; should sex be taught in life-adjustment courses; should the new math supersede the old math; should Regents exams be required; should the teachers get a 15% raise; should more money go to research or to development? Managing these kinds of conflict-laden issues is what the educational administrator gets paid for, and why he has a rug and a water cooler in his office. It is at this level of seismic severity that most of the behavioral science wisdom has its most specific relevance. It is here that the writings of Blake, Shepherd and Mouton; Bennis; Beckhard; Gross; McGregor; Argyris; Simon and March; and other familiar and distinguished writers in the field of organizational behavior and organizational development, have constructed penetrating diagnoses and prognoses. If I find the writings of some of these thoughtful people at times unsatisfying, it is in part because some of the wisest practitioners among them are incapable of translating into words the therapeutic virtuosity of their own clinical techniques; in part be-

cause, at least until recently, some of them have posited a love/open-communications/face-to-face therapeutic model that, as Mr. Agnew might say, distorts the delightful deviousness of devilish man beyond recognition. Surely there are way-stations between unfeeling authoritarianism and everybody-should-be-in-the-act sentimentality. We need better structural and behavioral models to guide us than presently obtain. To all of this we shall return.

A third level of seismic violence relates to the legitimacy of regime rather than to program priorities. This is the level of revolutionary conflict that has been so troublesome in recent years. At the heart of revolutionary conflict is a challenge to the sacred assumptions and reverential styles of old orders. Taboo or not taboo is the question. We have all seen able educational administrators turned into blithering idiots or faintly ridiculous footstampers over the past five years. I say this without rancor or criticism. There but for the grace of God . . . There is an anguished terror that grabs the heart when normal expectations of deference are suddenly defied by spokesmen for the irreverent and the heretical. Some of us are old enough to remember when "bullshit" was two words. In any case, one word or two, it did not used to be a common response of students to a vice principal's kindly suggestion that they go to study hall. (Some administrators today would settle if occasionally the students would add, "Sir . . . ")

I have never been sure about how much of the revolution of the past five years has been intrinsically, as opposed to histrionically, serious. But no matter. It has been and is deadly serious for the administrators who have had to live through it. For the range of militancy that includes "Off the pigs!" and "Lock the dean in the john" at one extreme, and walkouts and dirty expletives at the other, the benevolent rationality of Bethel-type approaches to conflict resolution may be naive and inutile. As we shall note later on, the very violence of the conflict may stem from previously unredressed grievances of a high level of intrinsic legitimacy. The point here is that once social anger has reached the point of challenging the fundamental structures and procedures of the system, administrators tend to wobble between dangerous belicosity on the one hand, and conciliatory panic on the other. I have even observed "flexible firmness" to end in disaster. Nobody seems to do crisis management very well. Mr. Hayakawa saved the body of San Francisco State at the cost of that institution's soul.

Mark Chesler at the University of Michigan's Center for Research on the Utilization of Scientific Knowledge has probably accumulated more operational wisdom in the general field of crisis management in schools than anyone else in the country. But even Chesler would admit that his most insistent message is to manage crises by redressing the grievances that cause them. At the height of a battle over the legitimacy of the system, even sensitivity groups or face-to-face "problem-solving sessions" are unlikely to pacify militant Blacks, apoplectic Birchites, ferociously liberated women, striking teachers, or draft-defying young men.

The sample sets of typologies listed above are only illustrative. Human conflict is so pervasive that fertile minds should be able to think up scores of ways of categorizing various conflict manifestations. And, of course, beyond the designation of types of conflict are questions relating to the dynamics of conflict. We know less than we should in this area. A generation ago Crane Brinton attempted in his classic work *The Anatomy of Revolution* to line out recurring patterns of revolutionary developments. Surely all of us who have been involved in organizational conflict have seen stages of growing unrest leading to crisis and resolution. Techniques of prevention and resolution that are adequate for the incipient stages of conflict are unlikely to be useful during the crisis stage; and they tend to be irrelevant at the stage of relaxation (what Crane Brinton calls the stage of "Thermidor"). When conflict is incipient, or in early stages of virulence, a sensitive administrator may release dangerous tension with a special meeting or a joke. When the storm is raging at its height, certain types of meetings become impossible, and the very notion of jokes becomes obscene. When exhaustion is followed by a newly found harmony, the administrator's best therapy may be "natural healing," rather than any conscious strategy.

I do not mean to go on with this game of categories. Suffice it to say that any preparation of educational administrators for conflict resolution should involve making them sensitive to the varieties, permutations, combinations, and phases of conflict.

What then? Let us assume far more elaborate and sophisticated typological grids and flow-charts than are presently available; how far does cognition take us? Can educational administrators be prepared for conflict resolution by knowledge alone? Is the cognitive sufficient to the affective?

In the immortal words of Eliza Doolittle, "Not bloody likely!"

The key to successful conflict resolution is to be found in behavioral arts. Historically these arts have often been buttressed by widely accepted folkways and mores. For instance, if everyone accepts the legitimacy of Divine Right, the King needs a minimum of behavioral arts in order to resolve conflict. Patently, absolute control over the machinery of organized violence—the police, the military, the secret services—gives a leader substantial leeway in the tone of voice he uses in issuing an order.

In most educational organizations, operating within the federal structure and the democratic ethos of the United States in the early 1970's, the number of men who occupy universally accepted authoritative roles is limited. Some superintendents and principals in some backward areas may still operate like colonial district

officers and get away with it. But I should guess for every one of these there are ten educational admin.strators who are daily buffeted by contentions that place the very legitimacy of their role in jeopardy. They operate in what Saul Touster calls, from Physics, a "field of force." As I found out in a former incarnation as the Mayor of a small city, if one has ten portions of power, the use of more than one of these destroys the possibility of using the remaining portions. In a democracy, most power is latent and must remain so. Resolving conflicts under these circumstances becomes not a matter of barking orders, but of personal leadership.

We come then to the heart of the matter. How can leaders be trained?

Here we are not without models—from societies as removed in time and space as Platonic Greece and Mandarin China. The most widely accepted series of contemporary models, I think, come from NTL and its various programmatic off-shoots up to and including Organizational Development. Some of these movements are more frequently parodied than paraphrased. My own belief is that they are far too easily dismissed by sophisticates whose exposure to sensitivity training has been limited to a rumor about a Thursday evening "feelies session" in the basement of a local Unitarian church. It has been my privilege, because of the geographic accident of my spending summers a few miles from Bethel, Maine, to have known many of the leaders of this applied branch of behavioral science. By and large they are able and insightful people. Surely, increased self-knowledge in group contexts is a useful ingredient in the preparation of leaders. Surely, communications arts that are based upon honesty, empathy, and generosity are vital elements in the tool-kit of skills of organizational leaders.

Some of my reservations about these being sufficient skills and attitudes have been hinted at earlier. I am sobered by the words of the British diplomat, Harold Nicholson, "It would be interesting," he wrote, "to analyze how many false decisions, how many fatal misunderstandings have arisen from such pleasant qualities as shyness, consideration, affability, or ordinary good manners . . .The difficulties of precise negotiation arise with almost equal frequency from the more amiable qualities of the human heart."

The wisest of the organizational-behavior and organizational-development people know this and allow for it in their writings and in their practice. But the preponderance of NTL-type theory has been built around the notion that if openness, widespread participation, and respect for persons could only be substituted by "change agents" for executive sessions, authoritarianism, and impersonality, everything from morale to production would improve in any organization at any time. Taken in this neat form, and applied to the worlds of educational administration that I know from direct experience, these nostrums become dangerous oversimplifications. There are times in any organization when issuing an authoritarian edict is the only sensible thing to do. Colleagues, supervisors, and subordinates expect it. A fire emergency, for example, is no time to call together a faculty committee for the purpose of reaching consensus on which fire doors to close. On the other hand, a democratically arrived-at *plan* in advance for this emergency is both prudent and necessary.

Unfortunately so much of the literature of organizational leadership has built up an impossibly rigid series of alternative conflict-resolution models. We are told that some conflicts are resolved by authoritarian types; some by negotiating types; some by manipulative types; some by withdrawing types; some by oil-on-troubled-waters types; some (and may his Holy name be praised) by democratic, problem-solving types.

Alas, I must have no character, for I recognize myself in past conflict-resolution roles in each of these discrete categories. Furthermore, conscious style has been complicated by minor perversities. My particular mien in a particular conflict situation has often been influenced by factors as diverse as the time of the year, the time of the day, the number of hours sleep I got the night before, the state of my digestion, the degree of threat to my status, the number of conflicting forces in contention, the tone of voice of petitioners, the perceived immediacy or postponability of the issue, the state of the budget, and finally my own sense of whom I was going to make mad and how mad, and whom I was going to make glad and how glad. Self-discipline stemming in part from a growing appreciation of behavioral consequences, in part from an overriding commitment to exciting and insistent goals, has often served as correctives to perverse bodily chemistries or to cynically opportunistic calculations. But I know few successful administrators whose managerial style is so inflexible as to fit into one neat textbook categorization.

This caveat to the contrary notwithstanding, it is highly probable that in terms of the mix of attitudinal and behavioral styles, too many educational administrators at all levels over too long a period of time have adopted an overly authoritarian stance. If so, they have been getting some comeuppances in recent years and this is probably to the good. There is clearly now a general disposition towards more openness in communications and a broader participation in decision making. I am glad there is. Yet harried administrators must have the capacity and the right to vary their tactics with the nature of the terrain. And this involves the skill and the insight of art. Can the artistry of conflict management be taught?

I wish I knew. All of us are aware of attempts: T-groups; simulation, role-playing, in-basket, and gaming exercises; case studies; moot courts; mock legis-

latures. I am sure that some of these and related experiences are useful in sensitizing the uninitiated to the varied worlds of conflict management. But, alas, most of it is like learning to swim on the sand. And many of the lessons learned in sociodramas are forgotten in the heat and confusion of reality.

If, in the eyes of a patient, a competent doctor is one who has "previously performed the operation successfully", may not the same be true of a competent conflict manager? My guess is that many of the great conflict resolvers among the educational administrators of tomorrow will come from those whom fortune has favored with rich and successful early experiences as precocious practitioners or at least as sorcerers's apprentices. Furthermore, I should guess that some of the most successful administrators of tomorrow will have come out of large Catholic and Black families where from infancy they have participated in bouncing ego brawls and have learned the hard way the value not of unanimity, but of what Crane Brinton once called, "multanimity"—the philosophical acceptance of, and delight in, variety.

Does this say anything about preparing educational administrators for conflict resolution? I think perhaps it does. I think it says that case studies, sensitivity training, and simulation are better than formal theory; that novels and plays are better than textbooks; that apprenticeships and direct responsibility are better than anything else. In the field of conflict management, to coin a phrase, we "learn by doing".

Is this all that can be usefully said? Is there no proverbial wisdom to provide rough bench-marks to the harrassed educational administrator faced with unnerving conflict?

I think there is some wisdom, but its successful application still involves artistic sensitivity and not a little luck.

First, a successful conflict manager in the field of education is aware of what is bugging the young, the oppressed, and the sensitive. When the Policy Institute conducted its national investigation of *Disruption in Urban High Schools* last year, we found few surprises when we asked respondents about the causes of trouble. Racial injustice and new racial pride, in-school authoritarianism, archaic rules and procedures, stilted schedules, grinding boredom, poverty syndromes, depressing facilities, inadequate counselling, conflict models in colleges and in teacher strikes—these were some of the repetitive themes. Recent studies of college unrest reflect similar provocations elaborated by such additional factors as the war, the draft, the nuclear threat, and the spiritual oppressiveness of modern technology.

Many of the larger societal issues are beyond the immediate control of educational administrators—although their sensitivity about, and their attitude towards, these issues may be an important element in their capacity to relate effectively to troubled colleagues and charges. But surely, desirable changes in style, rules, and procedures inside an educational organization are within the competence of the educational administrator. His capacity to recognize legitimate grievances and patent injustices, and his willingness to respond to new hungers, new values, new norms by reasonableness and open-mindedness, are essential if conflicts are to be precluded and ultimately resolved in any basic sense. To repeat, this seems to me to be the besic wisdom of Mark Chesler's writings and workshops.

Second, an educational administrator can negotiate the troubled waters of conflict only if he is harshly realistic about his own personal as well as role limitations. Virtuosity is not necessarily reflected in an administrator's willingness to rush to the bridge when the winds of conflict hit gale force. Virtuosity, instead, may mean delegation of authority; the involvement of third parties (especially when the administrator himself is adjudged by others to be a part of the problem), the studied use of tactical procrastination; or personal withdrawal from a particular scene.

Third, in attempting to resolve conflict, the successful educational administrator attempts wherever possible to substitute collective judgments for personal discretion. No man can last for more than a few weeks, physically or psychically, if he allows himself to take all of the heat of conflict, day after day after day. For one thing, before very long his judgment becomes impaired. The wise administrator knows how to create baffles and buffers to buy time, to absorb heat, to promote collective wisdom, to insure a maximum sense of legitimacy for decisions finally agreed upon.

Fourth, the wise administrator when confronted with crisis-type conflict that has gone beyond rational negotiation takes to heart the five-point strategy of Harry S. Truman: first, estimate your own resources; second, estimate your enemy's resources; third, form a judgment as to what is to be done; fourth, implement your judgment with a plan; fifth, persuade your leaders of the value of that plan and mass your forces for the attack. "Forces" may not mean National Guard or uniformed police. "Forces" may mean sensible students and faculty, a skillful downtown lawyer, cooperative media, a fast-talking chaplain, neighborhood parents or older siblings. Many of the errors in attempts at conflict resolution have stemmed from administrators taking too narrow and too legalistic a view of their available resources.

Finally, the well-prepared administrator is one who knows that there are times in a year, in a career, in a life when cyclonic winds and waves will roll over everything in sight, and when the skill of the ablest mariner is probably less effective than his praying on his knees—if for no other reason than that he has thereby lowered the ship's center of gravity. In such circum-

stances, there is nothing to be ashamed of if a 50-year-old administrator finds himself crying himself to sleep in his wife's lap after ten 18-hour days of ineffectual coping. Few of us are supermen. But all of us can gain strength from a fearless reading of the signs of historic change. Hermann Hesse in *Steppenwolf* writes at one point, "Human life is reduced to real suffering, to hell, only when two ages, two cultures and religions overlap . . .there are times when a whole generation is caught in this way between two ages, two modes of life, with the consequence that it loses all power to understand itself and has no standard, no security, no single acquiescence."

Who can doubt that some of the conflict of our times is a product of such epochal clashes and overlaps? If this is true, then what the educational administrators may need more than anything else is to keep the shield of his sense of history, his sense of humor, and even his sense of dispensability burnished bright.

Last summer, a good friend of mine who has rocketed from career-success to career-success found himself in a college presidency, where for a year he had been surrounded with turbulence that can only be called wild. He confessed to me that he was not sure how much longer he could last. It was the first time that I had ever seen him really shaken. I tried to reassure him with a parable that I shall leave with you as my conclusion: A young and muscular cowboy joins a rodeo. The old-timers take the wildest untrained bull they have in stock. They drop the young cowboy on the bull's back and open the gate. In scarcely an augenblick the young cowboy is in the air and on the turf. He gets up lamely and ashamedly, shakes his head disconsolately and limps toward the paddock. As he enters, the old-timers break into a cheer. "Stop dumping on me," he cries.

"Dumping on you?" comes the answer. "My God, man, you stayed on for *seven whole seconds*!"

THE FINANCIAL FUTURE OF CITY AND SCHOOL GOVERNMENT IN PHILADELPHIA

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Philadelphia taxpayers will face red again this Spring—the red ink of impending fiscal deficits for the City and School District of Philadelphia. Certainly they have faced deficits before, but never have the deficits been so large as recently. Causes of this growing fiscal gap are clear. While spending has mushroomed, the local tax base from which the City and School District must draw a large share of their new funds has inched upward slowly.

The taxpayer views this higher government spending as a burden, but sees no out. A large low-income population and dilapidated physical plant have made Philadelphia's role in the war on poverty, slums, and crime especially large. Costs of bearing these expanded responsibilities have been boosted by accelerating inflation in the private sector—and by substantial increments in paychecks of public employees.

So, as spending has intensified, taxpayers have witnessed a large chunk of their earnings eaten away by new taxes and increased tax rates. But most of the new taxes have produced less revenue than expected, have been expensive to collect, and one has been rescinded by the courts. More important, new tax structures and rate increases have, at best, filled only one year's deficit.

The crust of new spending has left little time for developing more reliable and longer term solutions. With the hope of providing citizens some insight into the future, we have examined the outlook for expenditures and revenues of the City and School District of Philadelphia. Projections were made of both the growth in government services and the impact of inflation on government costs and revenues. The outlook described by these projections is for greatly increased fiscal deficits for City and School government in Philadelphia—reaching a half-billion dollars for the year 1975, even if payments from the Commonwealth and Federal governments continue increasing as they have recently.[1] This deficit may be preceded by smaller but growing shortages. Without early fiscal action, the deficits of all the years between now and 1975 could cumulate to over one-and-a-quarter-billion dollars. Higher tax rates, new governmental aid, and some budget cutting are the options that must be relied upon to close these deficits. Such efforts will be made by local leaders and will alter the projections included here.

The Billowing Budget

Spending by the City and School District of Philadelphia has shifted into high gear in recent years. Recent yearly increases in combined school and municipal expenditures have doubled over the rate of previous years. Although decisions by local government leaders to expand services have added to the public bill, the principal spending thrust has been from inflation.

The Heavy Hand of Inflation

While present in earlier years, inflation did not become an important problem for Philadelphia government until the late 1960's. Small but tolerable increases in governmental costs began to snowball in 1966 as workers in local government here began to demand higher wages. In that year, the average wage paid by the School District jumped 16 per cent and that paid by the City climbed 10 per cent. In the next two years, wage gains subsided a little, and then jumped by 12 per cent in 1969. Justifiable or not,

[1]The projections are for operating expenditures of the City and School District plus payments for debt service.

these increases were far above the rate of expansion of wages in the rest of the economy.

While labor is the largest item on local government's shopping list, the City and School District also purchase materials and services. These non-labor items, which compose about a third of the local government budget, have shown less-marked price increases than has labor. However, their prices began to escalate at ever-greater rates near the end of the 1960's as local and national economies heated up.

As inflationary pressures ease, expansion in costs of the materials and services will slow. But this relief may not find its way to the labor bill, at least not in the near term.

Commendable efforts to bring performance of Philadelphia schools in line with expectations have been made in recent years—but they have cost money. Special schools for pre-school children, specialized teachers for basic skills, teachers' aids, and enlarged and modernized school buildings all have been added to the system in recent years. These improvements and some new ones will probably be extended in the future. But the full character of urban education is still unfolding.

Officials of urban schools are experimenting to find the most effective combination of efforts to educate city youth. This process of experimentation makes the future form and cost of the School system particularly

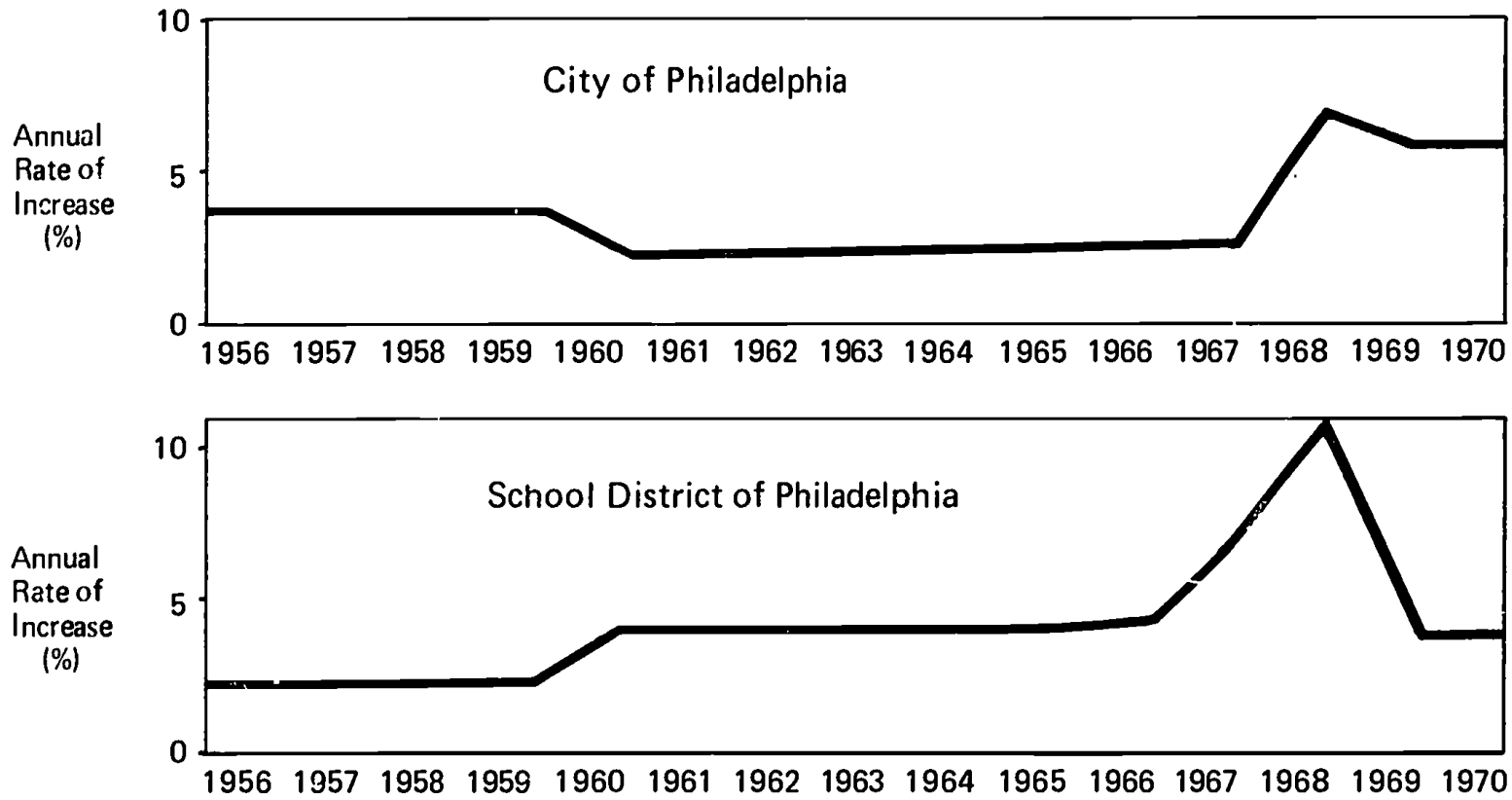

CHART 1. Even abstracting from inflation, there has been rapid, although irregular, growth in (real) expenditures.

Expansion of Services

Inflation, which has had a staggering impact on the local public budget, is not the sole source of fiscal pressure. As shown in Chart 1 real expenditures (net of inflation) of the City and particularly of the School District increased during the late sixties reflecting improvement and expansion in public schools.

1. **In Education.** Philadelphians are relying heavily on the education system to combat urban problems, and their hopes run high. To many residents, the schools seem the best way of mitigating the impact of deprivation upon the city's young and of communicating marketable skills to young and old. But hopes exceed actuality by a discouraging margin. While the School Board is working hard to educate its charges, the typical student in Philadelphia schools is still severely behind national averages in basic skills, such as reading.

uncertain. Our projection for School spending is conservative, since we have assumed little change in the way the School District attempts to educate the young. Drastic new methods of education eventually may lower the cost of running the schools, but will more likely increase the cost, at least in the short run. Thus, our projection of costs, shown in Chart 2, is probably somewhat low and is best interpreted as basic expenditures to which will be added the cost of any new, trial methods of education.

New Staff. The principal tool that the School District has used in recent years to improve education has been that of providing more attention to each child. This intensified effort has meant sharp increases in staff of the District. While student enrollment has increased by only 5 per cent, school employment has jumped by one-fourth. Half of the new staff are teachers, and half are nonteaching assistants. The most

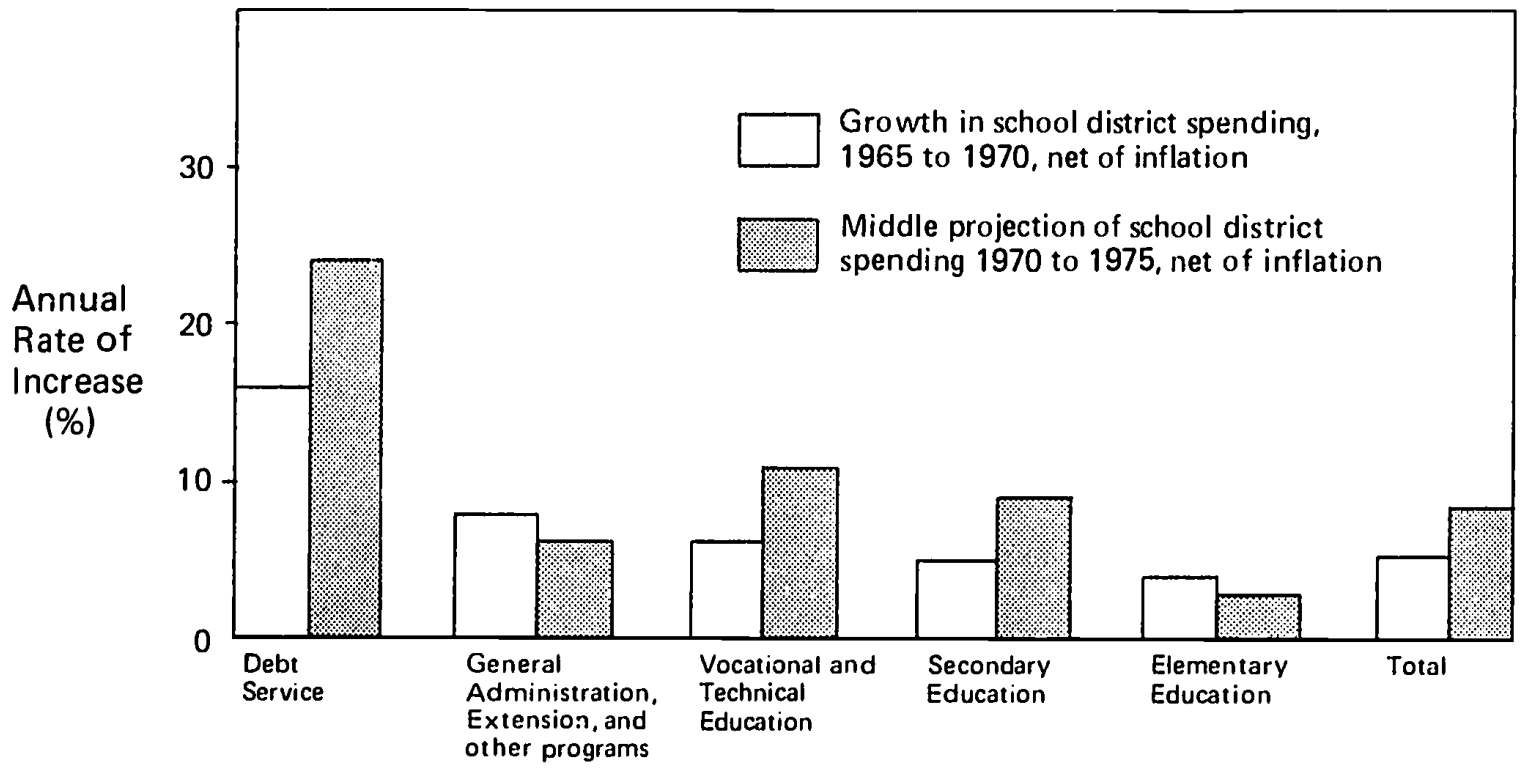

CHART 2. Aside from inflation, outlays for debt service, general administration, and extension programs have spearheaded the growth in school spending. Although administration and extension costs will slow in the future, the slack will be more than taken up by costs of secondary and vocational-technical education. The shaded bars correspond to our medium projection.

likely expectation for the future is that the recent gradual increase in educational staff will continue.

Enrollment Shift. Recent increases in total enrollment have been concentrated in elementary grades. As current elementary students work their way to the upper grades, secondary students will become a larger share of total enrollment. Since a larger complement of both teachers and assistants is used in upper grades than in primary grades, more students in secondary schools will spell higher total costs for the schools.

New Schools. Debt service has been, and will continue to be, the most rapidly growing element in the education budget. Expansion in enrollment has begun to burst the seams of the aged education plant in Philadelphia. Double shifts and temporary classrooms have been necessary. So, the School Board had begun a long-range program of building which stretches out beyond 1975. As monetary conditions ease, the District will attempt to catch up on lost time as well as carry out previously scheduled construction. Increases in debt service to support the accelerated building program will be compounded by payments for bonds sold to balance the 1970 operating budget of the School District.

Total School Spending. According to our middle projection, shown in Chart 5, total expansion in the School budget may be about 50 per cent more rapid in the coming years than recently, not including the effects of inflation. Greater debt service cost and the enrollment shift would cause this more rapid upsurge. Overall staff expansion would continue at the rate established in the last four years, with some emphasis on new personnel to support rising secondary enrollment.

2. **Municipal Services.** Spending by the city has grown more regularly through the years than has spending by the School District (See Chart 1). In large part, this is a reflection of the variety of functions the City performs and the latitude it has to balance its spending among them. During the early sixties, for example, when police expenditures were rising rapidly, expenditures for other categories, principally street maintenance, were cut. Recent growth in pension payments may have caused government officials to restrict growth of health, welfare, and capital spending. The School District, in contrast, produces just one product—education—and has less range within which to balance priorities.

Over the long term, the City has had some of the same goals as has the School District—social and economic development of the city, for example. And, these goals will probably affect the composition of future spending by the City, with health, welfare, and debt service to support construction receiving emphasis. Spending on pensions probably will continue to grow as the required City contribution is escalated by wage increases.

Pensions. First, City contributions to the pension fund were substantially liberalized in the late sixties. In addition, the rapid increase in wages paid to City employees took its toll in terms of increased pensions to newly retired workers.

Health. Rising expenditures for both health and police reflect fundamental pressures upon the city.

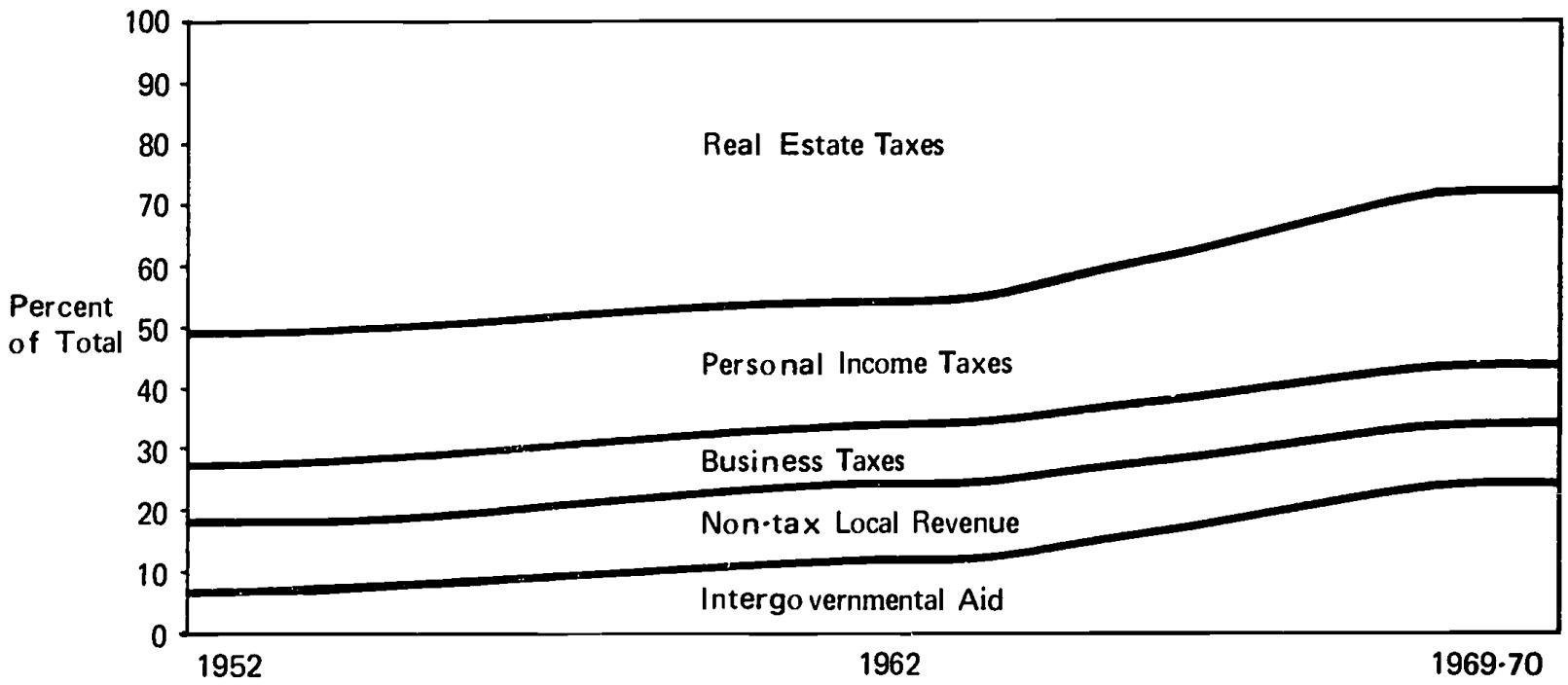

CHART 3. Local taxes have become a smaller part of city and school district revenues as intergovernmental aid has mushroomed and real estate receipts have lagged.

Growth of these outlays reflects intensified efforts to aid the low-income population of the city.

Police. Wages are a major reason that the police budget has grown. Also, the size of the police force has expanded steadily in all years except 1966.

Other Expenditures. Most remaining elements in the City budget—streets, welfare, recreation, courts, fire, debt service, and miscellaneous—have grown, and are expected to grow, at moderate rates.

City Total. Combining all City categories, we project an annual rate of 6.5 per cent for the City budget. This is about one half higher than the 4.0 per cent growth posted in the late sixties. The increased expansion reflects, chiefly, increased debt service and health and welfare services.[2]

Total Bill

Including inflation, growth in public services could mean a thumping 120 per cent increase in expenditures for the City and School District combined between 1970 and 1975 (See Chart 5.) The middle current-dollar projection continues the trend established in the late 1960's, with high and low estimates deviating only slightly from the past trend. The projection includes more real growth than in the past few years. Thus, while taxpayers again may have to face a doubling in the public bill, as they did during the late sixties, they may expect the gain in services to make up a large part of the growth.

Paying the Bill

While public spending in Philadelphia has been on the upsurge, the tax base has not kept pace. Were it not for hefty tax hikes, additional taxes, and massive intergovernmental aid, Philadelphia's public sector now would be hopelessly mired in debt. And the financial road in the 1970's promises to be even more rocky. The City and School District may face a combined deficit of $500 million in the fiscal year 1975, even if tax receipts continue a normal growth and nonlocal aid increases sizably. If intergovernmental aid does not grow, the deficit could reach $700 million.

Support for Philadelphia's public spending comes from several different sources—local taxes, Commonwealth aid, Federal aid, and a host of smaller local fees, fines, and service charges. Local sources have been shouldering less of the burden in recent years. As shown in Chart 3, the share supported by local revenues has dropped from about 93 per cent of total government receipts in Philadelphia to about 77 per cent between 1952 and 1970.

Part of the relative decline was planned. Both states and the Federal Government have gradually accepted the idea that services to the large low-income population in old cities like Philadelphia are a responsibility of more fiscally fortunate taxpayers across the state and nation. Perhaps necessity has been more forceful, however, in lowering the relative share of revenues raised locally. The increasing low-income population and static economy of the city, which have led to increasing demand for public services, have also slowed the growth of the local tax base. Local support, therefore, has become more difficult to generate as demands for services have surged.

The Local Yoke

Personal income earned by residents of Philadelphia is the principal source from which local taxes must be

[2]This is our most probable or middle expectation. A very tight economy may push this rate of growth up by a point, and a weak economy may lower it by a point.

paid. This resource base has not grown nearly so fast as has spending for education and municipal services (See Chart 4.) Still, leaders of the City and School District have tried to keep local tax receipts up with spending. So, they have levied sharp tax hikes which have taken a bigger bite out of Philadelphian's budgets. Because of advances in tax rates and creation of new taxes, tax receipts now equal nearly 8 per cent of total income earned by residents of the city—up from 6 per cent in the late 1950's.[3] The problem is aggravated further, because the base upon which local taxes are levied—income, real property, and business receipts—has not kept up with growth in personal income. Slow growth in the value of taxable real property is the main cause of the lag.

revenues in the early 1960s. Commonwealth aid to the School District jumped from 20 per cent of all revenues in 1952 to just over 50 per cent in fiscal year 1970. During the same period, real estate tax receipts plunged from 65 per cent to 34 per cent of total School revenues.

The Prospects for Local Revenue. Inflation and real growth will contribute to tax coffers. The local tax base, net of inflation, will probably expand as it has in the last five years. Tax returns from personal income—the wage, earnings, and personal property taxes—may show a slight increase as total employment grows and wages continue to rise.

Real estate revenues, however, will show little response to changes in the rate of inflation and thus

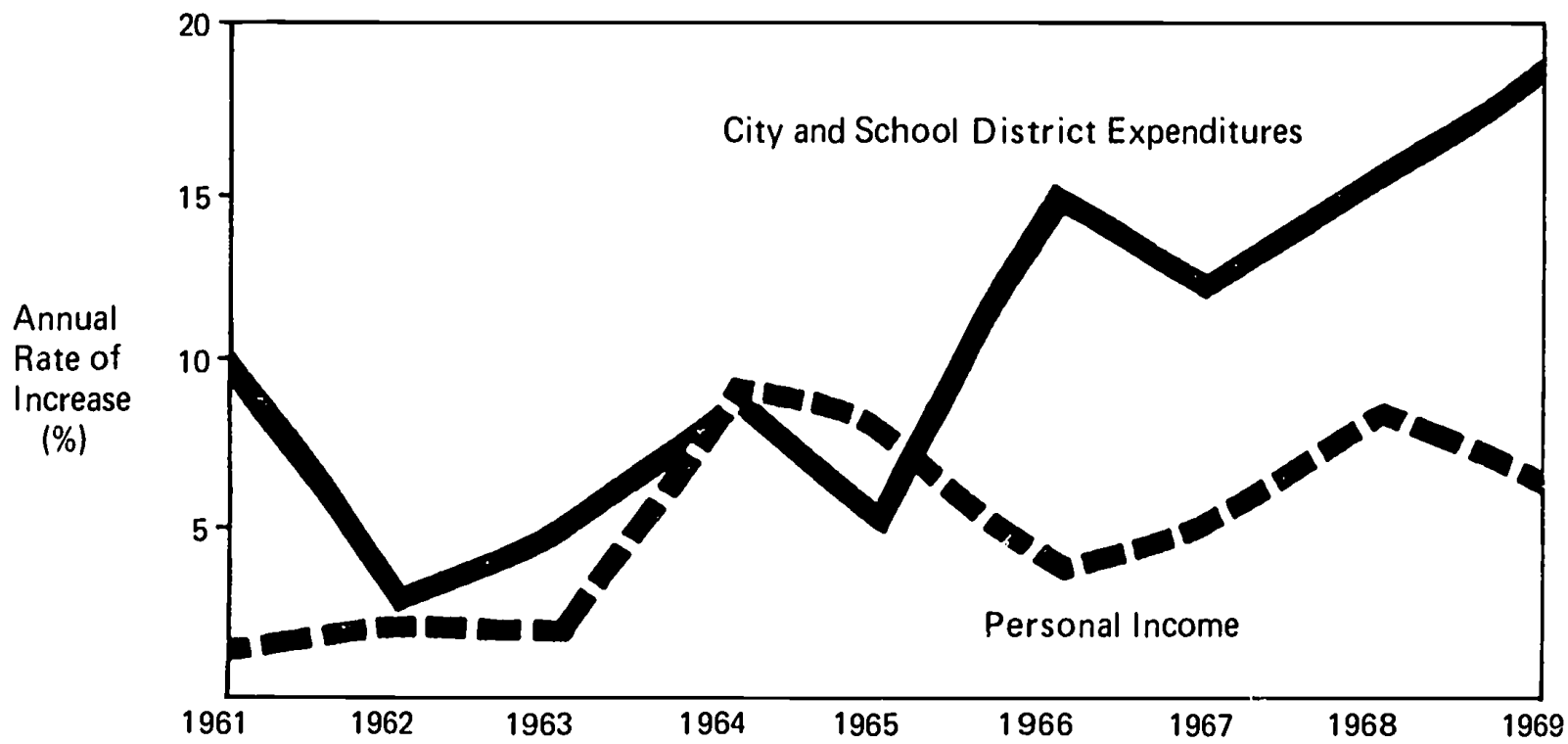

CHART 4. Growth in city and school spending has outstripped gains in personal income of the city's taxpayer.

Real Estate. While personal income has increased by 43 per cent since 1960, the value of taxable real property has advanced a paltry 15 per cent. Lagging demand, particularly by high- and middle-income families, for housing in the city, low investment in industrial properties, and a significant expansion of tax-exempt properties all contribute to this sluggish growth. Because of this lag, the real estate tax has declined in importance as a source of revenue.

Real Estate Substitutes. To relieve pressure on the sagging real property base, the City of Philadelphia has increased its wage and earnings taxes. Intergovernmental aid provided another means of relief. The School District turned to the Commonwealth when spending began to outpace sluggish real estate

will grow at about the same pace, regardless of economic conditions. Our expectation is that the average rate of inflation in consumer prices may be about 4.5 per cent during the early 1970s. Real growth in tax receipts and inflation, when combined, may push City revenues up to $670 million in 1975 and School District revenues up to $460 million (See Chart 5).

THESE TAX RECEIPTS WILL NOT BE ENOUGH TO COVER EXPENDITURES. Assuming intergovernmental revenues remain at 1970 levels and tax rates are not increased, a combined City-School District deficit of three-quarters-of-a-billion dollars would remain—$325 million for the School District, and $400 million for the City (See Table 1).

Intergovernmental Aid

During the '50's and '60's, urban centers in the nation, particularly large central cities, became the homes of millions of low-income families. Lacking

[3]This measure of tax burden includes collections from business and industry. However, personal income is closely related to the changing value of production in the city. Comparison of personal tax collections with income yields similar results.

adequate skills for long-term employment, most families leaned on the local public sector for education, health, welfare, and recreation services. However, there were severe inequities in the ability of local governments to support essential services, and increasing numbers of municipalities faced erosion of their tax bases. So, it was imperative that Federal and state revenues be used to tackle the job of improving public services.

Most of the intergovernmental aid programs that proliferated during the 1960's emphasized assistance for local services whose benefits may "spill over" into other communities—particularly health, education, and welfare services. Nearly 95 per cent of aid received by Philadelphia in 1970 was for these purposes. Education probably will continue to glean the lion's share of intergovernmental assistance in the 1970s.

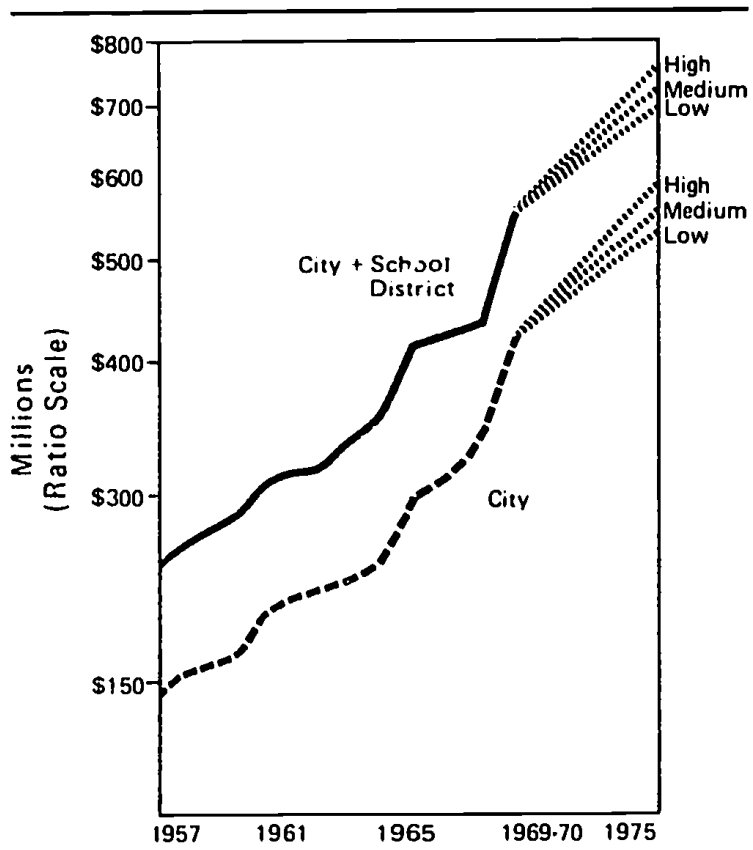

CHART 5. Growth of local revenues will slow some without new hikes in tax rates.

To the School District. Since 1965, intergovernmental revenues to the School District have grown from $54 to $146 million—a 160 per cent increase. The bulk of this aid comes from the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania. The future of Commonwealth aid to the School District is fraught with uncertainties. Recent increases in subsidy payments have been erratic and explosive. Uncertainty also is compounded by the budget battles that periodically rage in Harrisburg.

Large jumps in aid during the late 1960s resulted, in part, from hard campaigning by leaders of Philadelphia, and also from some special factors, such as the revision in the Commonwealth formula for providing aid. Further large jumps seem improbable. A likely expectation is that aid to Philadelphia schools will grow at about the rate posted for all schools in the Commonwealth. Our projection would place Commonwealth aid to Philadelphia schools at $280 million in 1975—a 15 per cent annual rate of increase. Of course, all of this assumes the Commonwealth is able to get its fiscal house in order.

To the City. Intergovernmental aid to the City, while only a fraction of its revenues, has increased sharply—from $12 to $38 million between 1965 and 1970. The largest portion of this aid supports health and welfare services. Even in the light of the Commonwealth's fiscal problems, these social services are likely to continue to receive high priority into the 1970s. Consequently, it seems reasonable to assume that the City can anticipate continuation in the recent rate of growth of its intergovernmental receipts—24 per cent annually to a level of $110 million in 1975. But, of course, problems faced by Commonwealth and Federal governments could make a shambles of this projection.

In the Red

Even if these rather hefty increases in intergovernmental aid materialize, the City and School District would still face a combined deficit of approximately $520 million in 1975 (See Table 1).[4] Without action between now and 1975, deficits will pile up each year, cumulating to nearly $1.4 billion. According to our middle projection, the combined City and School District deficit might look like this:

1971	$ 60 million
1972	140 million
1973	235 million
1974	370 million
1975	516 million
Cumulative total	$1,321 million

Of course, these projections assume that intergovernmental aid comes through as it has in the past—a fairly shaky assumption. Even if it should, however, immediate and continuing action on tax increases or economy measures or both will be needed.

Plugging the Gap

Even assuming growth in tax revenues and rapid expansion of nonlocal aid, new measures must be implemented to head off fiscal chaos in the 1970s. One alternative, President Nixon's revenue-sharing proposal, holds promise of easing the burden on local governments. But higher tax rates and some new taxes very likely will have to be added to the existing package of local collections. Also, public pressure will continue to mount for budget cutting.

[4]This is not a cumulative deficit, but outstanding bills for just the fiscal year 1975.

	City			School District			Combined City and School District		
	High	Medium	Low	High	Medium	Low	High	Medium	Low
Expenditures	1,200	1,000	787	747	643	552	1,947	1,643	1,339
Minus local tax revenues and existing levels of intergovernmental aid	616	594	572	327	319	313	943	913	885
Results in a deficit without new intergovernmental funds.	584	406	215	420	324	239	1,004	730	454
If new Commonwealth and federal government aid is added	91	72	56	210	142	88	301	214	144
The gap would be	493	334	159	210	182	151	703	516	310

TABLE 1. A projected balance sheet for fiscal 1975 (millions of dollars).

New Dough: Revenue Sharing

By 1975, Federal revenue sharing could help relieve Philadelphia's financial headaches. The current Presidential proposal would give $5 billion of "new money" to the states and cities of the nation. Under the proposed formula of distribution, the City would receive $44 million, and the School District would garner the more modest sum of $10 million.[5] Of course, passage of the measure is far from assured. And, some of the principal bills that may supplant revenue sharing would provide little direct help to Philadelphia. A Federal take-over of responsibility for supporting monthly welfare payments, for example, would ease the Commonwealth's problems. However, since Philadelphia's welfare responsibility does not extend to financial aid to the needy, the proposal would be of little direct aid to the City.

Upping the Local Ante

On the local front, pushing up tax levies is often the first tack taken when deficits appear. One strategy for the future would be to jack up rates at a pace similar to recent trends. How much would this strategy produce? A one-point jump in the wage tax to 4 per cent, for example, would account for $92 million of new revenue; a 5 per cent increase in the real estate tax would yield $7 million; and a one-point increase in the unincorporated business net profits tax to 4 per cent would produce $7 million. If revenue-sharing funds were forthcoming and the City of Philadelphia instituted these tax increases, its deficit would still be $180 million.

For the School District, tax increases would be less fruitful. None of the large taxes which make up its local revenue—the real estate tax and corporate net income tax, for example—keeps up with the economic growth of the city as does the wage tax. Consequently, EVEN SUBSTANTIAL INCREASES IN TAX RATES WOULD NOT GENERATE ENOUGH REVENUE TO PLUG THE DEFICIT. INCREASES CONSISTENT WITH PAST JUMPS IN THE SCHOOL DISTRICT'S TWO BIG TAXES WOULD GENERATE ONLY $30 MILLION IN NEW FUNDS. THIS AMOUNT, COMBINED WITH $10 MILLION IN REVENUE-SHARING FUNDS, WOULD STILL LEAVE THE SCHOOL DISTRICT WITH AN $140 MILLION DEFICIT IN 1975.

New Nuisances. Possibly, sharp-eyed officials can find new local sources of funds. The principal sources of revenue—personal income, real property, and business receipts—are already being tapped. Thus, new taxes must be on narrower bases, and collections would be smaller. A further problem with new taxes is that unless they are planned ahead, local officials may be forced, as they have been in the past, to push the measures through with little time allowed for attention to details.

Two recent taxes of the School District illustrate. One, a tax on sale of liquor at bars and restaurants, was declared illegal a few months after enactment, but after the School District had begun to count on it. The other, a tax on payments by business for rented space, is being collected, but the proceeds are expected to be small, and collection costs may be high.

With $140 million in outstanding bills to be met in 1975, School leaders may be tempted to invent four or five new small taxes. An early start on these taxes may help. But the pay-off is bound to be small, expensive, and uncertain.

[5]This estimate derived from *Federal Revenue Sharing with State and Local Governments*. U.S. Department of the Treasury. July, 1970.

Trimming the Fat

Cost-cutting is the other side of the fiscal coin, and beleaguered taxpayers have been outspoken in their demands for budget cutbacks. Unfortunately, savings from budget trimming may be less lucrative than many critics expect.

Budget trimming may be done in two ways—improving the efficiency of government or cutting the services provided by government. Undoubtedly, some inefficiency is present in Philadelphia schools and government. Inefficiency can be found in almost all agencies and firms. However, the amount that could practicably be eliminated is probably small and would go only a short way towards plugging the gap.

The other line of budget trimming is by way of reducing the services performed by City and School government. Certainly a large part of the impending deficit could be eliminated in this way. Voters constantly decide on what they want government to provide, and they may cut back their demands as new, higher prices for government services are established. However, the appeal of service-cutting, strong in the abstract, is less appealing when translated into specific cuts like fewer police, less hospital care, or fewer teachers—each of which provides an important service in the eyes of some segment of the community.

No Panaceas

Philadelphia's financial crisis will continue into the 1970's. Spiraling costs of labor, a sagging local tax base, and highly uncretain assistance from other levels of government will complicate the yearly task of balancing the City and School District's budgets.

Several alternatives are available for closing the prospective gap in the public budget—new or higher local taxes, greater aid from the Commonwealth and Federal governments, and reductions in the local public budget. Also, a number of new measures which would directly or indirectly aid the ailing public sector are waiting in the wings: revenue sharing by the Federal Government, provision for crediting local taxes against amounts due state or Federal governments, and transfer of responsibility for some services to state government, for example. But none of the solutions will be easy or costless. Moreover, if they are to be effective, they must be planned and appropriately timed to meet deficits as they arise.

The deficit projected for the 1975 fiscal year is large, but not nearly so large as the cumulative total of deficits that could occur between now and 1975. Budgets for the coming year probably will have a moderate amount of red ink, with the shade deepening for later years. Next year's problems allow little time for planning. But, hopefully, an early start on the fiscal problems of later years will help head off increasing deficits.

JUDICIAL REFORM OF EDUCATIONAL FINANCE

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States typically delegate the power to tax property to local school boards and then supplement local property taxes with state grants, usually called equalization or foundation grants. Under this plan localities support about 54% of school costs on the average, while states pay about 40% and the Federal Government about 6%, again on the average. The state/local proportions have remained remarkably stable for the past three decades. The federal share temporarily increased to 8% in 1967 but has now slipped back to 6%.

When state legislatures delegate to localities the power to tax property, they make a grossly unequal grant of power. Rich school districts have far more taxing power per pupil than other districts. Sometimes the wealthiest district in a state is several hundred times wealthier than the poorest. These disparities become serious inequities when one examines their fiscal and educational consequences—and equal educational opportunity becomes a hoax rather than a reality. States have attempted to compensate for this unequal grant of power by adopting grant-in-aid programs presumably designed to equalize among localities the distribution of educational services, or the tax burden for education. The fact is that in no case has one of these equalization or foundation programs actually equalized educational opportunities. As one study of state aid to education in Massachusetts concluded:

> The correlation between the rate of state support and local ability was so slight that the state could actually have done as well if it had made no attempt to relate its support program to local ability and distributed its largesse in a completely random fashion, as by the State Treasurer throwing checks from an airplane and allowing the vagaries of the elements to distribute them among the different communities.

A comparison between Beverly Hills and West Covina (California school districts) will illustrate these inequities. Beverly Hills had a tax rate in 1968-69 of $2.38 per $100 and spent $1,231 per pupil. West Covina had a tax rate in the same year of $5.24 and it could spend, despite the higher rate, $621 per pupil. The reason why the higher tax effort did not produce a higher expenditure was that the assessed valuation per pupil in Beverly Hills far surpassed that in West Covina: $87,066 as compared with $7,688 per elementary school pupil, and $122,452 as compared with $15,651 per high school pupil. In a survey of the ten richest and ten poorest unified districts in California, the ten richest districts all spent (in 1968-69) more than any of the ten poorest, even though all of the ten poorest districts have tax rates that are higher than the rates in all but one of the ten richest districts.

Of course, many political and educational leaders are keenly aware of these inequities. Even people who want to do something about redressing them feel powerless to do so because of the complex web of political trade-offs that appear to guarantee in perpetuity the present carefully negotiated status-quo.

Two important signs of impending change are discernible, however, even without considering the law suits I will soon describe. The first is the shifting relationship among education interest groups. Traditionally, education groups presented a united front to state officials and on balance were highly successful in having their legislative packages enacted. In recent years there has been a noticeable trend away from unity among education interest groups. The increasing fragmentation among interest groups provides state officials an opportunity to seize the initiative in state policy-making for education. It is not possible to predict the exact policy outcomes that will occur

because of the interest group fragmentation, but it clearly diminishes the need for state officials to make policy primarily by reacting to the demands of others.

The second factor indicating that basic change may be ahead in school finance is the inexorable rise in educational costs requiring regular state and local tax increases just to maintain existing levels of educational services. Total expenditures for education rose dramatically during the 1960 s. Between 1960 and 1970 expenditures more than doubled from $15.6 billion to $39.6 billion, a 153% increase. During that same period pupil enrollment increased by only 30%. Another way to look at expenditure data shows that between 1947 and 1967 the GNP increased at an average annual rate of 6.4% while school expenditures rose at an annual rate of 9.8%. No one familiar with what is going on in local collective bargaining agreements between school boards and teachers can feel optimistic that spiralling costs will soon disappear. The local property tax well seems to be running dry;[1] in California this past year 60% of local school tax and bond elections were defeated. We thus face either an indefinite prolongment of pressure to raise taxes for education, or we must seek to redefine the rules of school finance in a more equitable manner.

A small but growing pressure for reform is organizing behind a series of court challenges to the constitutionality of state and local school finance plans. Cases are now before state and federal courts in several states in which the plaintiffs claim that the current system of financing schools—in which expenditures are a function of the local wealth of the district rather than that of the state as a whole—is a violation of rights guaranteed by the equal protection clause of the 14th Amendment and by similar clauses in some state constitutions.

The basic thinking behind the current school finance suits was done by Arthur Wise, in his book, *Rich Schools, Poor Schools: The Promise of Equal Educational Opportunity*.

Wise's major contribution is not in the empirical splendor of his analysis, for his work, though tightly reasoned, was not primarily empirical. Nor does Wise treat the thorny cost-effectiveness issues that haunt school finance; even if educators and politicians wished to utilize cost-effectiveness data in allocating school resources (which most do not), the issue of equity of benefits still remains. Nor is his contribution found in factual observations about school finance disparities; scholars have been cursing the darkness of school finance inequities for well over half a century. Wise's principal contribution is that he lights a small candle or two and tries to show us a way out of that darkness.

Wise argues that:

> The absence of equal educational opportunity within a state, as evidenced by unequal per-pupil expenditures, may constitute a denial by the state of the equal protection of its laws.

He immediately suggests two underlying precepts upon which his major argument rests. The first is the equal protection clause of the Fourteenth Amendment:

> No State shall . . . deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

Second, Wise cites the Supreme Court's most important application of the equal protection clause to education in *Brown v. Board of Education*:

> The opportunity of an education, . . . where the state has undertaken to provide it, is a right which must be made available to all on equal terms.

Wise then searches for judicial precedents which could be utilized in an application of equal protection doctrine to state action in the public school finance field. He finds important precedents in indigent criminal cases, voter equality cases, and as noted above, in racial equality cases.

Indigent criminals have recently been provided significant new protection by the Supreme Court. For example, in *Griffin v. Illinois*, the Supreme Court held that the State of Illinois denied equal protection to indigent defendants when the state:

> . . . allows all convicted defendants to have appellate review except those who cannot afford to pay for the records of their trials.

Case law surrounding *Griffin v. Illinois* makes clear that in the criminal justice field, states may not allow poverty to determine whether certain constitutional rights of defendants may be exercised.

Another set of Supreme Court precedents is drawn from voter equality cases, primarily from *Baker v. Carr*. In that case, the Supreme Court struck down as "arbitrary and capricious state action" a provision in the Tennessee State Constitution basing legislative representation on the number of qualified voters in each county in 1901. Wise quotes Justice Clark's concurring opinion in *Baker v. Carr*:

> The frequency and magnitude of inequalities in the present districting admit of no policy whatever . . . . The apportionment picture in Tennessee is a topsy-turvical of giant proportions . . . . Tennessee's apportionment is a crazy quilt without rational basis.

A major part of Wise's book constitutes a discussion of ways to apply precedents from these three sets of cases—racial equality, indigent criminals, and voter equality—to state action in financing public schools. The goal of these efforts would be to have the courts strike down, on constitutional grounds, present state school finance plans, and require legislatures to develop new financing arrangements that do not permit geography and local wealth to determine the quality of a child's education.

In the years since Wise completed his study there have been a number of attempts to put his theories to the test in actual cases. Suits challenging the constitu-

[1] See discussion of this topic by David Lyon.—Ed.

tionality of state school finance arrangements have been brought in Virginia, Michigan, Illinois, California, Texas, Florida, and Wisconsin. The first of these cases to be decided was *McInnis v. Oglivie* in which poor plaintiffs in Chicago alleged that the state's school finance system resulted in constitutionally unacceptable disparities in educational programs, expenditures, and in the level of educational attainment. The plaintiffs asked a three-judge Federal District Court to issue an injunction requiring that school monies be distributed "based upon the educational needs of children." The court curtly dismissed the complaint, partially on grounds that the requested relief—a standard based upon educational need—was vague and judicially unenforceable. The dismissal was later upheld by the Supreme Court.

In Virginia, students and taxpayers in Bath County, and a determined attorney, Irwin Solomon, charged that equal protection was denied by state laws creating substantial disparities in educational quality and facilities in Bath County relative to other school districts in Virginia. Unlike *McInnis*, which was dismissed before it went to trial, the court granted standing to the plaintiffs and heard arguments based upon the merits of the case. A three-judge federal court dismissed the case, citing the *McInnis v. Oglivie* decision, and an appeal to the U.S. Supreme Court failed to reverse this decision. The Bath County decision by the three-judge court includes language accepting plaintiffs' arguments regarding the existence of grossly unequal educational services and facilities, but evades judicial action by arguing that the problem requires legislative remedy.

In California, the case of *Serrano v. Priest* is, as of this writing, pending in appeal before the California State Supreme Court. Plaintiffs are asking the court to remand the case to lower jurisdiction for trial on its merits.[2]

A most interesting case was brought by the Board of Education of Detroit, Michigan, against the State of Michigan. Allegations in this case were approximately the same as those in the two cases cited above. Plaintiffs filed in state court and asked for a declaratory judgment against the "state aid act." This case, recently dismissed for lack of prosecution, may shortly be re-filed. A major research project, conducted in 1969 by James Guthrie, Ben Kleindorfer, Henry Levin, and Robert Stout (*Schools and Inequality*), analyzed relationships in Michigan between the following sets of variables: socioeconomic status of school district and family; school district and school building characteristics, such as expenditures and educational programs; and student achievement. The study, funded by the National Urban Coalition, confirmed that poor communities in Michigan are systematically provided a poorer quality and amount of educational service than upper or middle income communities. Using James Coleman's own data (in *Equality of Educational Opportunity*), Guthrie and his associates ranked 5,289 Michigan pupils into socioeconomic deciles and found a host of significant relationships within deciles between school service characteristics and student achievement. In other words, they concluded that *poor children who received better school services (e.g., higher teacher verbal score, more library books per pupil) scored better on mathematics and reading achievement tests.* The legal significance of this last finding is that it may assist in demonstrating that unequal provision of school services results in injury to identifiable classes of people, such as the poor.

The overwhelming body of data presented by Guthrie and his associates in Michigan contrasts starkly with the lack of systematic data presented in other equal protection cases thus far. Most of the cases have been brought by attorneys relying substantially on their own resources without expensive legal and educational research assistance. None of the cases has yet achieved a victory in the courts. This is not surprising in view of the enormous stakes involved and the large gap that has existed in most cases between allegation and evidence. There are two ways to narrow that gap, either by reducing in scale the generality of the allegations and aiming suits at more specific provisions of state law than the total financial system, or by seeing to it that suits which are tried have first-class research assistance available to organize evidence documenting alleged disparities.

One example for the need for sophisticated research assistance is the difficulty in some states of establishing from readily available data that school finance disparities are systematically associated with the economic condition of a judicially recognizable class of persons, such as poor people in a state. It may be easier to argue that equal protection is denied if it can be established that school finance disparities are not random in their incidence and effect, but are systematically rigged to provide better education to rich children than to poor ones.

Perhaps it should be noted at this point that the education establishment has historically relied heavily upon equality of educational opportunity as a major argument for greater funding of schools. However, no major organization in this establishment has moved forward to organize a system of data collection that would reveal, annually, by state, the actual extent of fiscal disparities in education. It is difficult even for careful students of school finance to ascertain whether

[2]The action, brought in the name of Serrano on behalf of public school students not residing in California's wealthiest districts, contended that basing educational expenditures on district wealth violated the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution. When the action was initiated at the trial court level, the lower courts refused to hear the case and pointed to an earlier Illinois decision (*Shaperio v. McInnis*) as a basis for their action. When the case was heard by the California Supreme Court (since Kelly's writing), it *was* remanded to lower jurisdiction for trial on its merits.

progress is or is not being made in reducing such inequities. For example, we do not today have a definitive study as to whether or not ESEA Title I allocations from the Federal Government have served to decrease differences in expenditures among school districts since 1965. An annual monitoring system needs to be established which would provide the public and the profession with information regarding the extent to which gaps between expenditures in rich and poor school districts are being increased or diminished.

Even without conclusive data, a surprising number of people have been attracted to the notion implicit in Wise's work that legislative remedy of school finance disparities, sought by reformers for many decades, is not likely to be forthcoming in the foreseeable future. At any rate, legislators tend to deal marginally with reform proposals, and there is enormous inertia built into the present system because of the intricate checks and balances that have been built into it over the years.

In this context it is interesting that a number of recent proposals have been made for drastic reordering of school finance arrangements. Foremost among recent proposals are calls for full state-funding of education. Governor Milliken of Michigan has proposed that the state assume virtually all public education costs by levying a higher state income tax and distributing from general state revenue sufficient educational funds based on measures of local need.

In this context it is interesting that a number of recent proposals have been made for drastic reordering of school finance arrangements. Foremost among recent proposals are calls for full state-funding of education. Governor Milliken of Michigan has proposed that the state assume virtually all public education costs by levying a higher state income tax and distributing from general state revenue sufficient educational funds based on measures of local need. James Conant had earlier called for some form of full state-funding of public education costs, as has former United States Commissioner of Education, James Allen. The Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations, lending its prestige to this embryonic movement, has built the idea of full state-funding of education into its overall program for federal-state-local fiscal reform.

If full state-funding seems visionary and impractical, the example of New Brunswick, Canada may in part allay the skepticism and suspicion that the proposal seems to evoke. New Brunswick has had centralized educational financing since 1967, when it reorganized many of its governmental functions. Granted the province, with 172,000 pupils, has fewer students and smaller expenditures than most of its American counterparts; nevertheless, the problems that New Brunswick faced were analogous in character if not in magnitude, and the success of its initial efforts merits study and commendation.

The increased cost of education at the provincial level was met in part by restructuring the tax system in the following ways: a) elimination of the property tax and other local nuisance-type taxes; b) enactment of a uniform, province-wide real estate tax at an effective rate of 1.5 per cent of market value determined by *provincial* rather than local assessors; and c) provincial billing and collection of all property taxes, including those of municipalities.

The number of local districts decreased from 400 to 33; the districts were organized into seven regions, each with a provincially-appointed regional superintendent. Each district is administered by a board of elected and appointed school trustees who are responsible for the administration of finances within the district.

The individual districts prepare annually a budget for education. The budget is submitted to the Minister of Education and then analyzed by the Department of Education. The budget is then discussed jointly by department, regional, and district personnel, before a decision is made. The approved budgets are then submitted to the Treasury and ultimately to the Legislature (as part of the provincial budget) for approval. Since 1970, the Department has centralized the payroll and mails checks on a bi-monthly basis to approximately 10,000 teaching and non-teaching employees.

In addition, the province has instituted a province-wide salary scale for teachers, based on education and experience but uniform throughout the province. Each district can hire as many of the best-qualified teachers as it is able to attract to meet its staff needs, within a suggested teacher-pupil ratio of 1-23. At the time of centralization, New Brunswick adopted the salary schedule paid in the best-paying district, rather than an average or intermediate one—a practice which initially increased teacher support for the plan. The salary scale is now determined by negotiations between the provincial government and the teachers' union.

New Brunswick has thus substantially equalized resources and services per pupil, and eliminated some major inequities that contaminate state school finance systems in the United States.

If states assume a greater share of education expenditures, full state-funding is obviously only one of several fiscal plans that could be adopted. One possibility, a variant of New Brunswick's "equal dollars" distribution approach, would have the state raise all revenues for education through state taxes but distribute the funds according to formulas based on educational need. "Need" formulas could utilize measures of student socioeconomic status, such as parents' education level, and allocate more funds to the disadvantaged, or could follow the suggestions of the National Education Finance Project and define student need in terms of the educational program, such as vocational education or special education. A voucher plan could

utilize either an "equal dollars" or "needs" approach.

Still another possibility is suggested in a recent book, *Private Wealth and Public Education*, whose senior author is Professor Jack Coons of the Law School at the University of Californiz, Berkeley. Coons suggests that localities be allowed to select a level of tax effort to which the state would attach an expenditure level. For example, all communities in a state which selected a property tax rate of 3% would be allowed to spend, say $600 per pupil, regardless of the local wealth of the district.

These are only some of many possible responses to a court decision striking down present arrangements. Some preserve the tradition of local initiative, others do not. But none discriminate against children because of the district in which they live. The political stresses produced by such a basic reconstruction of educational finance would likely rival those generated by reapportionment. Strong, independent legislative policy-making would be required to achieve such a reform.

As states assume a greater share of the financial responsibility they are also likely to face stronger and stronger pressures to establish ways that states can hold localities accountable for how effectively education dollars are spent. A few legislatures have required their states to develop statewide assessment programs to do just what I have described above. Michigan, Colorado, and Florida are among ten to twelve states which have adopted such plans.

Assessment programs are emerging in these and other states because significant groups of constituents interested in public education are demanding that legislators hold schools accountable for something other than simply spending appropriated funds in legally approved ways. They are demanding that schools be held accountable for the end result of teaching. They do not particularly care whether a school has a large or small percentage of teachers with master's degrees so long as their children are learning to read in the school. These demands are not restricted to disadvantaged communities; many white, middle-class parents are increasingly disenchanted with the productivity of schools and are seeking reforms in the conduct and governance of schools.

The day is not yet here when legislatures are being asked to cut off funds for local schools because the schools' performance on student achievement tests is unsatisfactory. But a number of states already conduct testing programs each year and base certain remedial and categorical aid programs on the results of the tests. Clearly the decade of the 1970s will witness increasing political pressures for state assessment of educational results, a trend that is surely going to stimulate states to improve their own sources of information, their attention to discretionary state and federal dollars going to local schools, and last but not least, will partially redefine the traditionally passive posture of states toward the local administration of schools.

In this connection the Educational Testing Service has requested Ford Foundation funding to establish a center for statewide educational assessment. The center would have four principal functions: first, collect and disseminate information on statewide assessment efforts; second, conduct orientation and training programs for state leaders and personnel; third, develop and disseminate alternative models of statewide assessment programs; and fourth, provide limited technical assistance to individual states on assessment problems.

The school finance equal protection suits thus may be profoundly influential on state school governance in the 1970s. Already several major groups of educators, including the National Education Association, the American Federation of Teachers and the Research Council of the Great Cities, have entered *amici* briefs in support of plaintiffs seeking to change the status-quo. Several chief state school officers have been sympathetic to cases in their states. A solid case can be made in these cases that states are not now providing the opportunity for education "to all on equal terms" as they are specifically required to do by the Supreme Court in *Brown v. Board of Education*. It is likely that lawyers, educators and politicians will spend a good part of the 1970s seeking to use and refine Arthur Wise's arguments as a new lever in an old battle.

CERTIFICATION OF EDUCATIONAL PERSONNEL

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Meaning of Competence

The question which any licensing authority faces is: What criteria should be used to decide that a candidate can teach? Unless this question is answered satisfactorily, little else is worth considering.

Perhaps the best way to answer the criterial question is to examine some of the criteria that have been proposed. Thy are as follows:

1. Academic proficiency.
2. Ability to perform skills and behaviors deemed essential to teaching.
3. Ability to produce changes in pupil behavior.

The first level criterion, academic proficiency, is the lowest level currently in use. It consists in the rule that a candidate must meet a specified level of academic achievement. This level is typically a Bachelor's degree including specified courses. The evidence that the applicant has met this criterion usually consists of transcripts from accredited institutions, or testimony by an officer of the institution that the requirements have been satisfied. *Whatever form the application of this criterion takes, in the final analysis it is the word of the university authorities that constitutes the evidence in support of the applicant's request for a license. The question of whether the candidate can perform any better as a result of his college preparation is never faced.* It is assumed that academic work necessarily pays off in better teaching and consequently in greater pupil achievement. The dubious character of this assumption, together with public discontent, is prompting the profession to take a new look at licensing policies and procedures.

The second level criterion has three aspects: first, it prescribes skills that a teacher must be able to perform; second, it requires that teachers be able to talk technically about teaching, and third, it specifies that a teacher exhibit appropriate affective behavior. This criterion abandons specific course requirements and academic hours of credit as the basis of certification, except for the candidate's subject matter field. We no longer ask what courses the candidate had or what grades he made, except in the discipline he is to teach. We now look for what he can do in the classroom, in interviews with parents, in working with his colleagues and in other activities normally carried on by teachers. For example, we want to know whether or not the teacher can give clear explanations, whether he can define terms clearly or demonstrate procedures, whether he can sense the anxieties of a parent and talk in ways that help the parent to understand or analyze in depth an educational question with his colleagues, etc.

The third criterion—ability to produce changes in pupil behavior—is perhaps the most rigorous. It requires that the candidate's behavior produce an acceptable level of pupil learning under specified conditions, and over a specified time. The growth of pupils must be reflected not only in cognitive achievement, but also in affective development.

Optimum Criteria

Which of these three criteria or combinations of them should be used to license teachers at the initial level? The first level criterion—academic proficiency—is acceptable only in the substantive part of the candidate's preparation. The weight to be assigned to this criterion is open to debate, but there can be no doubt that there should be evidence that the candidate has knowledge of what he is teaching. Perhaps this evidence can be gained from conventional academic records.

Of course, it can be said that if criterion three—pupil achievement—is applied, the use of this first level criterion is unnecessary. For if a candidate can bring about the specified pupil outcomes, that result is itself *prima facia* evidence that the candidate possesses the appropriate substantive knowledge.

But criterion three is not a sword that cuts both ways. If the candidate cannot produce the specified learnings, it will not be known whether his failure is to be attributed to lack of substantive knowledge or to faulty teaching skills.

Despite the fact that academic achievement does contribute substantively to teaching, no record of proficiency in the disciplines, no matter how good, is evidence of competence in the skills and behaviors of teacher. This claim is borne out by the preponderance of research on this point during the last fifty years.

If we shift now to the highest level criterion—production of appropriate levels of pupil achievement, it appears at first hand that it should be accepted without further ado. But the matter is not so simple as it appears. In the first place, this criterion demands more evidence than can be readily provided. In the second place, it requires more evidence than is demanded of any other type of professional—physician, lawyer, or what have you.

We are assuming that the classroom is a closed system—that there are no outside influences. But, of course, this assumption is not true. So the gain in pupil achievement must be attenuated to compensate for external influences. This will entail complex technical problems of both context and time sampling. The cost in time and energy to establish the competence of a single candidate by this criterion is too great for either a certifying authority or a training institution to bear.

Moreover, as already pointed out, the criterion is more rigorous than that applied to the licensing of other types of professional personnel such as lawyers and physicians. Medical doctors are not licensed because of their ability to cure a percentage of their patients, nor are lawyers licensed because they can guarantee justice for a certain proportion of their clients. They hold license to practice their arts because of evidence that they can follow the acceptable procedures of their respective professions. This is as it should be, for no one should be held accountable for an outcome unless he has control over all the factors that shape it. Neither lawyers nor physicians have such control, and teachers certainly do not. But a beginning teacher, like a beginner in any profession, is responsible for using appropriately the basic skills, knowledge and wisdom current in his profession. If he does so, and yet his pupils fail to achieve at specified levels, a license should not be refused him on that ground.

The import of what has been said is that the first and second of our three criteria—subject-matter knowledge, ability to perform the skills, use the technical pedagogical language, and exhibit proper affective behavior—are the optimum ones for the initial certification of teachers. The second of our optimum criteria—ability to perform skills and behaviors—requires that the performance of a teacher be observed in the classroom and other situations. Such observation is necessary to ascertain whether or not the candidate can in fact perform the specified acts or behaviors.

If we ask whether or not the performance of these skills and behaviors will induce learning in pupils or facilitate interaction with parents, colleagues, and pupils, we can answer the question in two ways. The first answer is that some skills have been tested out empirically in the classroom. For some of these, we can say that they are positively correlated with measures of pupil achievement, e.g., clarity of presentation, variation of instructional devices and cognitive levels, business-like procedure and task orientation, structuring, and probing. The second answer is that other skills and behaviors will be drawn from pedagogical wisdom and from theoretical formulations about how human beings interact and how pupils learn and consequently how they should be taught. The presumption is that these are more dependable than skills and behaviors that arise from sheer speculation. But ultimately, these too must be tested.

Considerable merit can be claimed for this criterion of competence, for it does have the advantage of focusing attention upon teacher performance. It can and will become as secure and adequate a basis for teacher certification as we are likely to develop. Even now we can and should begin to use it.

Application of the Optimum Criteria

Before the second of our two criteria can be used to license teachers, three difficulties must be overcome. The first difficulty arises from the fact that there is no satisfactory list of basic teacher skills and behaviors. We do not know what skills and behaviors a candidate is to be held accountable for.

A few attempts have been made in the last half dozen years to develop a catalogue of skills and behaviors, but we are far from having a satisfactory compilation. The second difficulty is due to the fact that we have no systematic scheme for observing teacher behavior that is comprehensive enough to cover a catalogue of basic skills and behaviors. The third difficulty is related to the fact that we have not decided who will collect the data on the performance of the candidate. The collection of data would be a costly operation for a licensing authority to undertake. Hence, certifying authorities are likely to place this responsibility upon the training institutions as has been done ever since the state and county examination system was abandoned. This is precisely what some certifying authorities are preparing to do.

This approach to the collection of data assumes that institutions of higher learning can be persuaded to

develop competence-based programs and that once these programs are approved by the certifying authority, competence-based certification is established in fact. But this is the same old policy of taking the word of a university official that the criteria have been satisfied. *It is axiomatic that training institutions cannot be persuaded to reform their programs by specifying criteria for certification as long as these same institutions are themselves allowed to decide whether or not their products meet the criteria.*

If the movement to institute competence-based certification is to have any chance to succeed, the initial certification of a teacher must be based upon an evaluation made independently of the institution that gave the training. This means that each state must establish a system of individual teacher evaluation operated by professionals and based upon samples of skills and behaviors.

The system of evaluation must include instruments of observation, a catalogue of skills and behaviors from which to select samples, specified situations in which the candidate is to perform, and teams of trained observers. The most difficult component to provide is the catalogue of skills and behaviors. What is required is not an exhaustive list, not speculation about what skills are needed to reform the schools, not even a list of skills which an ideal teacher is supposed to possess. Rather competence-based certification at the beginning level of teaching requires that we have a list of crucial skills and behaviors which a teacher must have to perform reasonably well and to survive in the ordinary classroom with personal satisfaction.

Instead of efforts by the several states there should be a national plan to work out a catalogue of skills and behaviors. This plan calls for a national commission composed of representatives of the classroom, training institutions, basic disciplines, and state certifying authorities. This commission should function as a review board and not as a production committee. It would have the authority to approve or disapprove the catalogue of skills and behaviors. The production task is one which demands the highest technical competence. The catalogue of skills and behaviors thus prepared should become a basic document of certifying authorities and teacher training institutions. A candidate's performance would be judged by how well he performs a sample of behaviors and skills selected from the list.

The objection may be raised that such a list would frame the program of training institutions and lead them to reduce their programs to preparation for the particular skills and behaviors contained in the catalogue. Since the skills and behaviors would require preparation far superior to what these institutions are now doing, it is difficult to respect this objection.

The initial licensing gives the right to a candidate to practice. It certifies him as competent at a minimum level. To move up in the scale of competence, and consequently in the salary scale, is to secure further training. By additional training, the teacher can become a candidate for licensing as a career teacher. A set of skills and behaviors appropriate to this higher level should be prepared by the national commission. A candidate for a career license should be certified according to his ability to perform sample skills and behaviors and by the same procedure as he was licensed in the first place.

Licensing of Support Personnel

The school system requires many kinds of personnel to support the teachers in the exercise of their duties. Among these are administrators, instructional specialists, counselors, curriculum specialists, school psychologists, social workers, and research specialists. Their sole reason for being is to facilitate the work of the teacher. Some of these should be licensed by a state licensing authority and others should be certified by the teaching profession. The principle by which to decide which of these specialists should be licensed by the profession is not settled. But we propose that a candidate in any speciality which represents an extension of the teacher's work should be certified by the profession. Among the specialties satisfying this principle are instructional specialists—such as reading specialists, language specialists, and specialists in any field of instruction; curriculum specialists and supervisors. Administrators, social workers, and school psychologists, for example, would most likely not be covered by this criterion.

To perform its certifying responsibility the profession of teaching should establish a system of extra-legal certification consisting of specialty boards. These boards should be national in scope, and perhaps there should be one board for each specialty. While these specialties must be identified with far more care than I can exercise here, perhaps teachers who qualify would be certified as reading specialists, speech specialists, specialists in teaching the exceptional, curriculum specialists, teacher training specialists and so on.

The composition of the specialty boards is a matter that will require extended consideration, but as a trial balloon we suggest that each board consist of experts in the specialty at both the university and public school levels, relevant academic specialists, and relevant educationists. These boards would be responsible for establishing criteria for certification, deciding upon national policies, and working out procedures and techniques for gathering and processing data on each candidate, and finally deciding who should be certified.

The justification of extra-legal certification of teachers is not far to seek. We are all too familiar with built-in automatic increments in salary schedules for experience and additional college work. These sched-

ules are closed at the top so that when one has reached the maximum there is no further financial incentive for him to improve. The primary defect of this scheme, however, is not that it dulls incentive at the top. Rather it is the fact that it discourages some ambitious individuals from entering the system in the first place. *Extra-legal certification can enable an individual to skip over part of the years of automatic adjustment and enter into an upper level where there is no limit save the ability of the school system to pay and the competence of the individual specialist.*

The objection may be raised that school systems will not pay the additional price for specialists. This may be an initial hurdle because boards of education and superintendents of schools would not readily see the advantage of highly trained specialists at the outset. But over a reasonable period of time the services of specialists would be so productive that the initial difficulties would be overcome.

Moreover, extra-legal certification would enable the profession to build up a national pool of highly competent personnel.[1] The existence of this pool would be highly advertised and well known throughout the school system of the nation. From this pool school systems can employ individuals to deal with special problems and special programs. Under the existing system, it is difficult enough to establish reciprocity of certification to say nothing of creating a pool of highly competent individuals. Certification by a specialty board can make the specialist available nationally so that he can be employed in any system without the entanglements of state requirements.

Competence-based Certification and Teacher Training

Competence-based certification of teachers will require reconstruction of teacher training at both preservice and in-service levels. Teachers will not long tolerate a system in which the requirements for a license are markedly different from what the training program prepares them to do.

Three or four years ago the outlook for competence-based programs of training was promising because of the development of training-techniques laboratories and micro-teaching. But these promising developments have fallen short of expectations. Why? The answer involves a complex of factors, but probably these all boil down to the fact that the agencies involved in teacher education—state departments of education, public schools, universities, and the Office of Education—are not united in a massive attack on the problem. As long as these agencies work independently, or at best cooperate mechanically, teacher training will suffer from piecemeal thinking and inadequate planning and development.[2]

State departments of education traditionally have been agencies for inspecting, accrediting, licensing, and compiling statistical information. Because of understaffing they have tended until quite recently to soft-pedal their leadership role. Universities have isolated themselves from the public schools and state departments, content to prepare teachers as though they had the answer to our educational ills. The Office of Education has until recently been little more than a statistical bureau. *The public schools have stood alone, isolated, and have been forced to bear the brunt of attacks by axe grinders and well-meaning citizens for defects arising largely from the failure of the universities, state departments, and the Office of Education to shoulder their responsibilities.* This separation and isolation of our institutions and agencies can continue only at the expense of all and perhaps the ultimate sacrifice of public schools.

The main instruments for the improvement of the public schools are teacher education and research. The schools have improved in this century. The illiteracy of the nation has been reduced to one percent of the population over 14 years of age. That in itself is no mean achievement. How has it been brought about? There are many contributing factors: better economic conditions, improved communication, compulsory school attendance. But the main contributing factor is improvement in teacher education and in our pedagogical knowledge resulting from research studies. These studies have led to better instructional materials and techniques, better school financing through equalization funds, better means of diagnosing and evaluating pupil learning, to mention only a few.

What is needed today is a two-fold movement. First, we need a massive, cooperative drive that must involve state departments, universities, public schools, and the Office of Education planning together and working together to put the plans into operation and to sustain them while hard-nosed research tells us the outcome.

The second part of our two-fold movement is research itself. There has never been a time when the profession and public alike were demanding more hard knowledge about the schools than they are today. We are hearing more and more about the schools than they are today. We are hearing more and more about accountability and this cry is apt to continue. It will continue because the public is shifting its view from a consumer conception of education. In the past the public has looked on with equanimity if it thought it was not getting its money's worth. But the shift to the view that education is an investment is driving the public to ask what is the return on its investment. The profession must be in a position to answer this question and do it with hard knowledge.

The upshot of what has been said is that state

[1]See Dr. Foster's discussion of the utilization of pools of specialists.—Ed.

[2]See discussion of this topic by Wendell Allen.—Ed.

departments of education and the United States Office of Education must team up with the universities and public schools to support a systematic program of teacher training. Unless this is done, competence-based licensing will come to nought, and efforts to improve the public schools and teacher training programs will continue to founder on romantic notions about education and teachers.

PART II: MANAGING STATE EDUCATION AGENCIES: THE PERSPECTIVE OF PROFESSIONAL MANAGEMENT

INTRODUCTION

Familiarity with the major problems facing public education (as presented in the readings in Part I) is a necessary but by itself insufficient base from which to treat the management of State Education Agencies. In education, as in medicine, diagnosis is the first crucial step, but it must be accompanied by other knowledge and skills if it is to result in the optimum functioning of the educational organism. The principles of sound management across organizations which are presented in this section of the *Report* constitute the other essential input necessary to the proper management of the educational enterprise.

The perspective of the professional manager was provided to the Institute by a team composed of the following members of the American Management Association:

Franklin Barry
James Hayes
David Jaquity
James Kingsley
Raymond Klawuhn
Jules Sachman

During the Institute a total of eight sessions were conducted by this team, each of which covered a particular aspect of an overall, integrated approach to management. From an editorial standpoint, however, it seems best to present their material in the form of two "papers" (preceded by a brief introduction from Dr. Barry). The first of these concentrates upon the basic principles of management; the second focuses upon patterns of management action. While each can stand alone as a useful document, they stand in a mutually complementary relationship and maximum benefit is derived when they are read in sequence.

The first paper, "Management, Part I: The Principles of Management," provides a definition of what management should be and then conceptualizes management in terms of two basic elements—planning and controlling. Planning, in turn, is developed further in the light of its three basic activities—the construction of objectives, the establishment of procedures, and the assignment of responsibilities. Control, the other basic aspect of management in the schema, involves the development of organizational structures conducive to the effective participation of individuals in the pursuit of the group's goals and institution of the means of supervision necessary to monitor progress toward objectives.

The paper which follows, "Management, Part II: A Pattern of Management Action," concerns itself with the development of methods whereby the basic principles of management can be usefully applied in the actual life of organizations. The pattern offered for adoption rates consideration by educational managers, and others, for it has the dual merits of not only hanging together in an intellectually satisfying fashion, but also of having been built up out of the American Management Association's experiences over the past quarter of a century in the course of its interactions with a wide range of successful organizations. In other words, it has been "field-tested" at every stage. Eight basic steps to the program are discussed, including planning, organizational clarification, standards of performance, progress reviews, actions taken to improve individual performance, sources of action, time schedules, and incentives and rewards, and the paper then closes with some general remarks which place managerial techniques in their proper perspective in *human* organizations.

The possession of new managerial perspectives on the part of top-level educators does not automatically guarantee their successful introduction into the sys-

tems these men manage, for it is a stubborn fact of organizational life that change, even when essential to the continued well-being of the institution, is difficult to achieve. In the final paper in this section, Robert Duncan and Michael White discuss strategies for achieving change in organizations. They survey various approaches to inducing organizations to change, including the redesigning of organizational structures, the introduction of new techniques, and the modification of human attitudes and behavior, and look at change with respect to its source, continuity, and scope.

Lastly, based upon an extensive review of the literature and their own research at the Graduate School of Management of Northwestern University, they present a four-stage action model of a strategy which they believe would assist organizations in facilitating institutional change.

AN OPEN LETTER TO EDUCATION'S MANAGEMENT

Franklyn S. Barry
Director
Center for Planning and Development

Peter Drucker rightfully claims that the practice of management is proper to the success of any organized pursuit and not at all the exclusive province of business; that, in fact, it is purely an accident of history that management first appeared in commerce. Though most would hasten to qualify such a statement in deference to any given pursuit, its thrust cannot be dismissed *in toto*. With this as our basic conviction we began nearly four years ago to ask ourselves what adaptations had to be made in the messages we'd been sending around and receiving from the business community over the last 50 years in order to make a significant contribution to the management of education.

With some variation in semantics, these messages address the fundamental activities of planning, organizing and controlling the task at hand. Among these, planning is primary; it establishes overall direction and implies the parameters for all other activities of management. This, more than any other factor, suggested that our Planning Center provide the focus for AMA's organizational development effort *vis-a-vis* education.

Since 1967 the Planning Center has been the locus for the strategic planning of more than 125 major companies. Combining a logical, state-of-the-art-structure for planning with the catalyst in the form of an experienced director, these companies develop momentum which could not have been achieved through normal operations. As a by-product of working under sound direction an enormous amount of manager learning takes place. Basically, the forum for this experience consists of:

- Detaching the organization's chief executive officer and his key staff members from their daily jobs to enable them to concentrate on developing a comprehensive plan.
- Placing the team in an environment conducive to an intensive study and solution of the organization's planning problems.
- Providing skilled guidance and controlled direction throughout the planning process so that top management acquires the skills to produce and implement a workable long-range plan for the organization or the particular division.

The six to twelve man team, which includes the chief executive officer of the administrative unit under consideration, spends a total of two five-day planning sessions with one of our directors. An intersession of two to six months is arranged between the two sessions to give the group time to gather the necessary information which will be needed during the second session. Within this total framework we divide the process into three sequential pieces: Situation Analysis, Results, and Means. The intention is to get a deductively unfolding response to the questions, "where are we now; where do we want to go; and how are we going to get there?"

The primary focus during the first week is an analysis of the present organizational patterns and effectiveness and culminates in the development of succinct statements of future objectives. The second week is directed at validating those objectives, developing strategies and programs to provide for the achievement of the objectives, and establishing individual assignments and time schedules for completion. This assures that the plan is in fact translated into action.

Finally the whole planning process is reviewed and a procedure developed for repeating the process at appropriate levels and intervals within the organization so that every "unit president" converts his resources into momentum consistent with his responsibility.

In order to comprehend fully the matters under

consideration and accept the case for top management's full participation, it's necessary that we make a few qualifying remarks about the nature of planning itself.

To begin with, planning is neither forecasting nor budgeting. Its scope is exhausted neither by projections of library requirements nor faculty loading by 1978. Such extrapolative views of trend are essential, but only meaningful in light of the specific impact top management wishes its efforts to account for. Trend is *not* destiny. Planning demands decisions today about how and why an organization intends to impose itself on perceptible trends.

Comprehensive planning is deductive, in nature; it is not an aggregate of divisional or departmental plans. Such bottom-up efforts run the very real risk of creating a collection of units operating at cross purposes for *no* purpose. As Dan Moynihan so often warned, "Programs do not a policy make."

Nor is planning the completed document labeled "Plan." Plans are finite, and are merely the most easily identified residue of a very dynamic process. Nearly every writer on the subject makes this point. When earnestly undertaken by top management, its document represents only the tip of a very large iceberg of self-renewal. Precision in planning is not nearly so important as the collective frame of mind it represents.

This distinction between "plan" and "planning" makes another far more important point. Plans are not inflexible blueprints for future behavior. They need not threaten us with the spectre of rigidity. Let's recognize that planning does not make future decisions; it makes current decisions in light of their futurity. Planning is valueless unless it results in current decisions. The skills and attitudes acquired through participation in the act make it possible to adjust smoothly to changing perceptions of the future.

By the way, we're still asking ourselves the basic questions; much work remains undone. We can now point, though, to places where managing is becoming a way of life for educators. If our classrooms do, indeed, harbor crisis, those places are a source of encouragement.

MANAGEMENT, PART I: THE PRINCIPLES OF MANAGEMENT

Institute Management Team
American Management Association

A. Management Defined

It seems desirable that men in management should be able to define specifically and explain clearly just what the activity is in which they are engaged. A doctor rather quickly can define and explain medicine. A teacher will waste no words in defining education. A labor leader knows and can tell you immediately what the labor movement is. Being able to define what occupies a good part of our lives gives tone, purpose, and challenge to gainful employment.

Management is the responsibility for accomplishing results through the efforts of other people. Further investigation discloses that there are many synonyms for the word, such as administration, supervision, foremanship, and leadership. They all have the same meaning, varying only in degree of responsibility. Management refers to any individual having responsibility for the activities of others, whether he be the chief executive of an organization with 10,000 people, or a straw boss with only three or four people under his direction.

At times, there is much confusion in the use of the terms "Administration" and "Management." There are those who speak of staff activities as being administrative and of line activities as being managerial in nature. Still others reverse that application. It seems essential that we clarify our thinking as to these particular terms.

In this presentation, the terms "Management," "Administration," "Supervision," "Foremanship," and "Leadership" are used interchangeably. Wherever they appear, we refer to the same activity, i.e., responsibility for the accomplishment of certain results from activities assigned to the individual, through the efforts of other people.

The definition just offered is a brief one. Some have made it even more brief by saying it as follows: *Management is getting things done through people.* There is a longer definition which happens to be my favorite. It was developed by a group of business executives and teachers of business administration who met for an entire week-end at the Schenley Hotel in Pittsburgh back in 1941 for the purpose of arriving at a common definition. With some slight change that has taken place with usage, the definition is as follows:

Management is guiding human and physical resources into dynamic organization units which attain their objectives to the satisfaction of those served and with a high degree of morale and sense of attainment on the part of those rendering the service.

These definitions are offered purely for the purpose of illustration. Many other definitions from accepted authorities in the field of management are available. The principle stated here is that those in management should be able to define it. They should become acquainted with the best definitions that are available and, from these, form their own. There are many features of all definitions that are common. The definitions offered here are not offered as the most acceptable ones. They just happen to be those that I personally like and present as thought-provoking.

Management makes things happen. Management does not wait for the future; it makes the future. Managers are not custodians; they are architects. Nicholas Murray Butler once said: "There are three kinds of people in this world: Those who make things happen; those who watch things happen; and those who do not know what's happening." Managers are supposed to be in the first group.

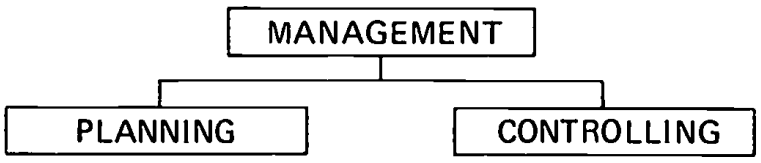
If a manager wishes to know how effective he is, let him list those things that have happened in the last twelve months because he made them happen. Is the line of products and services any different? Are the costs any lower? Are the sales any higher? Is the profit any greater? Are the people any finer? Is the morale any better? Is the place any cleaner because of anything he did about it? Is he conscious of having any impact upon his environment and what takes place within it?

Frederick R. Kappel, former President and Chairman of the Board of American Telephone and Telegraph Company, spoke at Westminster College in Fulton, Missouri, in 1962. Mr. Kappel said this: "To have a part in significant enterprise, to be one of its movers and managers—in industry or in government—is not to fill some niche each morning and leave it each night as you found it. It is to help build and shape, to plan and to execute, to measure alternatives against the horizon and act on the course that judgment and resolution comment."

On the front page of the August, 1968 issue of *The American Appraisal* "Clients' Service Bulletin," we read: "It is a part of human nature to hope for something lucky to happen, some facet of fortune that will give one an unforeseen advantage, a boost ahead. Sometimes such a chance occurs, but it is well to remember that success never comes to a man of its own volition. The ease or rapidity of success seldom just happens in this world—it must be brought about. The man who wishes to attain leadership must everlastingly develop and sustain an insatiable desire to satisfy his disciplined curiosity about his world and a painstakingly active determination to put across whatever plan of life he envisions."

Leaders think, act, and motivate. Followers do, object to, resist, or revolt against what their leaders want.

B. Two Basic Elements of Management Required to Make Things Happen



Management divides itself into at least two basic elements: Planning and *Controlling*. While there are many other possible divisions, this breakdown seems to be the simplist and also seems to include most of the others. Such a division leads to a one-sentence statement of *the executive function*: A person who has supervision over other people is expected to: determine what people are doing; select the most qualified people to do it; check periodically how well they are doing it; see that methods are found by which they can do it better, and discipline those who *will* not.

The manager or supervisor must *plan* his approach to the problems presented by the activities he supervises. He then must establish *media of control* that will assure him that the people under his direction perform to the best of their ability, according to the plan. Since human beings are what they are, performance will always lag behind planned objectives. This is why we have supervision. If mere planning would produce human performance in accordance with the plan, supervision would not be required.

There is one truth that has been learned by thousands of executives and supervisors which has a decided effect upon their administrative attitudes and practices. Its acceptance or rejection divides administrators into two distinct groups. If accepted soon enough in an administrator's experience, it saves considerable grief. The principle is this: MANAGEMENT IS *NOT* THE DIRECTION OF THINGS, IT *IS* THE DEVELOPMENT OF PEOPLE.

Management is taking people as they are, with what knowledge, training, experience, and background they have accumulated, and developing those people by increasing their knowledge, improving their skills, and by correcting their habits and attitudes. Upon this improvement depends the success of any managerial or supervisory effect. In terms of such improvement, executive ability can be measured.

Put this principle to the test. *Try to think of any activity with which you are dealing that does not involve the development of people*—idle buildings; cold, uninteresting budgets; action to be approved such as appropriations, requisitions, capital expenditures; analysis of statistics—all require the selection, the training, and the supervision of people in order that these activities may be handled properly.

The real objective of any management is to decrease the difference between actual performance and approved policy. The successful administrator establishes definite and complete policies. He has means of keeping advised of the practices of his organization as compared with the policies. If this is not true, his decisions as to the action to be taken in specific instances cannot be sound except by pure chance.

Every policy that is written, every plan that is developed, every decision that is made, and every activity that is initiated must be considered in terms of the capacity of people and the ability of supervisors!

It has been said that the executive function is to establish objectives, to determine how far present performance varies from objectives, and to discover means for closing the gap between actual performance and what is desired. In reality, that means that the basic function of a manager is to determine what people should, can, and will do; to analyze the actions of people so as to know what they are doing; and to develop and promote plans which will prepare and inspire people to do better than they are now doing.

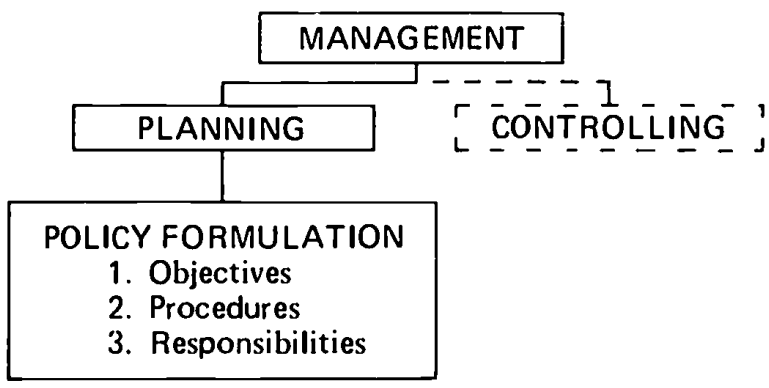
If this is true, it re-emphasizes the necessity for

human understanding on the part of the administrator. *Organizations must be constructed not as machines, but as living elements of human activity.* Administrative organization should provide situations in which people can work with minimum friction, misunderstanding, jealousies, and politics. Any organization should be so set up and directed that each person within it feels that it is an outlet for the productive and creative possibilities that lie within him.

The easiest way to get somebody to be what you want him to be is to treat him as though he were. If you want a baby to talk baby talk, then talk baby talk to him, but if you want him to talk English, then talk to him as you talk to others who speak English. If you wish a worker to have a broader interest in the activities of the organization, then discuss those activities with him as though he had that interest.

The huge administrative machines of the world are human machines. If you want to see the machines fall apart, take the human element out of them. If you want to see them accomplish the highest possible objectives, then develop the human beings that are in them.

I. Planning—Policy Formulation



Planning includes policy formulation. Policy is one of the most misused terms in organization circles today. It is often used to express expediency rather than fact. There are constant arguments as to how definite a policy should be; as to whether it should be in writing and whether knowledge of it should be widespread or closely held.

Words sometimes have their meanings changed with use and thus become confusing. It would seem advisable from time to time to check with the source of proper interpretation in order to keep words and terms from straying too far from their original intent. In consulting the dictionary (still a pretty good source of interpretation), we discover that *policy is a plan of action.* If properly developed, a policy will tell us what to do in a given situation in order to secure the desired result. It covers principles, aims, and conditions to be observed. It would seem reasonable to assume that if a policy is part of a plan, then to be of value, *it should be in writing.*

If policies are to be considered as mysterious, sacred matters, confined to the privacy of executive chambers, how can people down in the organization accomplish the results which such policies anticipate? *Naturally, there are many reasons and facts behind policies which cannot be made open information.* However, most organizations are willing to accept the necessity for secrecy on some phases of policy if other phases have been made an open book.

Plans must be drawn, or policies made, within the limits of which a company can operate. Employees down the line must advise management of the factors required to make that possible.

a. What Planning Should Include. If it is agreed that a plan should be in writing in order to be of practical value from a managerial angle, then it is important to consider what it should include. Little disagreement has been expressed with the principle that *a plan should include at least three basic parts*: (1) objectives; (2) procedures required to reach the objectives; (3) assignment of the steps of the procedures to individuals or organization units as definite responsibilities.

An individual may have in his mind the plans for a house he would like to build. He knows exactly what that house and its interior arrangement will look like. He knows every brick and piece of mortar, every closet, nook and cranny. He studied magazines, and he has dreamed about it until it is vivid and clear in his mind. In his entire lifetime, he cannot build the house until he has had put on paper (1) an architect's drawing of the completed house; (2) a blueprint indicating how the house can be built to look like the drawing; and (3) what the carpenter is to do, the electrician, the mason, the plumber, the roofer, etc.

What is the difference between building a house and building an organization? It would seem reasonable to conclude that if it is true in the case of the house, it is equally true that a manager or supervisor will never obtain the results he is trying to obtain through the efforts of other people unless he has a plan, a policy, which indicates in writing the objectives to be accomplished (the architect's drawing), a basic procedure which will accomplish those objectives (the blueprint), and unless he has definitely assigned the steps of the procedure to individuals or departments in the organization as definite responsibilities (the electrician, the mason, etc.).

(i) Objectives. A plan should include objectives which state the conditions that will exist if policy is properly applied. A marketing policy should disclose the amount and the distribution of desired business, the projected cost of doing that business, should provide for a just realization on that business, and any other conditions that need consideration. An operating policy should disclose the type of service to be rendered to the marketing department and the consumer, a just cost at which such services should be rendered. A labor policy should disclose the mental attitudes, the type and amount of skill, the working conditions and relationships, and the particular benefits that should be

available to the personnel. *Such objectives constitute goals toward which the organization and each individual in it can direct effort.*

(ii) Procedures. Having established objectives or, in other words, made a drawing of what the completed job should look like, it is necessary to put the best possible thought into the development of a procedure required to accomplish the objectives. The mistake made by many administrators has been to outline to their organization what they expect to have accomplished and then to leave it to the individuals concerned to accomplish it as best they can. This, of course, is a broad-minded and fair attitude, but it does not provide those concerned with all of the available knowledge and experience which would be of assistance to them in going about their tasks. Therefore, the administrator should exhaust every source until he has finally set up a *definite procedure representing the best thinking and experience in the organization* as to what should be done to bring about the desired results.

It is necessary to state that such procedures are not intended to be rigid rules from which no deviation may be made. What house was ever built without deviation from the blueprint? In the course of construction, partitions are changed, rooms are changed, many details are altered, but each change is made in relation to a basic plan and indicated on that plan. Working from a basic plan, we can be sure not to create chaos or greater difficulties when a change is made. In other words, *such procedures are starting* points from which initiative and ability will cause changes and improvements, each time making such progress a matter of historical record for the future guidance of others.

(iii) Assignment of Responsibilities. Having determined what steps should be followed in order to accomplish the objectives, it is then essential to assign these steps to individuals as responsibilities. If this is not done, individuals, departments or various units of the organization will be trying to do the complete job rather than certain important parts of it. The situation would be similar to the automobile plant, with every group of workers trying to make a complete automobile instead of each group working at an assembly line with a particular part of the automobile to make or assemble. In the first case, the finished product would be a matter of chance and there would be no uniformity as to style or quality; in the second case, all groups would be contributing to a finished product which meets desired specifications.

b. **Planning vs. Approval.** A question just as old as, "Which came first, the hen or the eggs?" is the one, "How busy should an executive be?" There are those who believe that the proper executive atmosphere is that of long hours, missed lunches, batteries of telephones, last-minute traveling reservations, dictating machines by the bedside, and the like. There are others who say that the best executive is the one who never appears to be rushed or busy; who can do his work within the limits of office hours; who has the time to discuss anything with anybody; who delegates all responsibility, and can occasionally play golf without fear of the business falling apart in his absence. Agreement on the answer to that question probably will never be reached because *management is largely a matter of personalities and not systems.* There probably is a medium ground between two viewpoints that comes more nearly to being correct than either of the extremes presented.

There are, however, some features of executive practice which seem to meet general approval. One is that the number of items or activities that a manager has to sign or approve can be greatly overdone. There are men who believe that a real executive job is sitting at a desk signing and approving. *The number of times a man has to sign his name does not indicate the extent of his authority.*

A principle which is fairly well accepted is that *authority should be delegated within definitely defined limits.* Some people do not delegate authority because they have not established limits for the control of authority and each individual case has to be considered on its own merits. There are some managers, for example, who maintain that authority for salary changes cannot be delegated. Their feeling is that all salary changes should be approved by a salary committee or some executive of high standing. Such managers usually do not have any established salary group limits for each job—maximums and minimums—then it is a simple matter to delegate authority to any executive or to any supervisor to administer salary changes within those established limits.

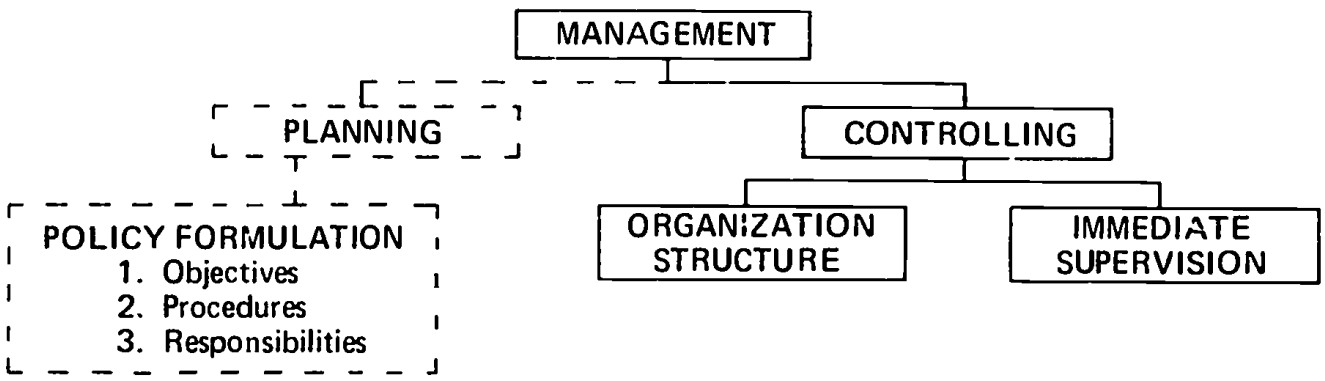
These limits, within which authority can be granted, should be written into policy. The development of policy on a sound basis would build the road upon which we are to travel, and we would have the privilege of traveling on that road in any kind of vehicle and at any speed we care to, just so long as we stay on the road and reach our destination at the established time.

In other words, the better the administrative planning, the better the policies and the fewer executive approvals required. If management properly establishes objectives, procedures, and responsibilities in connection with the major activities of the operation, more time is available for further planning and greater perfection in present planning.

The complaint continues from many sources that executives and supervisors do not have time to do long-range planning because each day brings more than enough duties to fill the day. Somehow, sometime, we must neglect a day's duties, or get somebody else to do them, so as to have time to establish the course for tomorrow before the ship strikes a shoal.

2. Controlling

Keeping in mind the two basic elements of management, planning and controlling, let us assume that



planning has been taken care of through the establishment of written plans which outlined objectives, procedures required for reaching those objectives, and the assignment of steps of the procedures to individuals as functions. We then turn our attention to the element of controlling.

A study of many organizations of varied types discloses an unfavorable balance between planning and controlling. In some instances, there is a predominance of planning without sufficient control, and in other instances there is an excess of controlling because of the absence of planning.

It is most important, in considering this topic, to define what is meant by controlling. *Sound administrative practive sets up, in an organization, required media to insure understanding by all concerned of what is expected of them, provides sufficient help and information so that everyone is able to do what is expected of him, and establishes current indicators of what is going on.* Such media must also provide for the development of a desire to do what is supposed to be done. Controlling rightly implies proper supervision which results in the elimination of many routine details which take valuable time away from supervisory activities.

Controlling does not imply centralization of authority. On the contrary, the best type of control is through decentralized authority. Controlling requires the delegation of responsibility and authority and the development of people who are able to accept both. Decentralization is most effective when there is centralized control.

Through misconception of what constitutes administrative control, tremendous duplication of effort and an abnormal amount of checking of others will be found in some organizations. Each stratum of the organization should be analyzed to discover the authority and responsibility at different executive levels.

Any manager or supervisor will greatly improve the effectiveness of his people if he will take the time to study carefully the construction of his organization and from such studies adapt his organization to the plans that have been made and to local conditions. If he will then give careful attention to the *quality and methods of supervision* throughout that organization, he can be fairly well assured that practically everything within his power is being done to direct individual and group performance toward established objectives.

a. Organization Structure. There seem to be at least two media of controlling. These are by no means all, but they are basic. The first is Organization Structure. This is a term which, like Policy Formulation, has been used loosely, and yet, it is a term that must be as clearly understood as Budget or Personnel, or any other term which has a very specific meaning to us. Here is a definition from the experience of successful executives: *Organization Structure is the control which makes it possible for individuals to work together in groups as effectively as they would work alone.* That is why we have Organization Structure. There is no other purpose for it.

If every person in an organization does not understand the organization, if there is not uniform visualization of it, if there is any confusion as to responsibility, authority and inter-relationships, the results are duplication of effort, omission of responsibility, friction, politics, jealousies, all of which create lost time and lost effort. It is very interesting, in attacking individual problem cases involving morale or personal relationships, to trace the organization structure concerned, you usually will find that the difficulty arises from misunderstanding or confusion as to individual responsibility, authority, and relationships with other people. *If an organization structure is not sound, the people in it cannot perform properly.* Successful administration requires simple, understandable organization structure.

These principles and observations seem so fundamentally sound that they are presented with some finality. Therefore, it is necessary to repeat that these are not the convictions of any one individual, but of many individuals with great experience and breadth of view.

An organization is an extension of the Chief Executive. He delegates what he wants, as he wants, and to whom he wishes. While he has an ideal organization structure toward which all personnel moves should be

made, he has a current structure that must be adapted to the competency of the help available and the degree of confidence he has in that help. Organization structure should be constantly changing and a subject of continuing study.

The Catholic Church is famous for its skill in organizing. Its full-time workers are educated and trained in the structure. A military establishment is highly organized and its officers and troops are on the receiving end of considerable training and review of organization structure. You can say the same about athletics. Why, then, do we neglect organization clarification in other segments of our society?

If we were still using the flying wedge as the best football formation, there would not be much interest in football. Along came outstanding coaches, however, who introduced the single wedge, the double wing, the T-formation, the I-formation, the lonely end, the blitz-kreig, the shotgun. Alert coaches are developing new formations and they sometimes use several during a game.

Coaches cannot do this without spending hours and days in chalk talks and skull practice with the players. The players have to know the organization structure and the part each plays in it. Let each manager search his own soul. How much time have you spent in the last twelve months discussing organization structure with your team? How in the world can you expect it to operate as a team if you do not work at it? Team play just doesn't happen.

Because most of us have learned organization structure from our military experience, we are trying to inflict military organization upon civilian activities and it doesn't work very well. Any manager who copies an organization structure out of a book is not fulfilling his professional responsibility.

b. Immediate Supervision. A second medium of controlling is Immediate Supervision. One of the trends of the times is that supervision is taking on new life, new significance, and deeper meaning. The time is here when the position and importance of supervisors in an organization are being recognized. Executives and administrators are realizing that supervision is a tool of management that needs constant sharpening.

Probably you have seen on meeting programs of trade and professional associations such subjects as "The Part of the Supervisor in Policy Formation;" "The Relationships of the Supervisor to the Line Management;" "The Supervisor's Responsibility toward Management;" etc. It is gradually dawning upon us that the supervisor is not part of management; he is not a representative of management; he is not liaison between worker and management—he *is* management. The president of a company may have 5,000 people under his direction, while a supervisor may have only 15, but the supervisor must secure from the 15 what the head of the company is trying to secure from 5,000. The head of an organization may have 30 basic activities with which he is dealing, the supervisor may have only 7, but the supervisor has to administer the 7 activities so as to produce the results that the head of the organization is trying to produce from 30. The head of a unit may have the world for his territory; the supervisor may have the corner of an office, but in that corner of that office, he is the boss and until we fully appreciate that, some of the human relationships which we desire are not possible.

It is tragic when you hear some worker say, "I like my supervisor. Bill is a swell guy, but why should I go to him with my problem? He can't do anything about it. He has no authority. All he does is to take my problem to someone else. By the time it has gone through three or four months or over three or four desks, it is so mixed up that everybody wonders what is the matter with me. Therefore, I would rather go direct to the individual who can settle my difficulty." Wherever such an attitude is present, full appreciation of the value of supervision does not exist on the part of the management. *It is a challenge to management to answer whether the immediate supervisors of the workers should be encouraged and allowed to develop relationships with those workers which are based upon confidence and respect.* If the answer is yes, the supervisors must be given authority and must be trained to use it intelligently.

Somewhere in the United States right now, the following is taking place. A General Foreman is talking with Harry. "Harry, you know that your Foreman, Pete, is retiring this week. He has been with us 37 years and he is 66 years old. Friday night, we are giving him a retirement dinner, a watch, his first pension check, and wishing him Godspeed.

"You, Harry, have been with us quite a while. You are loyal, faithful, and can get more out of that machine of yours than anybody else. You can tear it down and put it back together again. You have made modifications the manufacturer never thought of. I would like, Harry, to announce Friday night that you are going to be the new Foreman."

Harry's chest comes out, his chin goes up, as he runs to the telephone to call his wife, She gets out his new blue suit, his Sunday bow tie, and Friday night, he is congratulated at the banquet for his new responsibility. Monday morning, some thoughtful young lady puts a rose on his desk, and now he's a manager!

Doesn't that make your ulcers jump? Absolutely unprepared to be a manager! He knows nothing about cost control, waste control, or quality control. He does not know the company policies he will have to administer. He doesn't know how to select a man for a job, train him for a job, introduce him to the job, or pay him for a job well done. He doesn't know how to handle employee grievances or deal with the union steward. A year from now, you have a multi-million dollar strike because of some "dumb" action the foreman took.

C. The Executive Function

All of this presentation on Basic Principles can be summed up in this way. An executive, or manager, whichever you wish to call him, is supposed to:

1. Determine what he wants people to do.
2. Select and train as qualified people as he can to do it.
3. Check periodically to see how well they are doing it.
4. See that methods are found by which they can do better.
5. Discipline them.

Discipline has two aspects to it: Reward for work well done; and appropriate treatment for failure.

Anything else that a manager is doing is not management.

MANAGEMENT, PART II: A PATTERN OF MANAGEMENT ACTION

Institute Management Team
American Management Association

A. A Professional Pattern of Action.

The lawyer has formulae which guide him in his approach to a case; the doctor follows certain routines in diagnosing an illness; the mechanic has plans by which he inspects his machines; the engineer has definite formulae that he follows regardless of what he is expecting to build. Therefore, it seems reasonable that *a manager should have some simple patterns which he can follow in approaching his job.*

There is seldom much argument with the Basic Principles of Management. The difficulty seems to lie in developing methods by which these principles may be easily applied. Out of an endeavor to solve that particular problem comes a conclusion which we believe leads to a very tangible and definite contribution to the field of management science. Following through on the earlier observation that management is a profession, we suddenly realized that members of other professions have patterns for helping them solve their daily problems.

A professional pattern of action is nothing but a series of steps which have been outlined and arranged in a logical sequence by predecessors in the profession. It tells those who are now in the profession that if they will religiously follow those steps, they can rest assured that they have observed the basic principles of the profession and that necessary factors have been taken into consideration.

A problem in most organizations today is not to find new things to do, but how to do what is already known to be right. *If we could find a way to put to greater use that which we already know and have, we will have accomplished a great deal.* A pattern of approach should assist toward that end.

It is necessary at this point to make it clear that there is no attempt in this approach to reduce dealing with people to a pattern. *Human relations cannot be reduced to a pattern,* but you can have an orderly approach to human relations problems.

The so-called "Pattern of Management Action," outlined in greater detail in the pages that follow, contains eight steps:

1. Plans
2. Organizational Clarification
3. Standards of Performance
4. Progress Review
5. Action to be Taken
6. Source of Action
7. Time Schedule for Action
8. Incentives and Rewards.

The Pattern itself is the result of asking experienced and successful executives, over a period of a quarter of a century, what, from their experience, they considered to be the most valuable advice they would like to give to their successors. These executives have been individuals engaged in all kinds of organizations and businesses and in some 26 different countries. The number of steps in it and the names of the steps have varied over the years but, basically, the Pattern remains about the same and continues to be subjected to the suggestions of successful management people.

The methods by which the Pattern is applied differ considerably and change often. However, this Pattern has brought about a common vocabulary for terms of management and has established a basis upon which methods may be discussed. It also furnishes a clarification under which the history and research of management can be coordinated and recorded.

It is important to remember that *the greatest value from the application of the Management Pattern is not the finished work, but the educational processes necessary to securing the finished work.* The discussions

involved bring widely divergent viewpoints to a more common understanding. Workers better understand the motives and objectives of their supervisors. Supervisors gain a closer insight into the personalities and thinking processes of their managers. All of this is valuable. The more you direct minds into the same thought channels, the more reasonably sure you may be of accomplishing the objectives of your operations.

The wording of the eight steps is not particularly significant. The terms have been created by supervisors and executives. They have been changed from time to time, but the original significance of each step remains the same.

For illustration, what is now called Organization Clarification has at various times been called "Job Analysis," "Position Description," etc. What is now called "Progress Review" has at various times been called "Rating," "Individual Analysis," "Performance Inventory," "Review and Appraisal," etc. The terms used are not as important as their meaning.

A Management Pattern puts into the hands of anyone in an executive or supervisory position a series of moves that he must make in order to secure the most desirable action. *It is a method of management.* It is a means of approaching any problem facing an individual who must supervise the activities of others.

A most significant development seems to be the growing appreciation on the part of those following a Pattern that it is *a way to diagnose any problem at any time.* Regardless of what the situation may be—an individual management decision or a subject of the agenda for a meeting—the steps of the Pattern can be applied constructively for the purpose of insuring a proper decision or solution.

For example, there may be a shortage of supplies. Those involved would apply the Management Pattern by analyzing the situation as follows: First, is their a known and accepted plan (Plans)? Second, is the responsibility clearly fixed for maintaining supplies (Organization Clarification)? Third, is there any confusion as to objectives (Standards of Performance)? Fourth, where is the breakdown in the present situation (Review)? Fifth, what is needed to correct the situation (Action to be Taken)? Sixth, who will supply the needs indicated (Source)? Seventh, when is action to be taken (Time Schedule)? Eighth, what is the cost (Rewards)?

In other words, the Management Pattern can be applied to meet conditions as they arise, or on the basis of a logical, comprehensive sequence in an attempt to cover thoroughly all the activities of the business.

Every step of the Pattern is now being applied in some way and to some extent by everyone in a managerial job. All a Pattern does is to bring these activities together in a simple, logical sequence that acts as a guide and, if followed, insures better attention to the steps involved. It is perfectly logical that the contents of the Pattern should not be new because of the nature of their origin. After all, it is simply an expression by successful executives as to the manner in which they work.

1. Plans—Step 1 of A Pattern of Management Action

Every employee on the payroll should know what the over-all Plan of the company is and what particular contribution he is supposed to make toward its attainment.

In an August, 1968 issue of *Life* magazine is an article, "Montgomery on Rommel." In that article, he tells about the planning and preparation for the battle of Alamein. "My staff entirely approved and worked enthusiastically on the plan . . . one further important point. I was determined that every officer and soldier in the Eighth Army should know the plan for the battle and his part in it. This was done on a careful plan: senior officers first and then down the several grades to the men in the ranks. The latter were told the day before the battle began, after which, no patrols were sent out; I would not risk losing any prisoners to the enemy at this stage. I reckon the men in the ranks of the Eighth Army knew more about the plan of the battle they were to fight than any other soldiers in history engaged in a major conflict."

A classic story that illustrates the value of knowledge of plans is that of the laborer digging holes. After Joe had been digging in one hole for some time, the foreman told him to climb out and dig one in another place. After Joe had dug to quite some depth in the new hole, the foreman took a look at it, shook his head negatively, and told Joe to start in somewhere else. When this procedure had been repeated four or five times, Joe threw down his shovel and said, with great feeling, "Dig a hole here—dig a hole there—dig, dig, dig! Dig for what? I quit!" The foreman looking at him in astonishment said, "Why Joe, what's the matter with you? I'm trying to find a leak in a pipe line." Joe's face lighted up. He picked up his shovel and went back to work with the comment, "That's different. I'll help."

Another story is told of the typical New York sidewalk-pounder who graces the fences where excavations are made. This particular individual, while draped over a barrier, noticed two men with picks and shovels. They were both working on the same job. The observer asked the first what he was doing. The reply was one that might be expected: "I am digging a hole, what do you think?" He turned to the other fellow and asked him the same question, to which the reply was, "I am helping to build the foundation for a 40-story office building." Here was just a difference in viewpoints, a difference in attitudes.

One of the greatest single influences upon worker attitude is knowledge of objectives—knowledge of what superiors are trying to accomplish—knowledge of the finished product, regardless of what small part the individual may have played in its creation.

2. Organization Clarification—Step 2 of A Pattern of Management Action

The term "Organization Clarification" means that anyone who has supervision over others should make sure that these people understand:

1. What their functions are.
2. What authority goes with those functions.
3. What relationships they have with others.

The activities that must be performed should be carefully and clearly determined. These activities should be divided into organization units and individual positions. Every person in the organization will then know what he is required to do, the extent to which he is to do it, and when he is expected to do it. The activities of each person will be related to each major activity and individual work can be evaluated according to the contribution it makes to the accomplishment of the major objectives.

Clarification of functions, authority, and relationships is essential to good judgment because such clarification insures proper and complete consideration of the people and the factors involved in a problem. One of the great difficulties in organization is that either the wrong people are consulted or not enough people are consulted in arriving at a decision. There are men who, by intuition, sense the proper people and the proper factors to bring to bear on a given problem but, unfortunately, there are not enough such individuals to go around in an expanding economy.

There is a very simple and helpful device for clarifying *authority*. After each function, include a 1, 2, 3, or 4. These symbols indicate the following authorities for the function:

1. Act.
2. Act and tell.
3. Act after consultation.
4. Act upon instructions from another.

a. Regimentation? Organization clarification necessarily means defining the areas in which people work. Some believe this means regimentation. We may as well face that objective and face it squarely. When a plea is made in defense of individual liberty and initiative, it is necessary to point out that an individual who joins an organization must immediately accept certain restrictions that he would not be required to accept were he on his own. Instead of doing what he pleases, when he pleases, and where he pleases, he now must direct his efforts within certain channels. If there are desired activities which organization restrictions do not permit him to perform, he must wait his opportunity through transfer or through proper enlargement in the scope of his work.

When individuals are allowed to follow their own instincts in an organization, their performance becomes unbalanced. They do what they most want to do and what their particular capacities fit them to do, and they devote their entire efforts to these fields. Other responsibilities which good organization demands of the job are neglected. This causes failure in the over-all result or necessitates the assumption of these responsibilities by others.

When talking about organization clarification, it is essential to recognize what Chester I. Barnard has so ably described in his book, *The Functions of the Executive.* He refers to the informal phase of organization which is never clarified or codified. It exists in any organization regardless of how much clarification takes place. It best can be illustrated by stating that if an executive were walking down the hall of an office building and saw a fire in somebody's waste basket, he would not go by and do nothing about it simply because his position description does not list fire fighting as one of his responsibilities. He would rise to the occasion and do what was required. We, therefore, have both formal description of that which should be clarified, but we still have to leave room for common sense and judgment in relation to things which have not been formalized.

b. Clarification Needed in Any Organization. The need for outlining responsibilities, authority, and relationships exists not only in business and industry; it exists wherever you find human beings, regardless of the type of organization.

Does it not seem perfectly reasonable and logical that any individual in any organization should know what he is supposed to do, how much authority he has, and what his relationships are with other people? Does it not seem obvious that to the extent such knowledge does not exist, you will find duplication of effort, omission of responsibility, friction, jealousy, politics, and all of the forces that defeat the very purpose of organization?

Such clarification cannot be brought about by wishful thinking or high-sounding philosophies. *It takes hard, careful, well-organized, continuous effort.* It means analyzing an activity from its inception to its conclusion through jobs and departments. It means developing a flow of work indicating who does what, when, and to what extent.

3. Standards of Performance—Step 3 of A Pattern of Management Action

Standards of Performance are statements of conditions that will exist when a job is well done. Each person contributing to the desired result within an organization should have the same understanding of it as all others within the organization.

Can you imagine what would happen in the football stadium or the baseball park if no agreement existed among the members of the team as to the results they were trying to secure? Can you imagine the coach sending the star halfback on the field with instructions to take the ball and run and keep running, paying no attention to the goal line, the stadium, or anything else, run anywhere, run as fast as he can, never stop running? No, the coach does not do that. He tells his

backfield to get the ball and make a first down on three tries (not four, because usually, you have to kick on the fourth down). That constitutes satisfactory performance. *That is the standard.* If, by chance, the ball carrier can make a touchdown on one try, then he produces better than satisfactory performance and will be recognized for it. While the coach is enthusiastic over super-performance, he will, at the same time, be perfectly satisfied if the standard is reached.

Managers, supervisors, or foremen should have definite objectives for the activities which they are supervising. They should know what constitutes a job well done. They should reduce to writing, for each activity or group of activities, statements of conditions that will result if the work is done as it should be done. It is a pleasant surprise, when starting to work out standards, to see the tremendous improvements that immediately take place. The reason is a better and a more common understanding of objectives.

A great experience awaits the executive or supervisor who calls together his immediate subordinates for a conference to develop Standards of Performance. In answer to the first question, "What are the major activities of the job that should be measured?"—he will be amazed at the difference in opinions and at the length of time it takes to get agreement.

When an executive then selects one of these activities and asks the question, "What are the conditions that will exist if this factor of the job is well done?"—he will be startled at the great variation in answers. Men responsible for the same activities, men doing the same work, men supposed to be getting the same result, will have as many different opinions when asked that question as there are men to utter them. It is quite a thrill to see minds finally come together in common agreement upon simple, definite statements.

Does it not seem reasonable that individuals working toward a common objective should have uniform concepts and agreement as to that objective? Does it not seem reasonable that they will work together better as a group and will accomplish more as individuals? Again, standards are not developed by wishful thinking or by high-sounding philosophies. *Patient, continuous, well-organized effort is required to produce the type of standards that will create the attitudes and produce the performance desired.*

Writing a complete set of standards for a job or group of jobs establishes job balance. It gives proper evaluation to the various phases of the job; it focuses attention upon factors of the job that would otherwise be unnoticed.

It is fairly well-accepted principle that it is good to commend people for work well done. It is all the more effective when such commendation can be given at the time the work is done. This is an extremely important morale-builder. There are practical difficulties, however, which prevent commendation being given as frequently as it should be, or even at the time it should be.

When an individual has standards of performance, he knows what constitutes a job well done. At the end of each day, he knows whether he has done what is expected of him or whether he has exceeded it. Even though his superior may not know it at the time or be anywhere near him—not being able, therefore, to commend him—*he* has the satisfaction of knowing how he stands. He knows that ultimately, the record will show a satisfactory performance. In the absence of personal commendation, therefore, such realization is, in itself, a morale-builder. Standards of performance perform a very important function in that regard, as well as the other advantage which can be attributed to them.

4. Progress Review—Step 4 of A Pattern of Management Action

People in positions of supervision should periodically compare the present performance of individuals under their direction with the Standards of Performance that have been established. This requires the ability to tell people exactly what you think of their performance and still command their respect and confidence.

This is a most difficult phase of supervision. It is the point at which managers and supervisors analyze the performance of their organizations as compared with the objectives. The work of the Pattern up to this point—clarification of jobs, settings of standards—is preparation for this step. All that follows in the Pattern is based upon the findings of this step.

This is the point at which "problem cases" must be squarely faced. Many individuals are known to be problems by everyone in the organization except themselves. Attempts are made to transfer our problems to other departments by misrepresenting their qualifications and their performance. *Management cannot and dare not evade individual problem cases.* Neither can it transfer those problems nor eliminate them until every possible effort has been made to solve each problem by dealing with it on an individual and understanding basis. It is interesting to note that leaders who have the capacity to discuss the performance of individuals with those individuals themselves, and at the same time create mutual confidence and respect, have few so-called "problem cases" in their organizations.

a. **Current vs. Periodic Complete Checking.** When periodic checking of complete performance is advocated, the reaction is often expressed that "we're continually checking performance. As irregularities come to the attention of the superior, he immediately discusses them with the employee involved." Such comment requires clarification of periodic and complete checking versus current checking as needs indicate. Both are important. One without the other is not always sufficient. Current checking, however, always has been done and is being done. *The contribution that a Management Pattern makes is a review of complete*

performance at definite intervals so that the employee may see his own balance sheets. Continual check-up and careful supervision will always be required. The development of a periodic balanced picture is the purpose of Step 4 of the Pattern.

A discussion between supervisor and employee at time of failure is not always sound. Such a discussion may be subject to the emotions of the moment and *when emotions enter, reason exits.* A husband may at some time, for reasons beyond his control, find himself the bridge partner of his wife. He may make some unpardonable error. Comment by his wife at that time is not only discourteous, but may reflect bitterness and may include unreasonable observations. If she would wait until some other time, her instruction would be much more beneficial and social gossips would not have material with which to spread the "confidential" information of a home split by strife and conflict.

Another value of periodic Progress Review is that *it provides an opportunity for commendation, as well as condemnation.* This seems to be a sound psychological principle. It is not conducive to good morale to "bawl out an individual" for poor performance without leaving that individual with a build-up at the end resulting from expressed hope of improvement or expression of pleasure for some success. When going over the employee's performance in its entirety, *both good and bad performance are discussed,* and some failure which might seem serious by itself may be insignificant as compared with a number of indicated successes.

b. Confidence in Supervisor is Important to Worker Morale. Good performance and morale require, and are immediately responsive to, a close relationship between man and boss; confidence of one in the other's frank, open, inspirational leadership. A tremendous power in any organization is the feeling on the part of the worker, "I like to work for that man."

Good performance cannot be secured by remote control, by executive order, or by written instructions. It does not exist simply because we think it exists. It will exist only when men and boss are working closely together, and when their thoughts are running in similar channels.

If the executive or supervisory function is to determine what has to be done, to discover how well it is being done, and to develop methods of bringing actual accomplishment closer to objectives, then *this is the point at which actual performance is discovered.* How else can it be done but to check individual performance against objectives?

Many of us have toiled and worried over interpretation of results because statistics have not been adequate or the required information has not been available. If investigation were geared down to each and every employee, we would be much more comprehensive in our analysis and much more accurate in decisions.

Reticence on the part of supervisors and executives to do this individual analysis work has been because of the lack of a proper approach to a very personal situation—the actual performance of a single worker. If functions have been clarified, if standards have been set, then a very simple and sound basis of discussion has been established. Such interviews become less complicated and far more awesome.

The question is frequently asked, why is there so little contact of this nature between man and boss—why is it so infrequent that a manager will tell the people working for him exactly what he thinks of them in terms of their performance, qualifications, and potential? One reason is that it is one of the most difficult functions to perform. If there is any question in one's mind as to the difficulty involved in criticizing another and still retaining his respect and confidence, a simple illustration may help.

The person who is the closest to a man—who knows him the best and whom he knows the best, and with whom he has the easiest of relationships—is his wife. If there is anyone with whom he should be able to discuss personal matters, it is she. Consider, if you will, the number of times you have returned home late at night from some place you were not expected to be, and what happened upon your arrival at home. Then think of other times when, in the same situation, you thought to yourself on the way home, "This is the time I am going to tell her exactly what I think of her. I am not going to put up with past performance under such situations any longer." Count up the number of times you made such a resolution and then against that, put the number of times you actually did what you resolved to do—and then you know what is meant when it is said that it is the most difficult of human relationships—to criticize another and still retain respect and confidence.

It is easier to do when the preparation for it has been thorough, when you have confidence that your findings are reasonably fair and accurate, and when you are supported in your opinions by other responsible people.

5. Action To Be Taken—Step 5 of A Pattern of Management Action

Having decided the functions of the job; having decided the results that will be secured if the job is well done; having discovered how well each employee is performing as compared with the standards; an executive or supervisor has the required information *to determine what each person under his direction requires for individual improvement.* That seems to be the intelligent and common sense basis for a training program. It seems better to base our training courses and our instructional work on the individual needs of the people in the organization rather than upon some fine, beautiful, costly program developed at headquarters which half the people in the organization do not want and few need. *If a Management Pattern has been*

intelligently applied up to this point, enough individual and group needs will have been discovered for training programs for an indefinite period.

This particular phase of this Pattern provides each employee with a definite program of individual development, so that he may perform more satisfactorily and willingly. He is conscious of the fact that his management is trying its best to improve him as an individual and to make him of greater value to society. *This is where the real function of management comes to the front.* A leader is measured by the extent to which he develops those under his direction. This is a morale builder if there ever was one, and better morale means greater productiveness.

a. Formal Training. The presentation of a Pattern of Management Action might lead one to believe that formal training is relegated to an area of less importance. *Formal training is more important than it ever was.* However, it is based on this step of the Pattern—"Action to be taken." The needs for such training are indicated by careful, personal analyses.

Under the old method, there would be a staff of technical experts and editorial writers in a training department who would turn out material. It seems far more sound to refer such requests to the staff department that is dealing specifically with the activity involved. That department should have more information on the technical or professional subject than anyone else. The staff can prepare and edit material and, in fact, it is a basic organization principle that *the staff department should provide the organization with adequate information about its own activity.* If there is no staff department in connection with the activity involved, then some outside agency or specialist may be employed for the assignment.

First, be sure that the formal technical or professional courses are based on the actual needs of the organization; second, that full use is made of the facilities in the organization; and third, that the very finest courses are ultimately developed and supplied.

Since formal training, special technical courses, etc., are practices of long standing in most organizations and have been developed to a high degree, it is not necessary to discuss them here. It is necessary, however, to emphasize that this is the point at which the need for formal training is determined with great care and completeness.

b. Informal Guidance. While the "Action to be taken" normally resolves itself in terms of formal or informal training, a great deal of the action is advice and guidance as to what should be done to solve a particular problem or to meet a job situation. This becomes a suggestion as to what an individual should do or it may become a change in policy, plan or procedure. It may even take the form of changing responsibility assignment. While this is training of a nature, it is primarily arriving at the solution to something requiring immediate action.

The best formal training methods, conferences and courses, are built around the solution of practical problems anyhow. Much more comes out of review and appraisal than just an inventory of a man. It usually results in a change in practice of some kind or in a change of climate and conditions in which a man performs his responsibilities.

6. Source of Action—Step 6 of A Pattern of Management Action

Having determined what action is required as a result of the Individual Analysis, it is necessary to select the very best source from which to secure it. If the determination of what is needed has been accurate, the same sound judgment can be applied effectively to the selection of the proper persons or sources to meet the need.

Generally speaking, *there are at least four courses of action.* The first is the most important and the others should not be considered until the first has been eliminated:

1. The immediate supervisor
2. Company specialist
3. Outside source to be brought in
4. Outside source to which to go.

The help needed may be for the purpose of changing attitude. This may simply be a matter of contacting certain people or taking part in certain group discussions.

Possibly, greater *skill* or additional *knowledge* is required. This is the point at which participation by staff specialists and department heads may be solicited. It is not uncommon that participation in field activities by a headquarters staff person is largely due to his own initiative. It is a much healthier condition when his field participation is increased due to invitations from the field.

There are specialists in certain subjects, outside the company, whose services may be secured. *A very thorough investigation, however, should be conducted before any individual or group in the organization receives the help of a specialist.* The specialist must be practical, likable, know his subject, and be able to present it well. In addition, he must be able to adapt himself and his material to the organization.

A very common practice in industry is that known as the educational refund plan. When employees are encouraged to attend outside institutions of learning, companies under such a plan pay a part or all of the cost.

The problem may be one of *habit.* The immediate supervisor is the best possible source of habit-changing efforts. Habits can be changed only through continual coaching, help, and guidance. This comes with everyday supervision.

7. Time Schedule for Action—Step 7 of A Pattern of Management Action

Definite time should be established for taking in-

dicated action. If all the steps of a Pattern have been applied up to this point and definite time is not arranged for supplying what is needed, much may be lost. Here again, the importance of planning must be emphasized. Time does not become available. It must be made available. When *specific periods are set aside for required training and development*, the organization soon adjusts itself to the schedule.

The value of budgeting time should be obvious. Books have been written about it; all kinds of schemes and gadgets have been worked out to assist in it. Still, we do not do enough of it. If time is planned in advance—and well in advance—many of the bridges we fear do not have to be crossed.

a. Regularly Scheduled Meetings. The question always arises as to *meetings*. "We already have too many meetings," someone remarks, "now, we are to have more meetings." It has been definitely proved that if meetings are regularly scheduled and everyone knows that on certain days each week, or each month, he is to attend a meeting, *there are fewer meetings held than when they are called as needed.*

Much of the unfavorable reaction to meetings arises from the practice of notifying people on Friday that they are to be at a meeting on Monday. Confusion is caused, changes in plans are necessary, vacations are interrupted, other people are inconvenienced, the work of the day piles up and is not done. The reaction on the part of the people in the meeting is not favorable. Many of them appear with files of correspondence or memos which must be answered. They occupy themselves with the contents of such material rather than participating in the discussion.

If a salesman, truck driver, clerk, supervisor, or executive knows well in advance that at a certain time he is expected to attend a meeting, he makes no other appointments for that time; he arranges his activities; he provides for the handling of his work; and there is little, if any, disruption of his activities.

b. Time Schedules for Individuals or Groups. When, in conducting a Review with an employee, it becomes apparent that the help of some other employee is needed, pick up the telephone and make a date in advance. If, in making progress reviews, needs are discovered to be common to an entire group, list the subject on the agenda for a future meeting.

The Time Schedule takes the form of individual appointments or dates for sessions of the entire group. Experience indicates that as a result of Plans, Organization Clarification, Standards of Performance, and Progress Review, enough needs arise to justify the establishment of regular meetings for the group involved.

Regular meetings are set up on the basis of a certain day each month, or twice a month, or each week, depending on the nature of the group and the necessity for group consultation or group help. For example, the executive group meets on the third Thursday of each month. Each member of that group meets with his own supervisory staff on the fourth Wednesday of each month. They in turn meet with their supervisors and foremen on the second Tuesday of each month, until ultimately employee groups are reached, meeting on definite days at a specified time.

This series of regular meetings is known in some areas as "Council" meetings; in some cases, they are lettered for purpose of distinction, i.e., A, B, C, D, etc. In other areas, they are called "Conferences"; in still others, just meetings. Conferences and meetings are identified by names such as, "Headquarters Management Meeting," "Headquarters Staff Conference," "Division Management Meeting," "Division Staff Conference," "Salesmen's Meeting," "Bookkeeping Conferences," etc., etc. The whole point involved in this seventh step of this particular Pattern of Management Action is *to set a time in advance for doing what your very careful analysis indicates ought to be done.*

The common sense of such planning seems to be obvious and unquestioned. The difficulty is in training ourselves to do it. If conferences and individual interviews or individual training are planned, if there are agendas in advance, if the people are prepared, if the sessions themselves are carefully and objectively conducted, if careful minutes are prepared, then each session will pay dividends.

c. Time for Contacts Outside Company. It was not so long ago when any individual, who suggested that a manager might spend weeks off the job for the purpose of receiving further education and training in how to do his job, would have been classified as impractical, theoretical, and academic. He even might have been called a dreamer. Today, however, this is a widely recognized and confirmed practice.

For many years, middle management and top-level executives have been taking the thirteen weeks Advanced Management Course at the Harvard School of Business Administration. Smaller numbers have been fortunate members of the Sloan Fellowship Group at Massachusetts Institute of Technology where they attend for a full year. Other developments are the six weeks' course at Arden House put on by the Columbia School of Business Administration, the Stanford University nine weeks' course, and the eight weeks' course at Cornell. These are just a few, and they are increasing in number all over the country.

In addition, the number of executives who are attending professional conferences and seminars, where they are taking part in valuable exchange of experience and where they are keeping up-to-date on trends and problems, is increasing by the thousands.

Out of these contacts grow relationships through which individual executives visit companies for varying periods of time in order to find out how they deal with particular problems. Correspondence and telephones keep men up-to-date with their counterparts in other companies. All this adds up to one of the great dyna-

mic characteristics of the kind of economy in which we live. Our willingness to exchange our know-how with others keeps the whole structure sound.

8. Incentives and Rewards—Step 8 of A Pattern of Management Action

Logically, providing for and timing incentives and rewards is classified as a type of Action to be taken resulting from the Progress Review. Because of its importance, however, it is singled out and added as another step to this Management Pattern so that it will not be overlooked, or underrated.

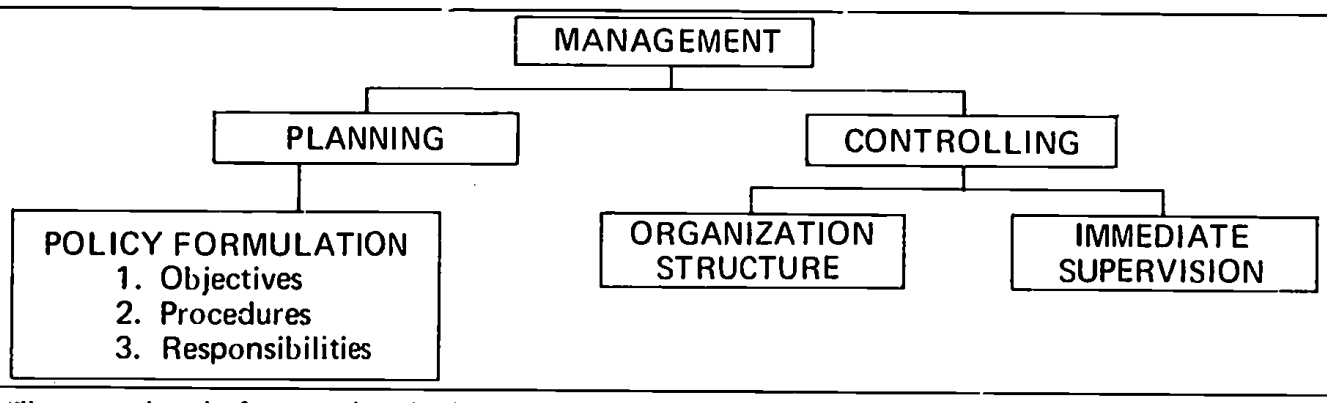
Incentives and Rewards are both financial and non-financial. The question is frequently asked as to which are the more important. It is very difficult to answer that question because it depends upon certain basic con iitions. Until an individual has attained a level of financial return from his work which is reasonably well related to other jobs of similar value, to the standard of living which the company expects of incumbents of the job he is on, and to the basic economic necessities of the family which he is raising, this type of incentive may be of greater value than the non-financial. After he has reached that economic status, even though it may not be as liberal or high as he could wish for, his interests shift to the work climate in which he finds himself, to the kind of management and associates with whom he works, and to certain job satisfactions which arise from the kind of work he does and how he does it.

There are too many cases of individuals who have refused to take job offers in other companies, where the pay is higher, or who have left a company to join another where the pay is lower, to underestimate the importance of non-financial considerations. At the same time, there have been many individuals who have had to make changes they did not want to make, for no other reason than economic necessity. It is, therefore, difficult to generalize because each case has to be considered in terms of the circumstances that exist.

It is good to be able to report that top managements are giving more consideration to this problem than ever before in history. There has been very full and ready participation in important surveys of executive compensation. Companies are more willing than ever before to exchange information of a very confidential nature in order to secure the benefits of such exchange (AMA's Executive Compensation Service).

The compensation pattern that has been left as a result of the upward squeeze of labor rates is not a good one. The differential between workers and first-line supervision has been radically decreased. White-collar workers and middle management people have been caught in an unsatisfactory situation. On top of all this is the decreasing return for high-income executives resulting from the tax burden.

What is important to remember is that if an organization is to be kept high in morale, productivity, and competitive in a free economy, rewards and incentives must be kept adequate to encourage that "job plus" for which America is so famous.



B. Basic Principles and Patterns.

A deliberate attempt has been made in the material so far to drive home the realization that the profession of management is based upon certain well-established principles and that their successful application requires some kind of organized, comprehensive pattern of action. In order for a pattern to be adequate to the achievement of objectives it must provide for the observance of each of the basic principles discussed in the preceding paper. Thus, one way for a manager to check the adequacy of his managerial pattern of action is to go through the various steps of that pattern to see if it has provided for the observance of each of the principles of planning and controlling. If it has not, the pattern is in some respect deficient. It would be helpful at this point to review the eight steps in the pattern just proposed in terms of their attention to the basic principles of management.

Step 1, Plans, focuses attention on planning, one of the two basic elements of management. Step 2, Organization Clarification, establishes procedures and assigns responsibilities, which are two of the requirements under sound planning. This step also provides for the research and information required from which we can determine suitable organization structure, which is one of the media of control. Step 3, Standards of Performance, supplies objectives, which is another requisite of sound planning. Out of this work both general and specific objectives are secured.

A review of the chart of fundamental principles shows that we have now provided for each of those mentioned with the exception of supervision. The remaining five steps of the Pattern—Progress Review, Action to be Taken, Source, Time Schedule, and

Rewards are all elements of supervision. We, therefore, have provided for the second medium of control.

It would be an unfounded assumption to believe that all of the principles of sound management have been discussed here or that all of the methods required have been suggested. Experience, however, proves that if just those mentioned are continually kept in mind and the steps of the Pattern are continuously and religiously applied, a better type of supervision and management will result than is common in most organizations today. At least, there is less to be left to happy accident of that which executives and supervisors should understand concerning the nature of their responsibilities.

C. Flexibility.

Because we are talking about a planned approach to management responsibility, thereby emphasizing conscious and systematic methods, we are instinctively trying to make this whole presentation exceptionally clear. We have outlined it, have identified specific steps, and have thereby implied a certain order or sequence. Such attempts at clarity and preciseness could lead to an impression of rigidity in application. It is, therefore, necessary at this point to write FLEXIBILITY across the whole Management Pattern.

While it would be ideal to plan first, to clarify organization, then set standards, then have progress reviews, etc., it is not always practical or wise to adhere to such a sequence. The use of the steps of a Pattern should be determined by the needs that exist at that moment. If the most immediate problem is that of finding out the caliber of people we have and what can be done to improve their competency, then that is where we should start. If we do begin with reviews, without having standards and position descriptions, it will take longer to do the reviews and we inevitably will see the need for and get into standards and position descriptions. The point I am making here is that it is not essential, even though it may be desirable, to take certain steps before you take others.

It is quite possible that the problem in the organization is a lack of clarification as to standards and objectives. That may be what is worrying people more than anything else. You should, therefore, start immediately on the development of standards even though there has been no organization clarification. As you get into standards, it will be discovered that certain organization clarification has to be done. If, however, you go at standards first, the organization clarification work is less difficult when you get to it.

A Pattern of Management Action simply lists steps and indicates an ideal sequence. Please do not infer, however, that the sequence has to be followed. Use whatever step is required to meet the most immediate interests and needs of the executive involved. It makes no difference with which step you start; you ultimately will find a need for taking the others.

D. Consultative Supervision.

The best method of applying a Pattern of Management Action is that known as Consultative Supervision—getting the full participation of those who are involved.

Set plans with those who have to attain them. Clarify positions with those who are filling the positions. Set Standards in consultation with those who have to reach them. Use of the open review is consultation, and the multiple, conference or group review is based upon this principle of consultative supervision.

It might startle some when the statement is made that effective and successful plans for incentives and rewards have been worked out in consultation with those who are to be on the receiving end of such rewards and incentives. One experience stands out clearly in my memory of a special group that was employed by a company to establish a salary and incentive plan for salesmen. This group of experts worked for 18 months and the company spent many thousands of dollars in the development of the plan. The plan was announced, put into effect, and within six months, was discarded.

That same company then decided to conduct discussions with groups of salesmen for the purpose of developing an adequate plan. These various groups worked separately at first in the clarification of their suggestions. Representatives of each group then came together in a discussion with representatives of management and, ultimately, a plan was devised and put into effect—the major features of which are still being followed 15 years later.

There is no reason to shy away from the suggestions and ideas of people at lower levels in the organization. It does not make any difference about how insignificant or routine a job may be, the person in it knows more about that job and how it should be done than anybody else. The man who is standing at the assembly line, putting nuts on bolts all day, knows more about putting nuts on bolts than anybody else does.

Consultative supervision assumes that responsibility is placed upon individuals—never upon groups. Each individual has authority to make certain decisions and is accountable for the results of such decisions. Before he makes a decision, however, he should consult with anyone who can be helpful to him in arriving at the proper conclusion. When the conclusion is arrived at, he is solely responsible for the results therefrom.

A manager would not be smart if, when consulting with others, they arrived at an acceptable conclusion to him, and he then said, "O.K., we are through talking; I will now make the decision." If he can get others to arrive at conclusions acceptable to him, he should give them credit even though he is responsible for the outcome. He thereby gets their commitment to the successful realization of the course of action decided upon.

Consultative supervision does not call for majority vote or committee action.

E. Results.

The practical supervisor will always ask the perfectly logical question, "What are the results from the application of a Management Pattern? It sounds reasonable, it makes common sense, but is it worth the effort? Does it pay dividends to stockholders, to executives, to employees, and to customers?"

Here are three sources for the answer to that question:

1. The chief executive of the operation, division, company, or organization.
2. The over-all results as shown on the balance sheet of the organization.
3. Specific instances.

Those who are occupied full time as staff in promoting the principles of management and in assisting in the improvement of methods receive no formal reports on it, have no responsibility for, and receive no credit directly for specific results. *When a chief executive, individually, or his executive staff collectively, accept the principles and begin to apply them, it is their program—they operate it, they are responsible for it.*

If a chief executive says the program is good and he expects to continue it, that is the finest report on results we can expect. He knows what is going on in his operation; he knows his expense, his realization, and his volume; if he is good enough to be the chief executive of the operation, he is good enough to judge the value of methods he uses.

One of the best replies to a question on results comes from a chief executive who had been using this approach for years: "You cannot pick out specific results. This program is a method of management. It reaches into every phase of the operation. Look at the over-all results of my operation. They are satisfactory, and this program has contributed a great deal toward them."

Specific illustrations are dangerous. Any story of specific improvement implies former carelessness, whereas that is not necessarily true. Such cases, however, are picked up and treated as criticisms. As has been said before, any organization made up of human beings has opportunities for improvement. This helps to discover those opportunities and to provide solutions for them.

Pages could be filled with specific illustrations showing how salesmen have caught an entirely different concept of their relationships with the customer and have not only increased the volume of their business, but the quality of it; how they have put greater volume through fewer and more desirable outlets; how they have reduced controllable selling expenses; how they have improved consumer, public, and organization relationships.

Further illustrations could be given: Clarification of responsibility on expense has saved one operation over $100,000 in one year; improvement in clerical methods has saved one office over $30,000 a year; an office formerly operating from 8:00 a.m. until 6:00 p.m. now operates from 8:00 until 4:00 with the same lunch hour and handles a greater volume of work.

Added to such stories come those of talent previously unappreciated; release of executives with definite skills to other activities, their former jobs being taken over by very capable subordinates. *All of them seem to sum up to increased results at less expense and with better relationships.*

One comment on results is deeply significant and appears in every report written or uttered, and that is—*improvement in morale.* In the possession of the writer are letters from many sections of the world, written by chief executives. The one statement that invariably appears in every one of them emphasizes the noticeable improvement in executive, supervisory, and employee attitude.

After all, improvement in morale is a major motive of the whole program. We repeat again that efficiency as an objective is undesirable, but as a by-product of good morale, it is a just reward.

Coldly and financially speaking, any management wants greater individual productiveness, but management will get it on a sound basis only through building strong morale, thereby creating in the minds of workers the desire to produce. It seems reasonable to say with deep conviction that the strongest possible morale can be present only when

1. Plans are motivating.
2. Functions have been clarified.
3. Authority has been properly delegated.
4. Relationships have been clearly outlined.
5. Objectives have been specifically stated and accepted.
6. There is close relationship between supervisor and worker based upon the supervisor's regular and careful review of the worker's performance.
7. Each employee has in his possession a personal development program indicating opportunities for improvement, and a schedule of subjects and helps that has been worked out with his immediate chief.
8. Each is appropriately rewarded when recognition is justified.

When such conditions exist, workers want to produce, and in this case, the term "Workers" applies to anybody on the payroll.

Some of us are still idealistic enough to believe that the most routine, monotonous job in the world can be made pleasant by the creation of a situation in which the worker likes his immediate superior, likes his associates, and enjoys the relationships surrounding the task to be done. It seems to be proved by actual tests that the average worker is more interested in the

psychological conditions under which he works than in the pay that he receives for the job.

F. Miscellaneous Observations.

1. Time for the Application of A Pattern of Management Action. People who are already working overtime and who are snowed under with their present responsibilities draw away from the possibility of more meetings, conferences, and other activities required to bring about an orderly, continuous, and conscious method of management. The answer to such a practical situation is faith in the soundness of the approach until proved by action experience.

The best illustration we have is this: You may have been married 15 years ago, bought and moved into a honeymoon cottage that was perfectly satisfactory to meet the needs of the time. Children have come to the home; Grandpa has left this world, and Grandma has come to live with you.

The home is no longer adequate to meet the needs of the family. There is only one bathroom, a small kitchen, an old coal burner in the basement, single car garage, etc., etc. You have to get up half an hour earlier in the morning to get shaved and out of the way of the children so that they can get ready for school. Literally, you are falling all over each other due to the fact that the honeymoon cottage does not meet the needs of modern conditions.

You decided to build a new home. While building the home, additional time is involved—evenings, holidays, weekends, you are talking with architects, with builders, selecting wallpaper, hardware, running yourself ragged. Finally, you move into the new home and you find more time on your hands than ever before.

So it is with the application of A Management Pattern. In trying to clarify your organization, to set standards to be followed, in reviewing performance and supplying needs to improve that performance, additional time is required. *Each hour put into such activities, each responsibility that is clarified, each standard that is set, each improvement in individual performance, saves time.* Finally, you discover that you and others in the organization have more time on your hands than you had before, and the entire operation is running much more smoothly.

2. Men and Machines. A Pattern of Management Action, as has been stated so many times, is an organized, conscious, and continuous method of management. Frankly, *it is an attempt* to apply to men the same careful consideration that we give machines.

If a company proposed to purchase a new piece of machinery involving capital expenditure of about $50,000, what would be the company's procedure? It carefully would determine what the machine is to do (its functions); and learn its production capacity (Standards of Performance). If these seem to be reasonably sound and the money is available, the machine would be purchased and installed. Periodically, an inspector would check the machine (Progress Review); from his report, it would be determined what the machine needed in the way of repair, maintenance, or replacement (Action to be Taken).

A decision would be made as to the best *Source* for having the work done—can the operator do it?—is the shop mechanic the man to do it?—should it be taken to the plant shop?—should some mechanic from outside be brought in?—or, should the machine be sent back to the manufacturer? The best *Time* to do this work would then be determined so that provision can be made to reorganize the work in the shop in order to pick up the slack while the machine is out of production. Then we would determine the cost (Rewards).

Does it not seem reasonable that *we should apply the same care and the same logic, the same intelligence, the same consideration to the man who operates the machine as we do to the machine itself?* We have a larger investment in the man; we have a greater potential in the man. The whole Professional Management Program is simply an appeal to the common sense, to the sound reasoning of the executive and supervisory staff, in an effort to impress those involved with this logic.

G. An Important and Basic Principle.

In applying management techniques, it is imperative that we keep the techniques in proper perspective. No manager should develop any fondness for a technique in itself. I do not know of any manager who is devoting much time to the collection of PLANS just for the sake of having a collection of good plans. (Libraries and researchers, yes, but not managers.) I do not know of a manager interested in collecting position descriptions for the sake of having position descriptions. Managers should not be interested in the development of perfect standards of performance just for the sake of attaining perfection in that medium. What *is* important is the process of applying the technique—the process of bringing a supervisor and a subordinate closer and closer together in their mental images of what is to be done and how well it is to be done.

THE VALUE OF THE USE OF A MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUE IS THE IMPACT IT HAS UPON HUMAN PERFORMANCE. This is the prime reason why it is important that managers use these techniques in working with their people.

A STRATEGY FOR INSTITUTIONALIZING CHANGE INTERVENTIONS IN ORGANIZATIONS: AN ACTION MODEL

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Introduction

Organizational psychologists and practitioners have become increasingly concerned with the development of strategies for bringing about change in organizations. For the most part, however, the organizational change literature has tended to limit itself to considerations of change interventions by external consultants. This perspective fails to deal with the critical issues of institutionalization of change. This institutionalization must be viewed both in terms of the fixing of the induced change into the institutional fabric and in the recognition of the growing trend, in organizations, to develop routine internal change producing functions.

An important development in modern, complex organizations has been the appearance of a growing spectrum of such change producing activities or departments which have become embodied into the routine functioning of these organizations. Examples are Research and Development, Operations Research, Industrial Engineering, and Organizational Development. Such activities are part of the growing capability of organizations to generate and implement an increasing variety of changes from within.

This process of institutionalization of change also implies the development of a normative framework within the organization that will be conducive to building a climate for dealing with change. It is a frequent shortcoming of change strategies that they have not always dealt systematically with the implementation phase of the change and the development of a climate of attitudes and supporting norms that will institutionalize the change process, after the external change agent has left the system.

Various Approaches to Change in Organizations

Considerations of organizational change must take into account the wide variety of ways in which change can be induced. In his analysis, Leavitt views organizations as "... complex systems in which at least four interacting variables loom especially large: task variables, structural variables, technological variables, and human variables." By viewing organizations in this way we can then consider the implementation of organizational change by using any one of the following approaches:

- *Structural approaches* where the operating organization is redesigned in some fashion, e.g., where the role structure with respect to decision-making is changed so that lower levels in the hierarchy would have more power and responsibility for carrying out the work of the organization;
- *Technological approaches* where processes or techniques by which the organization performs its tasks are modified, e.g., the introduction of operations research and information processing techniques to improve the efficiency of organizations; and
- *People or humanistic approaches* where the target of change is the attitudes and/or behavior of the members of the organization. The basic assumption of this approach is that by changing human behavior one can cause changes in new technology or modifications in organization structure.

A perspective of some interest is one which attempts to identify those sets of factors providing greatest change leverage and those which create factors in the organization reinforcing the desired changes. Likely to be in this critical set are "priority setting" and "decision making" processes and the factors which

determine the technological and skill capabilities of the organization.

No less important than the type of change are the source, continuity, and the scope of the change. There has been considerable discussion of the likely sources of change in organizations. Terreberry has suggested that major change must be initiated from outside the institution.

Empirical observation would seem to indicate that the change process be initiated in many ways. The change can indeed be introduced by an external change agent who may be called in by the organization as a consultant (or may be imposed on the organization) and who, in some cases, provides the impetus for change. Change can also be introduced by a member or group of members of the organization whose formal function may be that of introducing change into the system. Typically, R and D personnel, operations researchers, and management scientists have found themselves in this role as they have tried to introduce their new technologies. Change can also be introduced through a combination of internal change agents, who are members of the organization, and external change agents. The internal change agents with their inside knowledge of the system can be helpful to the external change agent as he brings his expertise to the organization. Also the internal change agents can then carry on the change process and reinforce it once the external change agent has left the system.

There remains the critical issue of whether the change is due to important environmental changes, to which the organization is responding, or whether change can be generated by internally induced conditions. It is clearly part of the role of internal change functions to seek out improvement opportunities in both stable or changing and munificent as well as threatening environments. Whether such functions can be effective in generating and implementing major change in a nonthreatening, stable environment is still an open question meriting considerable research.

One important factor in organizations effectively adapting to change is to implement modifications in their internal structure and operation. The issue may perhaps be better focused around the question of whether the change threatens the dominant coalitions on whom may depend the success of implementation, rather than on whether the change is radical or incremental. Where such threats to the center of power are inherent, it may take a major external force to generate the change.

Fixing and Maintaining Change

The concept has been raised of a minimal critical change mass which may be needed to overcome the normal homeostatic character of systems tending to wipe out small changes, which then become viewable as "perturbations." Such a perspective immediately focuses our attention on the systemic character of the organizational change process, and therefore points out the inadequacy of change strategies that restrict themselves to change of either individuals or even groups, without paying attention to the structural and social environment in which these change objects will operate. The fade out (i.e., lack of lasting impact on the organization) of a great deal of the organizational development work illustrates this point.

One of the shortcomings of many such change approaches has been this very failure to acknowledge the interdependencies between the structural, technological, and human variables. Any change in one of these variables is going to have an impact on the remaining variables, as are the remaining variables going to affect the "change" in the variable used as the lever for change. For example, the information system of an organization may be changed to increase the information exchange between members. However, if the history of interpersonal relations between these individuals is poor, it is unlikely that there will be an increase in information flow, as individuals may not trust one another and thus still will restrict the flow of information. If the information processing capabilities of the organization are to be improved, the interpersonal relations may also have to be improved. But by the same token, mere improvement of interpersonal relations, but leaving alone an inadequate structural arrangement, is no less likely to fail.

The Institutionalization of Change

Organizational theorists have emphasized that the kind and extent of present-day change in organizational environments preclude the production of long-range planning. They suggest, rather, that built-in flexibility and adaptability may be more efficient for organizational adaptation than the introduction of planned, purposeful change. One way of building in such a flexibility would be to institutionalize the "openness" to change among organizational members through the development of a system of norms and embodying values supporting change that are then translated into the individual's role expectations. This institutionalization then focuses on both the individual as well as the structure of the organization. It focuses on the individual in that it emphasizes the legitimacy of flexibility in performing one's role and creates the expectation within organizational members that change is a part of one's job definition and that one should expect to experience change situations in his role. This institutionalization process also creates a set of role expectations on the part of organization members that supports change. When an individual's role requires that he make modifications in his role performance, members of his role set are more likely to support and reinforce the changed behavior. This institutionalization of change whereby the norms,

values, and resulting role expectations of organizational members are changed thus provides a larger systems approach to change; one that operates on the individual to change his values, attitudes, and behavior to create change, and then supports and reinforces this change by other organizational members whose role expectations are congruent with the change.

An Action Model for Institutionalizing Change

Given the above considerations we must now address ourselves to the kinds of change strategies organizations can implement that will facilitate the institutionalization of change. As indicated above, the crucial aspect of the institutionalization of change is to change the basic normative framework of the organization so that the attitudinal and behavioral changes are supported by changed role expectations. The implication here is that change strategies that focus only on individuals by pulling them out of their organizational role and sending them off to some training program and then replanting them into the same unchanged organization are doomed to failure in the sense of creating lasting organization-wide change. The problem here is that the individual returns to his organizational role with the same role expectations from his peers, subordinates, and superiors. Even if the individual has changed, it is highly unlikely that he will be able to implement these changes without the direct support of those around him on the job.

What is then needed is an organization-wide approach to change. The top administration of the organization must commit the resources and participants of the entire organization to the change program if the goal is significant change. The direct implication of this is that *change is difficult and expensive and, unless it is a system-wide effort, the effects are going to be minimal.*

Given this pessimistic assessment of organizational change strategies, let us briefly outline a strategy that facilitates the institutionalization of organization-wide change. There are two essential components to this strategy. First, this strategy is initiated from the top of the organization to indicate to organizational members that the "powers that be" in the system are truly committed to the change program and are themselves going to participate. Second, and equally important, the change program must actually involve the participation of organizational members from all ranks in order to enhance their commitment to change and build in support.

There are four stages in this change strategy. The *first stage* consists of an organization-wide diagnosis to assess the current state of the organization's climate. This assessment focuses on how organizational members feel about their organization in terms of its management, the kinds of problems the organization is facing, and, most importantly, whether they perceive a need for change and what resources are available for implementing the change. This initial diagnostic phase will be carried out by a diagnostic team made up of an external consultant and a small representative group of participants from the organization. The rationale for this combined external-internal team is that the external consultant can provide the detachment and expertise input into the diagnosis while the internal group can contribute their firsthand knowledge of the organization.

The *second stage* is then to systematically feed back the results of this diagnosis to intact work groups in the organization. Each of these groups will then discuss these results looking specifically at the implications for the group and the overall organization in order to identify action steps the organization might take in changing its operation. In these feedback meetings an external consultant from the diagnostic team will be present to act as a resource person as the group discusses the feedback. The consultant's direct role here will be to help the group identify alternative ways for taking action.

In the *third stage* each group will select one or two representatives to form an Organizational Change Committee. This OC Committee will become internal change agents that will work most directly with the external consultant or consultants. They will provide a direct liaison between the external consultant and other organizational members. This Committee will then, based on the strategies developed by the groups whom they represent, formulate with the external consultant direct action steps for change. At this point they would actually consider the type of change program to be implemented, i.e., leadership training, group problem solving, etc. They would also consider the criteria and methodology by which the change program would be evaluated. One of the essential functions of the OC Committee is to continually keep organizational members involved and informed which hopefully will increase organizational commitment and reduce resistance to change.

The *fourth stage* is the actual implementation stage of the change program. At this point the change program is systematically implemented in the various parts of the organization. Each OC Committee member acts as the impetus to change in his work group. He works with the external consultant in administering the change program to his work group. He would then work with the external consultant-trainer as an "in-house" expert as other members of his work group go through the training. Because of his knowledge of the organization, the OC Committee member is better able to orient the training program to the needs of his work group and any particular problem areas that might exist in the leadership area.

The above procedure would then be followed in all the functional areas in the organization. This would

institutionalize the change process in that the entire organization would be participating in the leadership training program. Therefore any changes that resulted from the training effort would have a greater likelihood of being supported and reinforced by one's peers, subordinates, and superiors than if just individuals were sent off to some training program by themselves.

The basic assumption of this discussion has been that, unless the top administrators of the system are committed to an organization-wide approach to change that involves organizational members in the design and implementation, change programs are going to have minimal impact on the system.

PART III: PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES OF STATE EDUCATION AGENCIES

INTRODUCTION

The problems found in contemporary education (Part I of this *Report*) require the incorporation of prescriptions for improvement (Part II) into the operations of State Education Agencies. This is the subject of this final section of the *Report*. Included herein are reviews, by the professional educators directly involved, of the planning activities which have been undertaken by five separate states—Florida, Maryland, Michigan, North Carolina, and Washington.

The first two papers presented—those discussing the North Carolina and Maryland efforts—formed the basis for a panel presentation at the Institute. Both of these states have worked previously with the American Management Association in the development of statewide planning and management competencies. The members of the panel included:

A. Craig Phillips, Superintendent, North Carolina State Department of Education;

James H. Sensenbaugh, Superintendent, Maryland State Department of Education;

Irving Herrick, Maryland State Department of Education;

Raymond Klawuhn, American Management Association.

The North Carolina paper presented here describes the general development of the overall "plan for planning" which the State Education Agency employed. It traces the history of the concept of planning in the State and shows how the current emphasis upon planning was made possible by this background and by parallel interests in overall planning presently found in state and federal agencies. State Superintendent Craig Phillips discusses the nature and scope of comprehensive planning and gives examples of the types of activities in which his state has become involved. He places particular emphasis upon the need for the entire educational structure to allocate personnel, time, and resources to planning and stresses the indispensability of comprehensive information and evaluation systems. The paper concludes with a brief model based upon the North Carolina experience.

The Maryland paper focuses more specifically upon one topic, namely the manner in which the State Education Agency developed a set of educational objectives for use by all the local districts. While the actual objectives which were ultimately adopted are of interest to both educators and the public at large, what is perhaps of greater importance is the opportunity to study the processes by which these goals were reached. Two principles emerge which deserve critical attention. One of these is that while the State Agency cannot dictate to the local units, it can exert influence and achieve cooperation when it provides leadership initiative and resources enabling local agencies to move forward. The other point is that the most successful programs tend to be those in which all parties are involved in the ongoing exchange of ideas which allows for the modification of disparate positions into mutually acceptable ones.

The Michigan paper describes that State's effort to reform and improve the delivery of educational services to all of its citizens. Dr. Kearney describes the six basic steps in Michigan's new thrust as: (1) the identification of common goals; (2) the development of performance objectives; (3) the assessment of needs; (4) the analysis of delivery systems; (5) evaluation of programs; and (6) recommendations for improvement. Although the individual components are commonly

found in educational program: what makes the Michigan experience out of the ordinary according to Kearney is the commitment of the State's entire educational system, from the State Superintendent to the local classroom teacher, to reform, and the heavy reliance of the Department of Education upon an empirically ascertained assessment of needs as a starting point for improvement. The section of the paper co-authored by Dr. Thorin and Dr. Boston relates the contribution of the local school district to the state-wide effort.

The last two papers discuss ways in which two states have planned and implemented reforms in teacher certification, changes of the kind hinted at by B.O. Smith in his paper. Wendell Allen focuses his attention upon the strategies which the State of Washington has utilized to restructure its certification procedures, beginning with the observation that the seemingly contradictory trends toward centralism in government and operational decentralization or community control in education can be reconciled only if the State Education Agency provides the kind of leadership which relies heavily upon participatory planning. In line with this, Washington has assigned the responsibility for teacher preparation and certification to consortia composed of institutions of higher education, professional associations, and local school organizations. Allen also discusses the difficulties encountered and the criteria established by the State and with which the consortia must comply, and closes with a description of the types and levels of certificates now available in his state.

William C. Golden's paper relates the recent shift in Florida toward performance-based teacher certification, a transition based upon the assumptions that the State should be administratively responsible for the certification of teachers and that evidence of the ability to teach, which is better than the evidence now used, can be obtained. Golden recognizes that such performance criteria are difficult to obtain and administer, but believes that state-sponsored research will deal with the former and that the assignment of evaluation to the training institutions themselves will take care of the latter problem. Golden further claims that four conditions must be met before performance-based certification can become a reality: an appropriate legal framework must be established, and systems for monitoring competencies must be implemented. Given these and the development of in-service teacher education programs, he believes, performance-based certification can make an enormous beneficial contribution to the profession.

A PLAN FOR PLANNING IN NORTH CAROLINA

A. Craig Phillips
State Superintendent of Public Instruction

The North Carolina State Education Agency has developed a blueprint for planning within the agency. This "Plan for Planning" within the State Education Agency evolved as a result of a number of circumstances, primary among which have been the desire and the necessity to develop a style of leadership and a sense of responsibility in the Agency which have possibilities for facilitating a new brand of educational excellence throughout the State.

Joint study in recent months with the American Management Association has given impetus to the completion of this Plan, which will serve as the initial basis for concentrated efforts at educational improvement through the process of comprehensive planning. Justified on the basis that *all* efforts within the State Agency will be productive if the details of this Plan are implemented, this particular approach to planning includes, among other details, a rationale for planning, specific outcomes anticipated through planning, operational principles and guidelines, a description of the planning process as it is envisioned for the Agency, along with a suggested organization for planning. A major and permeating emphasis throughout this Plan is the fact that *budgets should support programs, not vice versa.*

Background and History of the Concept of Planning in the State Education Agency

Planning as an educational concept has been accepted by educators and the general public much more slowly than the concept of planning as a business, industrial, or military approach to efficiency and effectiveness. Yet, within the last generation, and more particularly within the last few years, educational decision-makers at all levels have come to respect planning and to utilize its techniques in the overall improvement of education.

As early as 1920 there was established in the State Education Agency a Division of Schoolhouse Planning now known as the Division of School Planning. Perhaps through this Division, more than elsewhere, have the concepts of comprehensive planning been encouraged and utilized. For years, the availability of State bond money for schoolhouse construction has been predicated on the local administrative unit's preparation and the State Board of Education's approval of long-range educational plans for the total community. Between 1964-1968 this Division, recognizing the increasing importance of educational planning, prepared publications as possible aids to local school officials in their planning for the needs of all students. A major emphasis in these brochures centered around the importance of total educational planning as specific plans are made for improving facilities. Also, through the Division of School Planning, more than by other means, other divisions in the State Education Agency have become familiar with the basic concepts underlying PERT (Program Evaluation and Review Technique), a widely recognized approach to certain aspects of scientific planning.

For years efforts have been made to coordinate the thinking and planning of those responsible for programs with the ideas and information of those most knowledgeable about fiscal affairs. For the most part, this planning, mandatory and useful, has been biennial in nature rather than continuing and has never utilized to the fullest extent the many valuable techniques available to planners.

Like many state, regional, and national groups, the North Carolina Board of Education, in connection with a number of its responsibilities in recent years, has stressed on many occasions the need for planning at the State level and at the local level, with emphasis on the need for personnel and time for planning. This growing recognition of the need for educational planning at state and national levels has been paralleled by an acceptance of this concept, theoretically at least, by practically all components in state and federal government.

In recent administrations, North Carolina governors have demonstrated genuine interest in planning as an art, as a science, and as a profession. Since 1965, the State Planning Task has assumed genuine initiative in encouraging effective state-wide planning.

Emphasis on educational planning within the State Education Agency has been manifested through a series of activities. For example, a thorough Agency-wide appraisal of all Divisions, their personnel, their responsibilities, and the like has been done by a national consulting firm.

Also, we participate in an eight-state national study group, the Region III Interstate Project on State Planning and Program Consolidation, one of whose chief objectives has been that of increasing emphasis on planning in State agencies while, at the same time, developing a model for a comprehensive planning unit within the Divisions.

Third, the section of Planning, Research, and Development was created under an Assistant Superintendent, with the nucleus of a competent staff for planning with funds made available through Section 402 of the General Education Provisions Act.

Fourth, the Agency participated in a cooperative in-depth study with the American Management Association relative to planning, its importance, and its functions within the State Education Agency.

Finally, the Agency developed a document, which purports to suggest in broad outline a "Plan for Planning" for the State Education Agency.

The Nature and Scope of Comprehensive Educational Planning

Education planning is broad and comprehensive. It is not simply a project; it is broader than a program; it is more encompassing than educational reform. Educational planning should involve the entire educational matrix—vertically, horizontally, public, private, formal, and informal. It should include general education, occupational education, professional education, special and adult education, as well as such educational influences as radio, television, the theatre, industrial educational programs, and many others.

Comprehensive educational planning should be geographically broad in that it involves the entire State and, to the degree possible, coordinates planning on a regional basis. Similarly, educational planning should be all-encompassing. As a function it should never be interpreted to include the duplication of efforts of such educational disciplines as research; evaluation; and the collection, processing, and analysis of statistical data. Educational planning should draw upon all these resources as inputs for the planning function, thereby encouraging coordinated support necessary for adequate planning. As a continuous long-range activity, educational planning increasingly must assume more and more characteristics of an art, science, and a profession.

Information and Evaluation Systems

Information System. Comprehensive information and evaluation systems must be an integral part of any effective planning effort. Reliable and valid information is essential for assessing needs, for forecasting future events, for establishing priorities, for planning innovative programs, for establishing performance criteria, for writing goals and objectives, for designing evaluation procedures, and for formulating budget requests. In essence, no single planning or decision-making step can be made effectively in the absence of reliable and complete reference data.

Data within an information system must be comprehensive, current, relevant, and accessible. Quantitative and statistical data may be stored, manipulated, synthesized, and made available through mechanical and electronic data processing techniques. On the other hand, most important information for reviewing past and current programs, as well as for obtaining ideas for new projects, may be found in printed form and through the newly developed and efficient micro forms.

Evaluation System. In addition to an effective information system so essential in the planning effort, a comprehensive evaluation system is also of utmost importance. This system, greatly dependent on and related to the aforementioned information system, must not only allow for the evaluation of proposed programs and on-going programs but also must provide procedures for appraising programs which are either recorded in literature or are operated by others. Characteristics of a quality evaulation system include the following:

- The system must provide information and procedures so that each Division within the State Agency may write measurable objectives and subsequently determine whether the objectives are met. A first step among these procedures would be the establishment of performance criteria at various grade levels.
- The system must provide procedures for contrasting two alternative approaches to a problem in order to determine whether one is significantly better than the other.
- The system must provide procedures showing the

interrelationships among educational variables, between educational and socio-economic factors, and between educational expenditures and outcomes.

- The system must provide procedures for obtaining subjective as well as objective data about programs.
- The system must provide ways of developing appropriate procedures and techniques for evaluating new and non-traditional educational objectives. Essentially important is the capability of the system to collect and use valid information which is not obtained through a standardized testing program.
- The system must provide ways for evaluating programs which are recorded in literature, those in operational status, and those organizations not under the jurisdiction of the State Education Agency.

Organizing for Planning

In order to have an effective organization in which comprehensive planning can take place, each professional within the State Education Agency must assume an active role in planning the Agency's activities. At each level of responsibility, from the State Superintendent and the Controller to the consultant with his specialized duties, roles in the planning process must be clearly defined, and individual participants must be held accountable for their performance.

More personnel than otherwise will have a dual role in the planning process—that of coordinating the plans of their staff members and that of formulating plans for their own personal activities. There is a direct correlation between one's rank in an organization and the degree of his responsibility for coordinating planning activities; conversely, there is an inverse relationship between one's degree of responsibility and his involvement in the details and mechanics of the planning process. In this context the Superintendent has maximum responsibility for creating a climate for the planning activities in the Agency and for coordinating these activities; the consultant for a subject area, on the other hand, has maximum responsibility for the detailed planning in the area of his special responsibility.

A Model of the Planning Process for the North Carolina State Education Agency

The accompanying model (Figure 1, see following page) indicates the cycling of input-output in the planning process for the North Carolina State Education Agency. Each Program Division of the State Education Agency will follow the steps below in the process of developing a plan for the particular Division. Using the Division of Mathematics Education, examples are given to help clarify the tasks involved.

Step 1—Situation Analysis. Determine what the present situation is within the Division. Products of this step might include the following examples: (1) the number of students enrolled in elementary mathematics as compared to the number of students retained; (2) the percent of teachers teaching mathematics who are not certified in this field; (3) the percentage of students attending secondary schools in which comprehensive mathematics programs are offered; (4) the percentage of students scoring below 50% on the mathematics section of SAT.

Step 2—Mission Statement. Develop a mission statement in the area of mathematics which is consistent with the overall mission of the State Agency.

Step 3—Continuing Objectives. Develop continuing objectives in the area of mathematics which are consistent with continuing objectives for the State Agency. An example of this process might be: "Consistent with a realistic appraisal of their needs, interests, and abilities, all students in North Carolina leaving secondary school will demonstrate the computation skills and knowledge essential for obtaining appropriate employment."

Step 4—Specific Objectives. Determine student objectives in terms of student outcomes in relation to continuing objectives. An example of this process might include: "By May 1, 1973, 60% of the student population in grades 3,6,9, and 12 will be achieving at grade level expectancy (National norms) on computational skills as measured by Standardized achievement tests."

Step 5—Priorities. Rank specific objectives in terms of their significance *and* in accordance with fiscal resources.

Step 6—Strategies. Develop strategies for achieving each of the specific objectives. An example of a strategy for achieving the specific objective listed above might be: "By September 5, 1971, a slide-tape presentation on trends in the teaching of elementary, junior, and senior high school mathematics will be developed and made available to LEA's for the purpose of disseminating promising practices to classroom teachers."

Step 7—Evaluation. Establish performance standards as well as data-collection and review procedures for each strategy in terms of the achievement of the specific objectives. An evaluation procedure for the specific objectives stated above might be: "By May 1, 1973, test data will be analyzed to determine whether students in grades 3,6,9, and 12 are achieving at grade level expectancy."

Summary of Plan for Planning

Acceptance of the foregoing blueprint for planning represents the first of many steps that will have to be taken in order to attain a comprehensive planning capability for the State Education Agency. The next steps toward reaching a maximum planning efficiency will require more time, more detailed effort, and the involvement of an increasing number of professional personnel within the State Agency. A list of these activities which will receive priority follow:

- Indicate commitment to the Mission Statement and to Continuing Objectives.
- Develop a handbook for planning and budget making.
- Develop an educational information system.
- Initiate and conduct in-service training programs on planning procedures.
- Establish performance criteria for Continuing Objectives.
- Develop a state-wide assessment program.
- Develop a program and budget coding system.
- Formulate satisfactory functional procedures for accepting requests for consultant aid from personnel at the local school level.
- Formulate specific objectives which are common to all Divisions within the State Education Agency and to which committment will be expected.
- Assume appropriate initiative in creating a North Carolina Education Development Council.

An obvious first step in bringing the above ten priorities to fruition is to make a realistic estimate of the financial and human resources required for implementing each. Should this survey reveal a lack of funds or personnel for accomplishing the tasks, the Planning Division will develop proposals, request grants, and otherwise take steps for obtaining the necessary resources.

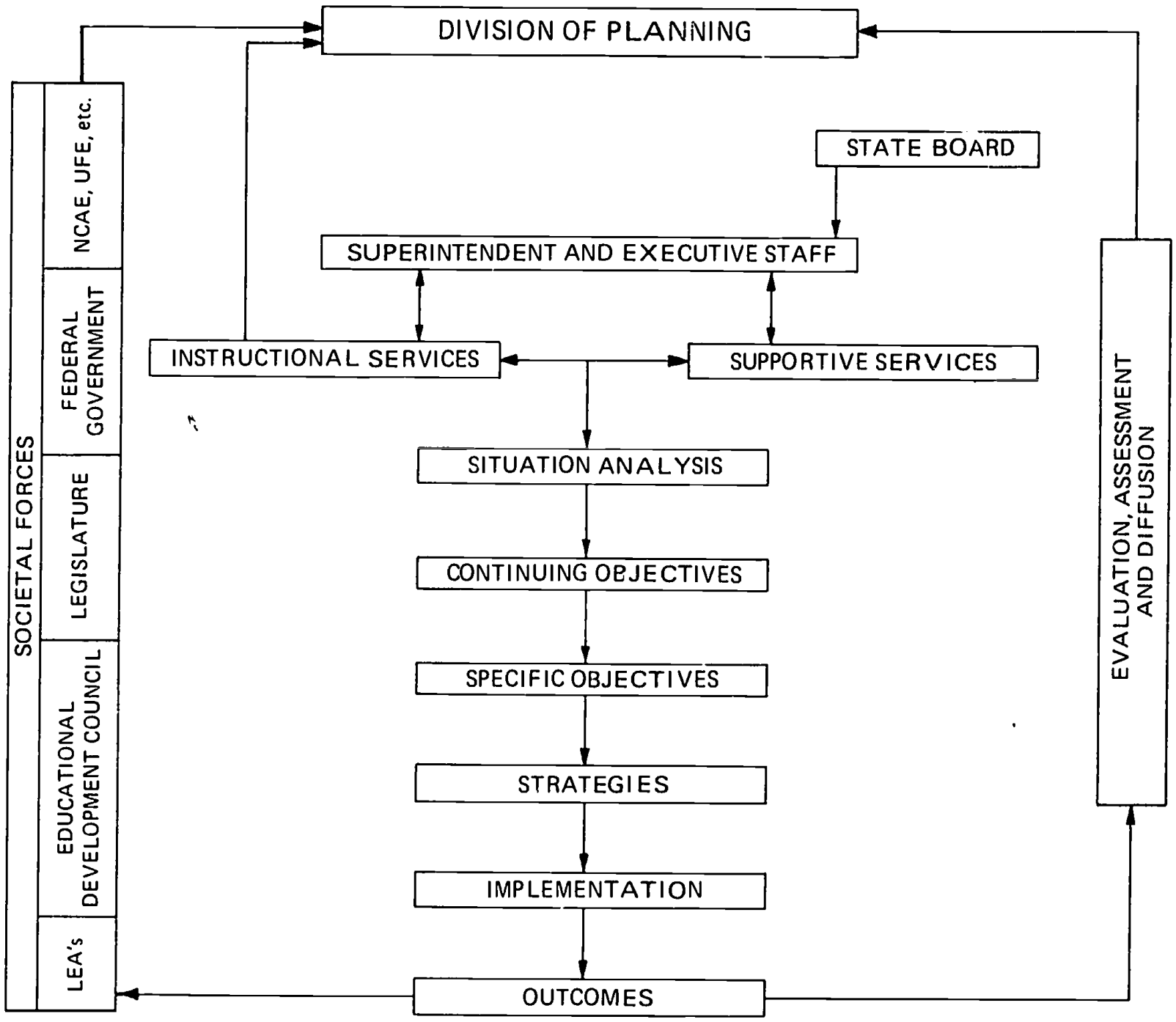

FIGURE 1. A Planning Process for the North Carolina State Education Agency.

DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES FOR THE STATE OF MARYLAND

James A. Sensenbaugh, *State Superintendent*
Irving Herrick, *Planner*
Maryland State Department of Education

From the state education agencies in Maryland and North Carolina, two teams were selected. The team from each SEA and its LEA's was composed of top planners and the chief executive.

Each team came to AMA headquarters at Hamilton, New York for two one-week sessions. The primary goals of the sessions were to conduct a situation analysis of each SEA and develop a plan for planning.

The role of the American Management Association was to supply structure to the sessions. The "Director of Planning" of the AMA does *not* make substantive decisions or recom ndations. His role is to facilitate the team's develo nt of a plan to which it is committed, to help it ake decisions about how resources are to be allocate and generally to aid in becoming more skilled in the planning process.

Stemming in part from work with the AMA, the Maryland planning team developed sixty specific objectives (all student-oriented) at Hamilton. The SEA then submitted these objectives to the twenty-four school districts in the state. The LEA's modified and weighted the objectives as they saw fit.

Through a series of "actions" and "reactions," it has been possible to get much more involvement from LEA's in the determination of educational objectives than has been the case in the past and develop clearly-stated goals from these more specific objectives. It is fundamentally important that school districts be involved in the development of objectives. Such "grass roots" involvement does not come easily.

As an example, our tentative mission statement[1] took the following form:

The mission of the Maryland State Department of Education is to meet the current and continuing educational needs of the children, youth, and adults of the State comprehensively, effectively, and efficiently.

Reactions to the above statement were solicited from LEA superintendents and MSDE personnel. A summary of the resulting concerns about the mission statement is presented below.

. . . (mission) needs to be given reconsideration . . . the most salient aspect has been omitted . . . we have come to know the State Department of Education as operating most successfully and assisting local sub-divisions best by performing regulatory, leadership, and a minimum of operational functions . . . a continuation . . . most beneficial . . . we would suggest that the mission be stated in such a way as to include the fact that the State Department is responsible for meeting the needs of children and youth but most clearly through the operations of local sub-divisions . . .

We feel that although this is a good statement for the mission of the Maryland public educational system, it does not accurately relate to the supportive role of the MSDE.

In addition to the reactions, a number of recommended revisions were submitted. Here are some examples:

The mission of the Maryland State Department of Education, in cooperation with other social institutions, is to meet the current and continuing educational needs of children, youth and adults of the State . . .

The mission of the Maryland State Department of Education is to provide leadership and resources in meeting the educational needs of the children, youth and adults of the State . . .

[1]The broadest, most comprehensive statement which can be made about the centr se of the Maryland State Department of Education.

The mission of the Maryland State Department of Education is to provide leadership, constrained regulation and certain services to encourage the local boards to meet the current and continuing educational needs of the children, youth and adults of the State comprehensively, effectively and efficiently, as determined by the goals set by the State "community" in a process which allows representative voices, and as permitted by policies set by the State Board of Education . . .

The mission of the Maryland State Department of Education is to support and serve the Maryland local school systems in meeting the current and continuing educational needs of the children, youth and adults of the State comprehensively, effectively and efficiently.

As you can see, by encouraging local involvement in decision-making, you must be prepared to work at compromise and reconciliation of differences. Yet, we feel such broad-based participation is vital to the successful implementation of our plans.

A more profound example relates to the reactions to our tentative formulations of continuing objectives[2] and specific objectives.[3]

Below are listed two examples of the tentative continuing objectives, and several examples of specific objectives under each.

2.1 By 1977, 90% of all students completing kindergarten will be ready for formal school activities as measured by appropriate readiness tests.

2.2 By 1977, 85% of all 12 year old students will be able to use the communication skill of reading as determined by appropriate criterion-referenced tests.

2.3 By 1977, 85% of all 15 year old students will be able to use the communication skill of reading as determined by appropriate criterion-referenced tests.

2.4 By 1977, 85% of all students completing their secondary school program will be able to use the communication skill of reading as determined by appropriate criterion-referenced tests.

2.5 By 1977, 85% of all 12 year old students will demonstrate computational skills as determined by appropriate criterion-referenced tests . . .

* * *

3.1 By 1977, 85% of all 12 year old students will demonstrate a knowledge of math as measured by appropriate criterion-referenced tests.

3.2 By 1977, 85% of all 12 year old students will demonstrate a knowledge of science as measured by appropriate criterion-referenced tests.

3.3 By 1977, 85% of all 12 year old students will demonstrate a knowledge of social studies as measured by appropriate criterion-referenced tests.

[2]Continuing objective: a description, in general terms, of an ultimate or long-range *result* toward which progress is required.

[3]Specific objective: a description, in precise terms, of an intermediate or short-range *result* which is required, and when, as evidence of progress toward achievement of the ultimate.

Each LEA superintendent was asked to comment on the substance of the objectives and to rate, on a scale of one to five, the priorities of each objective for his school district.

The diversity of reaction to these tentative objectives was very great, ranging from virtually total support to extreme skepticism.

We are sure that we will be hearing more about this activity and look forward to learning more about what is happening so that we can give greater consideration at the local level. We look forward to working with you in your future efforts in this area . . .

I am deeply distressed that our profession would develop a set of continuing and specific objectives which were so glaringly deficient in the areas of attitudes and values. In their obsession for quantification and behavioral objectives they have all but ignored such items as have traditionally appeared in our statements of objectives as (1) the development of a personal code of ethics related to acceptable group codes; (2) development of willingness to accept the consequences of beliefs and actions; (3) an awareness of ethical values in making decisions; (4) the nurturing of a commitment to the responsibilities of citizenship in a democracy; (5) respect for the worth and accomplishment of others. We have serious concerns about the validity of the product which result from the gathering of information by this method . . .

. . . we are favorably impressed with the first product of the State Department plan. We do feel that dialogue among representatives of local school systems and the State Department will be helpful in moving the effort forward in ways which will best support our mutual goals . . .

Systems planning with pre-determined end results is fine for a manipulative inanimate object on a production line but impractical for education, as evidenced by the questions listed here . . .

After much discussion we feel that it is impossible, if not impractical, to try to determine the percentage required in the specific objectives . . .

. . . the establishment of this (planning) capability in the MSDE is commendable and we want to do all that we can to support this effort. Additionally, we felt that the use of the AMA in the preliminary planning was a wise step to take in that it brings yet another dimension to all of our thinking . . .

. . . people in the operating level have not been included in this planning. Superintendents, secondary school principals, teachers, parents—somehow must be included in this process . . .

. . . a concern about this form is its tendency to seem to promote the traditional subject matter centered school as the thing we must learn to tabulate if we are to evaluate successfully.

The reaction to our strategy is mixed, but the important thing to keep in mind is that now the MSDE has established a dialogue with LEA's relative to plan-

ning. The specific form the objectives take is not as important as the fact that their form is being determined cooperatively with LEA's.

By having each district superintendent determine the priority of each objective for his school district, we were able to come up with three state-level priorities:

1. "Human relations"—(civil rights, etc.);
2. Early childhood education; and
3. Reading improvement.

Parallel to the development of the student-based objectives, we have been developing "function objectives."[4] These objectives describe things the MSDE has to do to help Maryland schools accomplish student objectives. From these objectives, we were able to define three general needs that the MSDE must begin fulfilling. Generally, these include improving in-house competency in planning; utilizing techniques for broader involvement in planning; and establishing a closer working relationship between the MSDE and the State Legislature.

In a sense, the work of developing student and management objectives is just beginning. We feel, however, that much has been accomplished by getting the *process* set up.

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[4]These are different from student objectives in the following way. Student objectives define student-oriented end results, toward which the Maryland system of education will work. The management function objectives define results which facilitate or contribute to the achievement.

THE MICHIGAN EXPERIENCE: DEVELOPING A NEW ROLE FOR THE STATE EDUCATION AGENCY

C. Philip Kearny
Michigan Department of Education

A Brief Overview of the New Thrust

In response to changing demands and under the able leadership and persistent goading of our State Superintendent, we in Michigan are currently undertaking the development and implementation of a major new thrust for the Department in the delivery of educational services. This new thrust is designed around a process or a model having six basic elements or steps and is aimed at achieving genuine educational reform and, thereby, improved education for all children, youth, and adults in Michigan. Very briefly, the six basic elements or steps in the process are:

1. The Identification of Common Goals
2. The Development of Performance Objectives
3. The Assessment of Needs
4. The Analysis of Delivery Systems
5. Evaluation of Programs
6. Recommendations for Improvement

We view this six-step process as being applicable to the entire state educational system, as well as to the several sub-systems within the state system. We believe it can serve as a guide for the overall activities of the Department, for the activities of each of the major service areas within the Department, for the activities of the intermediate districts, for the activities of the local school districts, for activities within a school building, and—for that matter—for activities planned around the individual child.

While the elements are not in themselves novel and, whether consciously or intuitively, generally make up the problem-solving activities in which teachers, administrators, and educators engage, the commitment of a state's entire educational system to such a program of coordinated improvement is new. However, we well realize that the assumption of responsibility by individuals at all levels of the educational system must accompany this commitment if the program is to be carried forward.

Also new is the understanding that this program will continue to guide the efforts of Michigan education in the years ahead. It is not a program which has a beginning and an end. Rather, it provides direction for the continuing improvement of the educational system. In addition, the steps in the process call for continual recycling.

Now that I have described the process in very broad and general terms, let me further define and discuss each of the six basic elements or steps in the model and review the general activities underway in developing and implementing each of these steps.

Step 1: The Identification of Common Goals

In step one, our aim is to delineate a common set of purposes toward which all public schools in Michigan should be working. I would remind you—as we have reminded local educators and citizens throughout Michigan—that *to postulate a set of common goals is not to deny the existence—and desirability—of additional goals and purposes that may be unique to a given district, a given school, a given class, or a given pupil.* Rather it is to assert that there is a commonality of educational purposes throughout the schools of Michigan. Everywhere in the state, schools are teaching children to read, to write effectively, to add, subtract, multiply, and divide.

We proposed—and indeed found out—that the common aims of Michigan's public schools could be identified and that consensus could be reached among educators and lay citizens as to what these common aims are or should be. Here we have been successful. We have ready for final adoption by the State Board of Education a statement of the common goals of Mighi-

can education, entitled appropriately *The Common Goals of Michigan: Tentative.*

Twenty-six public meetings were held throughout the state to elicit the opinions and concerns of local educators and lay citizens regarding a tentative version of the common goals. The State Board currently is reviewing these opinions and concerns, revising the tentative common goals accordingly, and in the immediate future will adopt the revised goals as State Board policy. It is believed that these goals will serve as statements of broad direction and general purpose for Michigan's educational system.

Step 2: The Development of Performance Objectives

Statements of broad purpose and general direction --goals of education--tend to become useless and end up gathering dust on library shelves unless they are translated into measurable objectives. The question, "What is it that schools should do?" needs to be asked and answered not only in general terms, but also—and perhaps most importantly—in very specific terms. This, of course, is the purpose of step two.

We have underway an effort aimed at developing criteria to measure the degree to which specific objectives within the goal areas are being met.

Here too, I think we have achieved some things and begun to translate theory into practice. First, to make the problem manageable, staff identified and the State Board adopted seven priority instructional areas drawn from and based on the common goals. These priority areas include: (1) communication skills, (2) mathematics, (3) social science, (4) science, (5) fine arts, (6) health and physical education, and (7) occupational skills. It is in these seven goal areas that we have undertaken to develop statements of objectives by grade level—initially for grade kindergarten through six. This work is being done with the assistance of and in conjunction with local school personnel. We have developed, at the present time, a draft document of some considerable size which presents common program objectives for grades kindergarten through six in the priority instructional areas.

Concurrently, the State Board has moved to create thirteen commissions on objectives. The task of these commissions will be to review the statements of objectives prepared by staff, make appropriate modifications, and submit their recommendations to the Council on Elementary and Secondary Education—a broadly representative and "blue ribbon" body, advisory to the State Board. Following a review and recommendations by the Council, it is anticipated that the State Board would adopt the statements of objectives. We see the final document as a comprehensive listing of program objectives which will represent statements of minimum expectations for most children as they complete each of the first seven levels of schooling.

Step 3: Assessment of Needs

The third element in the Department's six-step program calls for an assessment of needs. It is in this area that we perhaps have made the most progress—and perhaps have achieved the most notoriety—through the full-scale implementation of a statewide assessment program at grades four and seven in the basic skills of reading, writing, and mathematics.

The beginning step in this part of the program was taken in 1969-70 and over 300,000 fourth and seventh grade pupils in the state's public schools participated in Michigan's first statewide assessment effort. We now are completing the second year of the program and—again—have acquired considerable data on the fourth and seventh grade pupils and their schools.

The Assessment Program gathers and reports three basic kinds of information descriptive of the educational system: (1) student's background characteristics; (2) school and school district characteristics and resources; and (3) student and school performance.

In the first year of its operation, the Michigan Education Assessment Program undertook to gather student performance information on fourth and seventh grade students in four areas of academic skill—vocabulary, reading, mechanics of written English, and mathematics. However, no attempt was made in 1969-70 to identify individual instances of extreme educational need among students.

In its second year, the Michigan Educational Assessment Program again assessed students' performance in the basic skills with the important difference that the instruments used were altered so that results would be reliable and valid for individual students rather than, as in the previous year, reliable and valid only for groups of students. With this change, the results of the 1970-71 Michigan Educational Assessment Program also could be used to identify individual students whose needs in the basic skills require further investigation.

By combining the data on individual students, information is created which provides measures of average educational need for each school and for each district in the state. By combining the scores of all students in Michigan, a measure is created of the educational need of all students in the state. In this way, the Michigan Educational Assessment Program provides measures of educational need at four levels: (1) individual student, (2) school, (3) district, and (4) state.

In general, we see the assessment effort serving two basic purposes at the state level; (1) it can provide information to help in making decisions regarding the allocation or distribution of resources; and (2) hopefully it can provide additional information to help in making decisions regarding the structuring or setting up of major educational programs. At the present time, one specific use of the information at the state level is the identification of students' needs for the purposes of allocating compensatory education funds.

The role of the Michigan Educational Assessment Program in local applications of the Board's six-point program is to provide basic information which can guide local officials as they determine, for themselves, the areas of student need and system operation which require intensive examination.

Step 4: Analysis of Delivery Systems

The fourth element, delivery system analysis, investigates the ways the system, at all levels of educational instruction and governance, uses its human and financial resources throughout the entire range of its programs to respond to student needs. In this step we are concerned with analyzing the "mix" of buildings, books, materials, people, methods, and other resources that go to make up identifiably programs and projects. What are the essential components of the system, or systems, we have implemented to deliver educational services to children and youth? We intend to develop the capability within our own staff—as well as the staffs of intermediate and local school districts—to accurately identify and describe the essential variables that go to make up any educational program or system for delivering educational services.

Our current efforts in this area center around developing a new role for what we used to call curriculum consultants—merging them with our consultant staff in the areas of school district organization, transportation, school lunch, and pupil personnel services, and thus building a team of instructional specialists who hopefully will become skilled in analyzing the several diverse components that go to make up any instructional program.

Step 5: Evaluation

Closely allied with steps three and four, is step five —evaluation. The Department has taken steps to acquire and develop staff with particular skills and expertise in this area. Hopefully evaluation of programs in Michigan education will become more than the useless "exercise" which—according to Egon Guba—the conventional schoolman defines as: "Something required from on high that takes time and pain to produce but which has very little significance for action."

Step 6: Recommendations for Improvement

The sixth element in the Board's program, proposing recommendations, draws on all five of the previous elements and is intended to provide specific answers to the question: "How can Michigan's educational system be altered so that it is truly responsive to the needs of all those it serves?"

The program is radically altering the role of the agency. And it has created great consternation among many local school people in Michigan. However, there are local districts in Michigan moving in the same direction. One of these is Bloomfield Hills, a suburban district in the Metropolitan Detroit area. Let me now ask Dr. Thorin, the Superintendent of Bloomfield Hills, to describe briefly their reaction to this new state role and the steps they have taken and are taking along these same lines.

THE MICHIGAN EXPERIENCE: THE BLOOMFIELD HILLS DESIGN FOR EDUCATIONAL STEWARDSHIP

Dr. Fred D. Thorin, *Superintendent*
Dr. Robert Boston, *Assistant Superintendent*
Bloomfield Hills Schools, Michigan

As Dr. Kearny's paper indicated, last year every school district in the State of Michigan received a copy of the *Common Goals of Michigan Education*, a document prepared by a Task Force appointed by our State Superintendent of Public Instruction. Each district was requested to review the proposed goals and to suggest additions, deletions, or revisions at one of the hearings scheduled throughout the state. Recognizing that, to be effective, the thrust of our operation must be in concert with the larger goals as established by both our state and national educational authorities, I, as Superintendent, appointed a Superintendent's Goals Committee, with the Assistant Superintendent for Instruction serving as chairman. The thrity-five committee members included elementary principals, secondary principals, curriculum consultants, secondary teachers, elementary teachers, secondary students, and parents. This Goals Committee responded in detail to the *Common Goals of Michigan Education*, indicating additions, deletions, and revisions necessary to make the State goals operational in the Bloomfield Hills School District. Since each committee member had assumed responsibility for keeping his particular staff, student body, or segment of the community informed of the committee's progress and for obtaining feedback from them, the committee's efforts had a broad base of support by the time they were presented to the State Board of Education at a special hearing.

Present plans call for an expansion of the Goals Committee to continue work on common goals for Bloomfield Hills education and to use these as the basis for specifying district objectives which will, in turn, provide the basis for specifying building objectives, classroom objectives, and student learning objectives. Our culminating activity will be a series of public hearings so that any interested person in the district will have an opportunity to be heard before the objectives are finalized.

As we define our objectives, we're looking at two major types. In the first category is goal-related objectives. These objectives describe what we're trying to accomplish in relation to each of our stated goals. We have a second category of objectives, namely, decision-making objectives. Such objectives will establish criteria for determining when we've attained an acceptable level of success in reaching our goal-related objectives and when we need to alter or delete existing programs because of their failure to fulfill the stated objectives.

Recognizing that an assessment of our present status was necessary for effective instructional planning, I began gathering data from the various segments of the school community, including the Board of Education, administrative and instructional staffs, students, and other community members. Each indicated areas of strength as well as areas of concern. One might legitimately ask what's to be done with all of this data. The data collected will be reviewed and will serve as the basis for establishing instructional priorities at both the district and the building levels. Each building principal will work with his staff to define building objectives which speak to the needs evidenced in his school. He'll then develop specific instructional improvement projects which lead to the attainment of his building objectives.

Finally, another valuable outgrowth of our work with the *Common Goals of Michigan Education* has been the establishment of a districtwide Curriculum Research Council. This Council will solicit proposals from anyone in the district who wishes to do research

which will lead to the attainment of this objective and it will coordinate and disseminate the results of such efforts. Once again, any proposal submitted will have measurable and observable performance objectives, criteria by which it can be evaluated, and evidence of cost-effectiveness. It is hoped that the Council's membership of parents, students, teachers, and administrators will, again, demonstrate the effectiveness of team management while leading to an improved educational program for boys and girls.

Dr. Porter, the State Superintendent, has indicated that he feels that citizens and educators must be involved in deciding how education at all levels should be organized and administered in order to most effectively deliver educational services to children and youth. I feel that our team management approach in Bloomfield Hills is a positive step in this direction.

Our goal is to report actual educational accomplishments and to compare them to original objectives—the cost-effectiveness of our programs. We know that when performance is measured and reported, improved performance is generally stimulated, and we're hoping, as part of this project, to expand the present student and personnel record systems to include the addition of descriptive, evaluative data which will, among other things:

- Define the teaching style of teachers
- Identify the learning patterns of students
- Identify the instructional methods and materials used for each course
- Provide student achievement data.

It is expected that with this wealth of empirical data it will be possible to eventually match teachers with a particular "cognitive" teaching style/instructional methods to those students who will respond most effectively, as demonstrated by their past learning behavior.

For each objective we've developed pre-tests so that we can determine what our students already know prior to initiating instruction. The specified objectives also enable us to select appropriate materials which fulfill them and which fit the unique needs of each child. To this end we've coded all of the commercial materials available in our district to the appropriate performance objectives. Criterion-referenced tests for each objective help us determine whether or not our students have been successful in reaching the prescribed obectives.

In closing I'd like to quote Leon Lessinger from his book *Every Kid A Winner*:

We have virtually no measurement of the results that our vast enterprise yields . . . . In order to justify its dominant claim on our public education dollar, this enterprise must begin to account for its spending not only in terms of fiscal honesty, as it has long done, but also in terms of proven educational results (pages 3, 11, 14).

In Bloomfield Hills we're attempting to do just that!

STATE EDUCATION AGENCY ROLE IN THE MANAGEMENT OF TEACHER EDUCATION AND CERTIFICATION

Dr. Wendell Allen
Washington State Department of Education

It is important to note the trend toward centralism in state government, the efforts to develop new relationships between the federal government and state governments, the movement toward larger units of local government and in education the efforts to provide for operational decentralization. These trends in governmental organization and policies appear to be in response to the growing complexity of our society and the seriousness of its problems. I think, too, that they reflect a widespread but far from unanimous realization of the need to develop new ways of dealing with change.

I believe that our efforts to influence the direction of change and to deal with change force us inexorably into a systematic and participatory planning framework. I suggest that the processes which are inherent in logical participative planning will enhance the role of government. Participatory planning will shift the emphasis of government from regulating and monitoring to initiating, developing, and assisting. This means, I think, that a major role of government in the future will be to stimulate and facilitate collaborative planning among institutions and agencies. Those institutions and agencies will carry the prime responsibility and major role in meeting particular goals of our society. Government will assist and also serve as a catalyst as the agencies develop viable and constructive processes for collaboration and change.

I would like to illustrate this kind of governmental leadership by referring to processes employed in establishing new teacher education standards in the State of Washington. We elected a participatory framework at the time we began our initial discussions and planning for new standards. This approach was based on our belief that the relationship of state government to the teacher education responsibilities of colleges should be one which helps colleges change from closed to open systems in their approaches to *students, school organizations, professional associations* and *communities*. The college should participate with students and these other agencies as preparation programs are developed and implemented.

In developing the new standards we attempted to "practice what we preached." Representatives of the various groups just mentioned served on each of our working committees. The several drafts and revisions of the standards were distributed widely and reactions were sought from all.

The decision as to which agencies participate in teacher preparation has to be made on the basis of where the concern and competence lie and which agencies have vested interests in the preparation and performance of professionals. Washington's decision has been that the responsible teacher education agencies should be colleges, professional associations (both general and specialized) and school organizations. Accordingly, the recently adopted 1971 guidelines and standards provide for colleges/universities, professional associations and school organizations to form consortia to plan and carry on preparation programs. Each of the three agencies in a consortium is to have an equal voice in overall planning, policy formation, assignment of responsibilities, and evaluation of programs.

Management of a statewide attempt to develop process standards in teacher education places the state in a new relationship to colleges and to other agencies which are expected to perform responsible roles in the preparation of teachers. I can assure you the task of developing process standards for teacher education is not easy for many reasons: (1) It requires a tremen-

dous commitment from institutions and agencies. (2) Many persons find process standards disconcerting because they do not deal specifically with content and thus do not stipulate content minimums. In addition, the cultural norms of our institutions have conditioned us for so long to content standards. (3) It is difficult for each agency to adjust to new roles which require that they share responsibility for developing role definitions, determining performance objectives, planning appropriate learning experiences, etc. The three agencies are not accustomed to collaborative roles in these endeavors. (4) Nor are state education agency personnel at ease or skillful in the new role of leadership and assistance in coordination of the effort which they must assume. The role calls upon the State to ensure that planning is open and above board, is inclusive of those who are involved, is based upon some clearly agreed-upon goals and objectives, is systematic, and is personal and humane.

These elements occur through the processes and procedures actually used by organizations and agencies as they prepare personnel, not by what they say they can do or are planning to do. The state in monitoring process standards needs to be interested in how preparation agencies are "doing" rather than in what they have done or will do. Development of these approaches—performing proficiently in these new roles—is a difficult process for most of us.

The standards which evolved from four years of effort, collaboration, and participation on the part of the State and the several agencies mentioned, proceed naturally from developments in teacher education over the past twenty-five years and emphasize the following principles:

a. preparation should be related to performance and performance related to the objectives of the professional and his clients;
b. preparation should be individualized and give recognition to personal style;
c. Preparation programs should be planned and developed in a participatory manner by those affected; and
d. preparation is a career-long, continuing process.

These process standards or guidelines establish a framework whereby a consortium of agencies determines (1) the objectives of preparation, (2) competencies needed in subject matter specialities, pedagogy, and personal characteristics, and (3) entry and exit-level competencies for each stage of preparation. It s essential that preparation programs include and address competencies in subject matter knowledge as well as in the art and science of teaching, and in such human dimensions as interpersonal communication. The professional must be competent in each of these areas. He is basically a decision-maker and decisions for improving learning must be based upon the data generated from the interplay among these several areas of competence.

It may be helpful to note the criteria established by the State Board of Education for approval of programs developed by consortia of the three agencies:

The consortium shall:

a. File with the Superintendent of Public Instruction a letter of intent to form a consortium for preparation.
b. Specify the arrangements and processes it will use to:
   1. formulate policy;
   2. develop program objectives, elements, and characteristics;
   3. gain input and involvement of students and citizens in model development;
   4. implement the program;
   5. administer the program, including monitoring candidate progress, reporting and recommending certification, recommending certificate endorsements, etc.;
   6. conduct annual program review and evaluation.

This approach to standards of preparation is to regard standards as contextual and dynamic, based upon role determination and performance objectives, as agreed upon by the three collaborating agencies. These criteria for program approval do not suggest that there should be a state philosophy of teacher education nor that a particular view of learning should be imposed upon all agencies. The State Board of Education encourages efforts to strive continuously for what the agencies believe are optimum programs and assumes that the programs which result will be varied and unique to different agencies.

The teacher certificate authorizes service in the primary role of teaching; the administrator certificate authorizes service in the primary role of general school administration, program administration and/or supervision; and the educational staff associate certificate authorizes service in roles of specialized assistance to the learner, the teacher, the administrator, and/or the educational program.

Three levels of certificates are provided for each certificate type. The *preparatory* certificate authorizes experiences in school or school-related settings designed to develop competence at the "initial" level of certification. This certificate is valid for one year and is renewable. The *initial* certificate authorizes school service in a particular role and allows the holder to assume independent responsibility for working with children, youth and adults. This certificate is valid for three years and is renewable once. The *continuing* certificate authorizes school service on a career basis and assumes continued professional development. The continuing certificate is valid as long as the holder continues in service. It is subject to renewal only if the holder leaves educational service for a period in excess of four years.

Initial and continuing certificates will be endorsed to indicate grade level(s), content area(s), and/or

TYPES OF CERTIFICATES	TEACHER	ADMINISTRATOR	EDUCATIONAL STAFF ASSOCIATE
LEVELS OF CERTIFICATES	CONTINUING	CONTINUING	CONTINUING
	INITIAL	INITIAL	INITIAL
	PREPARATORY	PREPARATORY	PREPARATORY

FIGURE 1. Types and levels of certificates.

specialization(s) for which the professional is or has been prepared.

You are aware by now, I'm sure, of my view that the states should assume a role of leadership in teacher education. Today I have spoken about the beginnings of an attempt in the State of Washington to develop state process standards for the preparation and certification of school professional personnel—our leadership role in teacher education.

THE ROLE OF THE STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION IN MANAGING TEACHER EDUCATION AND CERTIFICATION

William Cecil Golden
Associate Commissioner
Florida State Department of Education

What is Performance-Based Teacher Certification? Underlying teacher certification is the assumption that it is possible to devise a bureaucratic process which will distinguish those persons who are qualified to perform as teachers in public schools from those persons who are probably not qualified. As presently constituted, that bureaucratic process is carried out by reviewing transcripts to verify that college courses with certain specified titles have been completed and that appropriate degrees have been awarded.

The "performance-based" part of the concept signifies that the collection of evidence verifying the candidate's ability to perform as a teacher is a central function in the bureaucratic process of teacher certification. The addition of "performance-based" as a qualifier to "teacher certification" specifies the kind of evidence which is most appropriate for identifying those persons who should be considered qualified to perform as teachers in public schools. Such evidence would relate directly to teaching performance.

It is apparent that no clear dichotomy exists between "performance-based teacher certification" and "non-performance-based teacher certification." It is more appropriate to perceive a continuum with demonstrated teaching performance at one end and characteristics which can be identified outside the teaching situation (e.g., intelligence test scores, personality traits, knowledge of subject matter) at the other. A teacher certification process which might be located at the center of the continuum would rely equally on performance factors and non-performance factors. Teacher certification processes located at either end of the continuum would rely equally on performance factors and non-performance factors. Teacher certification processes located at either end of the continuum would rely on performance factors exclusively or on non-performance factors exclusively. The Florida Department of Education has taken the position that teacher certification practices should move decisively toward the performance-based end of the continuum.

How is Florida Approaching Performance-Based Teacher Certification? In discussions regarding performance-based teacher certification, there is often confusion regarding state administration of a performance-based teacher certification program. It is assumed by many that the state should adopt a comprehensive set of competencies which each teaching candidate must demonstrate. When these competencies are demonstrated, the candidate receives a teaching certificate.

This approach poses two problems. First, it would be very difficult for policy makers to adopt a comprehensive set of competencies which would enjoy wide acceptance. A closer look at the controversy associated with present certification standards will confirm the likelihood of even greater controversy over competency specification. Present certification standards merely specify broad topics which should be covered in a teacher preparation program. Performance-based teacher certification implies more specific requirements more stringently administered.

There is, of course, a fundamental difference between performance requirements and present requirements. Performance requirements do not specify the setting or conditions under which a specific competency must be learned. Instead, they merely specify the competency. Nevertheless, any attempt by a state to establish uniform competency requirements is likely to encounter a great deal of resistance. This is particularly true if the competency requirements are based on

professional judgment rather than on research which shows that those requirements relate to pupil learning. Needless to say, very little such research is available and competency requirements will undoubtedly be based on professional judgment.

A second major problem rests with complications in the administration of competency examinations by the state. The state is, of course, experienced at administering competency examinations to persons trained for such positions as secretaries or cosmetologists. In such cases, actual performance examinations are administered. However, in more complex professional fields such as law or medicine, state examinations tend to concentrate on aspects of knowledge which can be measured with paper and pencil tests. The ability to perform is assumed by virtue of the professional training which the candidate has completed.

The approach to performance-based teacher certification which has been accepted in Florida is designed to avoid the preceding two problems. The Florida approach is a modification of the program approval approach which has been in effect for many years. With the program approval approach, a teacher education institution proposes a program and submits it to the Department of Education for approval. When the program is approved, all candidates who successfully complete the program are granted a certificate.

In adapting the program approval approach to performance-based teacher certification, it is necessary to adopt state program approval standards which require the establishment of performance criteria within individual programs. These requirements would replace state requirements which specify courses. Thus, the administration of performance examinations for teaching candidates would become an integral part of teacher preparation programs. Such examinations would not be administered independently by the state.

Assigning the responsibility for performance assessment to teacher preparation institutions or agencies does not completely alleviate the problem of state performance standards. The extent to which specific competencies are required in all programs remains a matter of state discretion. In Florida, the present posture is to require institutions to engage in a systematic procedure for determining the standards. This procedure involves literature review, review of other programs, and consultation with knowledgeable professionals (including practitioners). At the same time, the state is sponsoring research efforts to identify teaching competencies which relate to pupil learning. When results of state sponsored research or other research show that certain competencies contribute to pupil learning, these competencies will become a part of state program approval standards.

Administratively, the procedure followed by the state certification office in issuing teaching certificates will be no different for performance-based teacher certification than it is presently. It is anticipated that for the next several years parallel teacher certification practices will be maintained. That is, a candidate may qualify for teacher certification either by completing a traditional teacher education program or by completing a performance-based program. Thus, when the certification office receives an application from a candidate, a certification analyst will either (a) review the transcript to see if the candidate has completed an approved program, or (b) conduct a course-by-course analysis to see that he has completed the proper courses. Obviously, an application from a candidate who completed an approved program requires less time to analyze. Thus, the implementation of performance-based teacher certification will gradually reduce the work load of the state certification office.

It is the intent of the state eventually to require all teachers to master only those competencies which have been demonstrated by research to relate to pupil learning. Other competencies which are selected on the basis of professional judgment will vary from program to program. Even when programs are aiming at the same competencies, there will be no requirement that programs must follow the same instructional procedures, assign the same amount of time to a given portion of the program, or deploy the same complement of resources. Each institution or agency conducting a teacher education program will be encouraged to find the most effective ways to use its resources in accomplishing its objectives.

Conditions Necessary for Implementing Performance-Based Teacher Certification.

1. An appropriate legal framework of statutes, regulations, and administrative policies must be established. These include state statutes, regulations of the State Board of Education, policies of the state education agency, policies of local school boards, policies of governing boards for higher institutions, and operational policies adopted by administrative officials in schools and higher institutions. Without an appropriate legal framework performance-based teacher certification is unlikely, if not impossible.

2. Competencies must be specified. The competencies which are to be demonstrated through performance must be specified, although the responsibility for specification need not be at the state level. The specification may take place at the program or institutional level, with the state accepting the specification. In Florida, the state is assisting institutions and local school districts by compiling a catalog of competencies from which a selection may be made. However, the competencies specified within programs need not include all competencies specified in the catalog and need not be restricted to those specified in the catalog.

3. Programs which can successfully train candidates to master the competencies must be established. While a performance-based teacher certification program is theoretically possible in the absence of performance-

based teacher education programs, it is highly unlikely that this will occur. If the state is to expect teachers to master given competencies, programs must be available which provide training in those competencies.

4. Systems for monitoring and managing the mastery of competencies must be implemented. It is necessary for agencies operating preservice and inservice teacher education programs to implement new mechanisms for keeping records of competencies which have been mastered by individual candidates. Also, it is necessary for teacher preparation agencies to receive feedback regarding the relevance of the competencies which their graduates are mastering.

Developmental efforts in all of these areas have been initiated in Florida.

Compiling a Catalog of Teaching Competencies. The first element in the program is the compiling of a catalog of teaching competencies. This catalog will serve as a reference for organizing teacher training materials, for analyzing teacher training programs, and for identifying competencies for validation through research projects. In assembling the catalog, major areas of teacher competency will be identified. Each of these areas will be broken down into its fundamental areas of knowledge or skills. Each of these knowledge or skill areas will be divided into its logical sub-areas. In some cases, the sub-areas will be sub-divided further. Finally, specific objectives will be identified for each of the sub-areas. These will be arranged in a catalog which will include, as nearly as practicable, all objectives which might be sought in any teacher preparation program. However, it should be recognized that no single program will be expected to include all of these objectives.

As the catalog is constructed, evaluation techniques will be identified or developed which correspond with the specific objectives included in the catalog. The evaluation techniques will be criterion-referenced. With these techniques, it will be possible to determine whether a teacher does or does not possess the specified competency. This will open up possibilities for individual tailoring of training programs. It will also allow for the conducting of research which measures the effects of identified competencies.

Research. The second element in the program consists of a series of related research projects. The research projects are designed to show the relationship between teaching competencies and pupil achievement. The basic impetus for the research program was the consideration of a policy which would provide that by 1974 teacher certification requirements would be based only on research evidence showing the relationship between specified teacher characteristics or behaviors and pupil achievement. It should be recognized that the intent of this recommendation was to remove constraints from teacher training institutions, not to impose new restrictions. When research evidence is lacking the state is urged to leave decisions regarding desirable competencies to the professional educators who operate teacher training programs or those who recommend teachers for employment.

Research projects will deal only with teaching competencies which can be measured with assessment instruments that correspond with teaching competencies included in the catalog described above. The research projects will be designed to identify the relationship between those competencies and pupil learning. Pupil learning will be measured with criterion-referenced assessment instruments such as those being developed in other educational research and development projects currently being sponsored by the Florida Department of Education.

Assembling Training Materials. The third element in the program is the assembly of training materials. In order for the training of educational personnel to improve significantly, it will be necessary to obtain or develop carefully designed and validated training materials. These would include materials for instruction in the theoretical aspects of teaching and supervision (often called protocol materials) and materials for training in specific teaching, planning, or supervisory skills. Materials should be designed to improve the efficiency of training and to reduce training costs where practicable. A major effort should be made to identify materials which are already available. This will allow earlier use and will reduce development costs. However, materials obtained from outside sources should be evaluated very carefully, using criteria similar to those which are adopted for evaluating locally developed materials. In general, developmental funds should be concentrated on materials which can be used widely. This is necessary to justify the high costs involved in careful development.

Staff Development for Teacher Trainers. The final element in the program is the establishment of a statewide program for training teacher trainers. The implementation of anticipated changes in teacher education will require extensive staff development opportunities for most instructional personnel serving in teacher education programs in Florida. This includes faculty members in colleges and universities, as well as persons instructing in inservice education programs conducted by local school districts.

Most teacher education instructors have been taught using (and taught to use) a model for instruction which relies on the instructor to present the information, with reinforcement from texts or reference materials which present the same information. The problem of applying the information is mainly the responsibility of the student. For this model of instruction, the major investment of resources has been in instructional personnel, with the investment in instructional materials negligible when compared with faculty salaries.

What is the Relationship Between Preservice and Inservice Teacher Education in the Florida Approach? The Florida Department of Education believes that preservice teacher education should provide one with the knowledge, skills and attitudes essential to begin teaching and that specific teacher education based on evaluation and feedback should continue throughout his teaching career.

In order to insure statewide inservice teacher education, the Commissioner recommended and the Legislature enacted legislation which reads as follows:

Each district school board shall develop a comprehensive program of staff development. Such program shall include all services provided under the direction of the board and shall make adequate provisions for the proper funding of such program.

A second statutory requirement is that inservice staff development shall be given the highest priority in the expenditure of state funds for educational improvement. Educational improvement funds is a noncategorical allocation equal to $1750 for each classroom unit in the district.

The same principles of the "program approval approach" used for state approval of college and university preservice teacher education programs is used for state review and approval of school district inservice teacher education programs.

The Florida State Department of Education believes that the employment practice of local school boards is the most powerful force available for influencing preservice teacher education programs offered by colleges and universities. College and university programs survive only when their graduates get jobs. When local school boards recognize that 75 to 85 per cent of their budget is used to purchase teaching skills and it is the utilization of these skills which gives that school or community the capability to accomplish its objectives new and improved policies and practices for the employment, assignment and evaluation of educational personnel will be instituted. This is the single most powerful force available for improving both teacher education and teacher performance.

Inservice teacher education in Florida is defined as a program of systematic activities promoted or directed by the school district and is designed to increase the competencies needed by instructional personnel in the performance of their assigned duties or duties to be assigned as determined by the administration. The term "competencies" is defined as "the skills and knowledge which enable a teacher to carry out instructional tasks with maximum effectiveness."

For each inservice training component there must be a statement of objectives, a summary statement describing the procedures to accomplish the objectives, and the procedure for evaluating the degree to which the objectives have been achieved.

The school district master plan must make provisions for all instructional personnel to participate in the following three types of staff development activities within a five-year period.

a. At least one intensive or in depth study in *basic teaching skills* (techniques) and knowledge which are considered essential for effective teaching. This type of staff development component will require specific objectives (stated in behavioral terms when possible) and evaluative procedures. School districts are encouraged to develop or obtain systematic performance devices to measure teachers' mastery of basic teaching skills. Individual measuring devices should be used for each specific skill. When such measuring devices are employed, it is permissible to substitute components in categories b and c (below) for teachers who have performend successfully on these measures of performance.

b. At least one intensive or in depth study to *update skills and knowledge in a subject or service area.* This type of staff development component will require specific objectives (stated in behavioral terms when possible) and evaluative procedures. When a component of this type is provided externally and is not controlled locally, specific objectives and evaluative procedures will not be required.

c. Opportunities for *exploratory* activities shall be provided each year for all instructional personnel. These may be open-ended miscellaneous components which are not as easily defined, taught, evaluated, predicted, controlled, etc. Within this category of activities, it is possible to provide inservice education experiences for which behavioral objectives cannot be readily identified and for which evaluation may have to be subjective. The supervision of student teachers and educational travel shall be classified as exploratory components.

The education of teachers is at the nerve center of the whole educational system and if it fails to function there, the system fails.

When we talk about the quality of opportunity for all American children, we are really talking about an equal chance for every child to be taught by a teacher who understands him, takes his limitations and strengths into account, and has command over a body of knowledge relevant to his teaching and to his place in contemporary society.

When we talk about educating the gifted, we are really talking about people who are gifted enough to teach the gifted.

When we talk about educational deficiencies, we are really talking about deficiency in teachers and teaching, if teaching is defined as the means through which those who were taught are enabled to learn.

And when we talk about dedication in education, we are really talking about the commitment of the men and women to a profession which we hold in our

hearts as the greatest profession of them all . . . a profession of which all of us are proud to stand up and say: "I am a teacher."

Unfortunately, teaching does not hold for many of our citizens—nor for all of our teachers—the image of a vocation or a profession to which one openly and proudly commits himself.

But I believe that it should be.

I know that it can be.

Because it is to me. And I know it is to you.

And I think that it's our job—all of us—to work until everyone in education shares that same dedication.

This *Report* was printed on 60 lb. Bookline Antique paper made from recycled waste paper.

The typesetting, art, and layout were done by the Alumni Print Lab, Graduate School of Journalism, Columbia University.

Printing by Monroe Lesser

Photos by David Malman