

1-1-1995

The institutionalization of change in a restructured high school: A case study

Roy L Hoyt
University of Nevada, Las Vegas

Follow this and additional works at: <https://digitalscholarship.unlv.edu/rtds>

Repository Citation

Hoyt, Roy L, "The institutionalization of change in a restructured high school: A case study" (1995). *UNLV Retrospective Theses & Dissertations*. 2997.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.25669/vj3n-wa7n>

This Dissertation is protected by copyright and/or related rights. It has been brought to you by Digital Scholarship@UNLV with permission from the rights-holder(s). You are free to use this Dissertation in any way that is permitted by the copyright and related rights legislation that applies to your use. For other uses you need to obtain permission from the rights-holder(s) directly, unless additional rights are indicated by a Creative Commons license in the record and/or on the work itself.

This Dissertation has been accepted for inclusion in UNLV Retrospective Theses & Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Digital Scholarship@UNLV. For more information, please contact digitalscholarship@unlv.edu.

INFORMATION TO USERS

This manuscript has been reproduced from the microfilm master. UMI films the text directly from the original or copy submitted. Thus, some thesis and dissertation copies are in typewriter face, while others may be from any type of computer printer.

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted. Broken or indistinct print, colored or poor quality illustrations and photographs, print bleedthrough, substandard margins, and improper alignment can adversely affect reproduction.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send UMI a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if unauthorized copyright material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.

Oversize materials (e.g., maps, drawings, charts) are reproduced by sectioning the original, beginning at the upper left-hand corner and continuing from left to right in equal sections with small overlaps. Each original is also photographed in one exposure and is included in reduced form at the back of the book.

Photographs included in the original manuscript have been reproduced xerographically in this copy. Higher quality 6" x 9" black and white photographic prints are available for any photographs or illustrations appearing in this copy for an additional charge. Contact UMI directly to order.

UMI

**A Bell & Howell Information Company
300 North Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor MI 48106-1346 USA
313/761-4700 800/521-0600**

**THE INSTITUTIONALIZATION OF CHANGE
IN A RESTRUCTURED HIGH SCHOOL:
A CASE STUDY**

by

Roy L. Hoyt

**A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of**

Doctor of Education

in

Educational Administration and Higher Education

Department of Educational Leadership

University of Nevada, Las Vegas

May, 1996

UMI Number: 9636881

**Copyright 1996 by
Hoyt, Roy L.**

All rights reserved.

**UMI Microform 9636881
Copyright 1996, by UMI Company. All rights reserved.**

**This microform edition is protected against unauthorized
copying under Title 17, United States Code.**

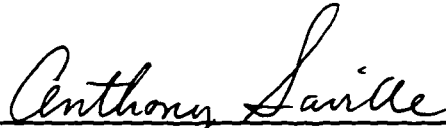
UMI
300 North Zeeb Road
Ann Arbor, MI 48103

**Copyright 1996 Roy L. Hoyt
All Rights Reserved**

•

-

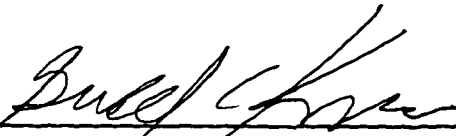
The Dissertation of Roy L. Hoyt for the degree of the Doctor of Education in Educational Administration and Higher Education is approved.



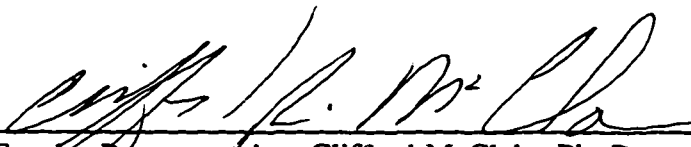
Chairperson, Anthony Saville, Ed. D.



Examining Committee Member, Teresa S. Jordan, Ph. D.



Examining Committee Member, Gerald C. Kops, Ph. D., J.D.



Graduate Faculty Representative, Clifford McClain, Ph. D.



Dean of the Graduate College, Ronald W. Smith, Ph. D.

University of Nevada, Las Vegas
May, 1996

ABSTRACT

This case study described the restructuring process of Dixie High School, one of 10 schools in a restructuring consortium in Utah. The Utah State Office of Education established the consortium in 1990 and supported it by providing seed money and the opportunity to reevaluate state requirements. The study delineated the change process at this school from 1991-93, as it moved from a traditional organizational structure to a site-based management model. This study also examined how the school brought about change to enhance student learning and create a collaborative school culture. In addition, this analysis investigated the changes in roles and relationships of the staff and administration, the necessary events for change, barriers to change, and the degree to which the changes have persisted since the restructuring process started.

Data for the study was acquired by interviewing teachers, administrators, and board members who were involved with the restructuring during the specified time period. Additional data was collected from project documents, personal notes, and other external sources.

The study identified the salient issues, events, and problems that may face other schools undertaking restructuring. Although many of the issues were specific to this school setting, a number of generalizable results also surfaced that other schools could use in their quest for improvement.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1: OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY	1
Introduction	1
The Nine-District Consortium	4
Dixie High School's Role in the Nine District Consortium ...	6
Purpose of the Investigation	7
Research Questions	8
Theoretical Context	9
Research Methodology	10
Definition of Terms	11
Limitations of the Study	12
CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	14
Introduction	14
Organizational Change	15
Organizational Development	28
A Call for Restructuring	33
The Significance of Restructuring	36
The Forces Behind Restructuring	39
Transformation of Roles and Relationships	46
Site-Based Management	54
Summary	58
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	61
Introduction	61
Research Strategy	62
School Context	62
Data Collection	67
Analysis of Data	75
Trustworthiness	77
CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS OF THE STUDY	81
Introduction	81
Critical Events	83
Roles and Relationships	101
Barriers to Change	116

Institutionalization of Change	128
CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS, WORKING HYPOTHESES, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND FURTHER RESEARCH	138
Introductions	138
Summary of the Findings	139
Working Hypotheses	151
Implications and Recommendations for Educational Administration	154
Further Research	158

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to thank the individuals in the Department of Educational Leadership at UNLV. In particular, I would like to thank Dr. Teresa Jordan for her valuable input, and Dr. Gerald Kops for his encouragement to pursue a topic that was of interest to me. Special thanks to my committee chair, Dr. Anthony Saville, for his patience and guidance throughout the whole process. I am grateful to the people in the cohort with whom I shared the camaraderie and collaboration through much of the classwork, for with their support it made this doctoral program a much easier task.

I would especially like to thank the staff and administration at Dixie High School. Without the time of these truly outstanding educators, this study would not have been possible. Also, I am very grateful to David Cullimore and Richard Mildenhall who had the patience to proof a far-from-perfect manuscript.

Lastly, these acknowledgements would not be complete without thanking my family who had to endure this journey with me. I am appreciative to my wife, Jayne Hoyt, for her patience and understanding during the times that I was difficult to live with as this program was progressing.

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Calls for school restructuring have circulated among American public schools for nearly as long as public schools have existed. The goals and purposes of education have periodically been reevaluated and reordered as the needs of society have transformed. In many cases educational change has not come to the forefront of either educational or political agendas until it has been viewed as a national crisis. Politicians, educators, and business leaders have reacted to these crises by delineating the deficiencies of the American educational system (Sizer, 1989; Murphy and Schiller, 1992).

This concern with change has been attributed to a number of factors: criticisms of post World War II progressive education, the efforts of schools to meet the demands of a rapidly changing society, Sputnik, the information explosion, new theoretical insights into the learning process, the civil rights movement, the pressure of community action groups, and expanded federal aid to education (Lewis, 1989). Sizer (1989) argued that in response to these pressures to their own concerns about the problem, school leaders attempted to diagnose the educational ills of schools and

introduced many major educational innovations, supported largely by federal funds. Despite the attempted changes, there has been little to show for the efforts (Gross, Giacquinta, and Bernstein, 1971).

In 1983, the National Commission on Excellence released "A Nation at Risk", which generated heated debate over the crisis in education. Other reports such as "A Nation Prepared" (1986) and "Investing in our Children" (1985) called for fundamental changes in school structure and organization (Timar, 1989). Sarason (1990) said this wave of reform rekindled interest in public school improvement and brought about increased requirements in basic subjects. Schools also attempted to alter their programs to reflect changes in society (Sizer, 1989).

Critics of these state reforms and national reports argued that schools as institutions, not students, teachers or curricula, must be the target of reform (Timar, 1989). Thus, tightened curriculum standards, stricter teacher certification requirements, or an extended school year would have insignificant effects if schools lacked the organizational will and competence to implement them (Timar, 1989). Critics insisted that high quality education is the product of robust organizational cultures (p. 56). When states relied on new mandates and regulations to foster change, schools simply became mired in regulatory swamps (Timar and Kirp, 1987).

Looking over the past 40 years, researchers have identified three major approaches in "school change" literature (Sizer, 89):

- 1) the rational-scientific approach where people are given valid information and then they apply this information.

- 2) the political approach where mandates from the federal and state governments give schools permission to change if certain conditions are met.
- 3) the cultural approach where improvements occur only with changes in values and expectations within a district or school.

The rational-scientific approach of the 1950s-70s proved to be naive, failing to produce change because schools did not or could not use the valid information on improvement to make needed transformations (Newman, 1987). Equally naive, the political approach of the 1980's also achieved little through its "top down" efforts (Tye, 89).

The cultural approach supported the change literature of the 1990s which focused on the school climate movement and on "organic organization". It stressed a set of common principles that aim to reverse the bureaucratic engine responsible for the incoherence and organizational rigidity of public schools (Sizer, 1989). Goodlad (1988) advocated restructuring that encourages greater professional diversification, and provides teachers opportunities to define and administer school policy through school site-based management. It is this site-based management that allowed for giving of greater authority over curriculum, instructional strategies, and budget allocation to the school level (Hawley, 1988).

Restructuring involves changes that many are unwilling or unable to accept. Many school systems started out with iconoclastic ideas for improving the system only to have these far reaching changes rejected for one reason or another. Unclear goals, untrained staff, and the assumption that behavioral changes will follow structural

changes are but a few reasons that restructuring doesn't reach the magnitude of success that educational planners expect. Changing a school is not easy, because it requires collaboration among all the school's constituents, support from district and state policy makers, and systematic articulation among related elementary, middle, and senior high schools (Keefe, 1990).

This case study analyzed the restructuring process in one school. Although changes in this school cannot be fully adopted by other schools, this school's experience can nevertheless provide a valuable framework for schools that are restructuring. Because each school possesses unique strengths and weaknesses, it can be assumed that only those areas applicable to the individual school will be adopted. Goodlad (1984) stated that improvement is essentially a school-by-school process, enlightened by the degree to which those associated with each school and trying to improve it have the data required for building a useful agenda.

The Nine-District Consortium: Restructuring in Utah

State applied technology education leaders and applied technology directors initiated the Nine-District Consortium project in July, 1990. The purpose of the project was to inspire and monitor the efforts of selected high schools to reinvent themselves as flexible, multi-faceted institutions able to prepare students to become contributing citizens in today's applied technology-oriented information age and to empower teachers as true professionals. State educational leaders reasoned that those best equipped to accomplish this task were the people who actually worked in the

schools and understood how they function on a day-to-day basis. State leaders felt that the individual needs of the school could be met more readily if the changes were site-based initiated rather than mandated from the state.

This consortium came into being in response to the following fundamental beliefs (consortium final report, 1993):

- 1) The high school is in a unique position to address the rapidly changing needs of our information age as it fulfills its role to prepare youth to enter the work force, seek further applied technology education and/or training, or to continue studies at a higher education institution.
- 2) Utah's large school-age population and strong work ethic offer enormous economic potential if today's students can find the new-age skills to compete in the world labor market now on the horizon.
- 3) The high school of the past has become out-dated. Utah's economy has expanded from agriculture, transportation, and the military to secure a place of importance in the high-tech manufacturing and service arenas.
- 4) Those who are best qualified and equipped to initiate change in our schools are the people who work in them, understand their problems, and are most likely to know how to solve them.

Based on these assumptions, the 10 high schools were allowed the autonomy to develop and carry out their own innovative programs based upon the special needs of the school.

In 1990 the Utah State Board of Education provided seed money from a \$500,000

legislative appropriation for this purpose and solicited proposals from among Utah's 40 local school districts for participation in the restructuring process. Ten high schools from nine districts were chosen. This group of schools was referred to as the Utah Nine District Consortium. The consortium schools proceeded to pursue their new destinies: 1990-91 was set aside to develop a plan and a vision, 1991-92 to construct a model, and 1992-93 to implement the restructuring strategies.

The Utah Nine-District Consortium was guided by the following goals (p. 32).

1. Expand, reorganize, and reprioritize applied technology and academic curricular programs.
2. Develop up-to-date instructional preparation programs.
3. Develop job placement and follow-up programs.
4. Develop a plan to maximize the utilization of school district and state facilities.
5. Modify and develop outcome and quality indicators.
6. Develop and implement an appropriate financial weighting and allocation formula that is market-driven and emphasizes occupational skills and job placement.

Dixie High School's Role in the Utah Nine-District Consortium

Washington County School District was one of nine school districts selected by the Utah State Office of Education to participate in a pilot study made up of 10 secondary high schools. A high school in the district was given the opportunity

become a participant school in the Nine-District Consortium project. The opportunity to be the pilot school in this project was granted to Dixie High School by the Washington County School Board.

Dixie High School, a rural comprehensive high school, is located in St. George, a community in southwestern Utah. This school consists of approximately 1,000 students in grades 10 through 12, and has 58 staff members. Dixie High School is one of six high schools in the Washington County School District. The student population is made up of mostly white students from middle class families.

The selection of Dixie High School as the participant school was based upon their willingness to examine and change the methods that had been in place in this school for decades. From the inception of the restructuring process in the fall of 1991, the faculty, administration, parents, community, and business leaders have collaborated to develop a system of educating youth that would better prepare them to be contributing members of society and workers who will be able to adjust to demands of a rapidly changing work environment. The restructuring project at this school impacted many areas of school life for teachers, administrators, and particularly the students for whom the changes were primarily undertaken (p. 25).

Purpose of the Investigation

The purpose of this study was to document and analyze the change process in relationship to a restructured secondary school as it moved from a traditional organizational structure to a site-based management model. This analysis covered

changes in roles and relationships, events critical to changes, barriers to change, and the extent of the institutionalization of changes from restructuring at Dixie High School.

More specifically, this study examined the means used by a restructuring high school in designing and implementing organizational change. This study also included how these processes affected the roles and relationships of teachers and administrators within the school and the new organization that has emerged to support these changes. In addition, the study examined the extent to which program and structural changes that were created as a result of restructuring still existed. The changes in the participants' beliefs, values, habits, and practices also revealed the degree of acceptance and internalization of restructuring.

This analysis of restructuring and organizational change in a high school setting will sustain other schools in their quest to understand and implement this process. Just as important, it will provide a time line and framework for change to administrators, legislators, and other educational stakeholders. This study will assist in providing others useful information on the issues, obstacles, and facilitators as they examine models to adopt at their school sites. It is through the experience of other high schools that both time and resources can be saved.

Research Questions

This inquiry studied four principal research questions that dealt with the restructuring of traditional secondary schools:

1. What events were necessary in planning for and implementing change in a restructured high school?
2. How did the process of restructuring change roles and relationships of teachers and administrators within the school?
3. What were the barriers to restructuring?
4. To what extent have the changes of restructuring been institutionalized?

Theoretical Context

This study was grounded in the theories of organizational development and change. Change processes, as outlined by Havelock (1973), fall into four classifications: the research, development, and diffusion model; the social interaction model; the problem solving model; and the linkage model. These models of change were fundamental in understanding and explaining the events of individual school change. The linkage model was particularly important because it incorporated some of the phases and strategies of the other three models. Like the problem-solving model, the linkage model stresses the user and the needs of the user. Like the social interaction model, the linkage focuses on the use of communication networks and the importance of effective relationships.

Theories related to organizational development are critical in providing insight into the strategies that are used to help organizations achieve greater effectiveness. These theories emphasize the human social system of an organization and the dynamics of the group in carrying out organizational improvement. Cummings and Huse (1989)

pointed out the importance of better collegial structures in schools for solving the problems experienced by those directly responsible for carrying out the tasks of the organization. They maintained that when organizational development interventions focused on specific goals, that were important to the organization, the chances of creating lasting change were enhanced.

Research Methodology

This study reported on organizational change in a restructuring high school during the period of 1990 to 1993. Interpretive research methodology was employed in examining events, activities, relationships, and conditions that emerged during the restructuring process. Merriam (1988) described interpretive case studies as "containing thick descriptions used to develop conceptual categories or to develop, support, or challenge theoretical assumptions held prior to the data gathering" (p. 28).

Interviews, historical documents, and project documents were the sources of data. These multiple sources of evidence were important in the development of converging lines of inquiry, known as triangulation. Triangulation enhanced the scope, density, and clarity of constructs developed during the course of an investigation (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). It also assisted in correcting biases that occurred when the researcher was the only observer of the phenomenon under investigation (Goetz and LaCompte, 1984). Data was gathered on projects after the implementation of this restructuring and change process. Because the study relied on data gathered after the fact, the study is also historical (Fraenkel, and Wallen, 1993).

The methods of data collection allowed for the description of emergent domains and salient issues and an evaluation of their impact developed in the context of this site. In addition to the individual sources, there are other principles that were important to data collection in this study. These include the following:

- 1) the use of multiple sources of evidence that converged on the same findings.
- 2) a case study database or a formal assembly of evidence distinct from the final case study report.
- 3) explicit links between the questions asked, the data collected, and the conclusions drawn (Yin, 1994).

Definition of Terms

- 1) **Restructuring:** changes in the organizational features of schools to increase the intellectual and social competence of students and focuses on 1) students' experiences in subject-matter learning; 2) the professional life of teachers; 3) leadership, management and governance of schools'; and 4) the coordination of community resources to support education (Newman, 1991).
- 2) **Barriers:** anything that holds apart, obstructs, or hinders in the restructuring process (Murphy and Schiller, 1992).
- 3) **Educational change:** the ability of the individual school to continuously sense and adapt to external and internal environments in such a manner as to strengthen the organization and ultimately fulfil its goal of providing quality education for children (Fullan, 1982).

- 4) **Site-based management:** bringing the responsibility for decisions to the school, thereby creating ownership within those responsible for carrying out decisions, including teachers, parents, and students directly in the decision-making process (Harrison, Killion, and Mitchell, 1989).
- 5) **Empowerment:** the collective responsibility to make educational decisions; the participation by teachers in decisions made within their schools (Glickman, 1990).
- 6) **Institutionalization:** To the extent that changes persist, changes can be said to be institutionalized. Such changes are not dependent on any one person but exist as part of the culture of an organization (Cummings and Huse, 1989).

Limitations of the Study

The following limitations helped define boundaries for this study:

- 1) This study was limited to one school site, and it cannot be assumed that what was experienced at this school can be applied to all schools.
- 2) This study focused on the implementation of the restructuring process and did not attempt to evaluate the outcomes of the various programs.
- 3) Since the restructuring took place in 1990-93, much of the data was limited to the memories of participants as provided in interviews.
- 4) Possible personal familiarity with some interviewees may have caused some responses to be based upon expectations or may have caused the researcher to be unduly influenced by responses of acquaintances.

- 5) Because of the number of people involved, not all teachers in the subject school were interviewed.
- 6) In order to narrow the scope of the study to a manageable level, only the teachers and administrators who were participants or were familiar with the restructuring process were interviewed.

Chapter 2

Review of the Literature

Introduction

Literature on organizational change and organizational development is reviewed in the first sections of this chapter. These areas contribute a conceptual context for literature reviewed in following sections. The design of this study made it necessary to review literature on reform and restructuring efforts in general with a heavy consideration for secondary schools. Due to the large amount of information in these areas, the researcher has provided a review of the scope and magnitude that is representative and conceptually comprehensive. This review is not meant to be exhaustive in nature. Computer searches were conducted using the descriptors of restructuring, school reform, and site-based decision making.

A review of organizational change, organizational development, significance of restructuring, forces behind restructuring, transformation of roles and responsibilities, and site-based management will be the predominant areas addressed in this chapter. In each of these areas, subheadings are provided as literature is organized conceptually for this review. Also, a summary provides closure at the end of this chapter.

Organizational Change

In this section a brief overview of the organizational change will be provided.

This review of organizational change will also include the various change models that have significance to educational settings.

Overview

Change is a topic constantly discussed in the educational world. Schools, colleges, and universities are constantly changing, either by deliberate design or by whim of fate (Havelock, 1971). Most change management is largely based on intuition and seat-of-the-pants strategy. Certainly there are few valid, tested scientific principles of change to guide educational administrators in their attempts to alter educational organizations. Although there has been considerable study of educational change, there still is no general and overarching theory of change (Fullan, 1981). The general theories of change that do exist are based on the physical science laws of equilibrium-pressures and counterpressures, forces and counterforces (Lipham, Rankin, & Hoen, 1985).

McCutchan and Deal (1975) point out that research in the area of educational change recognizes the following assumptions:

- 1) change is difficult.
- 2) educational changes are required, and that need is continuous in a contemporary society.
- 3) a new educational idea is almost immediately obsolete, and a new educational idea will soon be required to take its place.

4) the various characteristics of educational organizations are interwoven and when administrators try to change one aspect of the organization, they must anticipate that all other organizational subsystems must be considered.

The environments, programs, structures, goals, subgroups, and individuals are a vital part of the system. Changing one aspect of the system usually involves changing others if the innovation is to survive (p. 23).

Fullan (1981) stated that the single most important idea arising from the various change models is that change is a process, not an event - "a lesson learned the hard way by those who put all their energies into developing an innovation or passing a piece of legislation without thinking through what would happen beyond that point (p. 40)".

Types of educational change

Getzel (1973), conceptualized educational change into three types: Enforced, expedient, and essential. Enforced change is forced upon the school and not created by the leadership within it. Schools may change in response to external forces and pressures, or schools may also alter their larger environment. This change would not occur in the school if it were not for external pressures. Many of the changes school administrators have faced have been enforced - deriving from community, district, state, and federal expectations, regulations, and mandates (Lipham et. al., 1985, p.108).

The second type of change is in conjunction with the first. When the source of change is external in nature, then the mechanism of change is reaction, and the type of change is expedient. External change that created pressure for altering the internal system sets off counterpressures. Stakeholders contrived safeguards against perceived threats to the organization and to their status within it. This modification is put into existence to maintain the existing system rather than to change it in substance (p. 108).

Essential change is derived from the abilities, interests, insights, and voluntarism of the individuals inhabiting the organization. This change is based on creative transformation based on commitment and principle. The distinction of this type of change is that the locus of initiative is from within the organization (p. 109).

Change models

Change processes as outlined by Havelock (1973), examines four classifications: The research, development, and diffusion model; the social interaction model; the problem solving model; and the linkage model. Other change models included Katz and Kahn (1966) strategies of change as well as the three phases of change as outlined by Fullan (1982).

The Research-Development-Diffusion-Utilization Model

This process model of change gained acceptance in the field of education because many theorists and practitioners could see that schools have common problems. The research-developmental-diffusion-utilization (RDDU) model outlined

three phases in the change process (Guba, 1968). First, basic research on a particular topic is conducted, then followed by applied research. Second, findings from the research served as a framework for developing a new technique, product, or design to improve practice. Third, the change is produced, packaged, and sent out to a wide audience that received assistance in implementing it. The emphasis in this model is of a downward view in which change programs flow from their sources to users.

Havelock and Havelock (1973) suggest that for this model to work, it must include the following:

1. There should be a rational sequence in the evaluation and application of of an innovation.
2. Research, development, and packaging of a program change should occur before distributing the program.
3. Planning on a massive scale is desirable.
4. A rational division of labor and coordination of jobs is essential.
5. The proponents of the innovation should be willing to accept high initial development costs prior to any distribution activity.

They also emphasized that a rational consumer population will accept and adopt a proposed innovation if it is offered in the right place, in the right form, and at the right time. Educational laboratories, research centers, and curriculum packages are particular examples of educational change programs that have evolved from the RDDU model. This model is frequently used by the federal government to implement widespread, specific change in local schools.

Lipham et al. (1985), stressed that the use of the RDDU model in local schools can be enhanced by the following factors:

1. Cooperative institutional arrangements between developers, distributors, and users.
2. Leadership that remains abreast of current research and encourages its use.
3. Perceiving products of research and development as legitimate solutions to actual problems.
4. Clear communication between researchers and users.
5. Attentive and receptive audiences for messages and materials from developers.
6. Time to discover and implement new products.
7. Funds for learning about and purchasing new products.
8. Local political support for change. (p. 112)

Taking these and other factors into account, Guba and Clark (1974) revised the RDDU model from a downward to a configurational view. They emphasized that educational planners should base their strategies on using natural or existing organizational structures for change, rather than creating new or artificial ones.

Problem Solving Model

This particular model was the result of work on group problem-solving and interaction (Bennis, Benne, Chin, and Corey, 1976). Four stages constitute the problem-solving model of change:

- 1) the members of an institution diagnosed problems within their organization.
- 2) organizational members sought alternative solutions to the diagnosed problem.
- 3) a particular solution is then chosen from a list of possible alternatives generated.
- 4) if the solution appears promising, it is implemented.

Jung and Lippitt (1966) identified six problem-solving steps: 1) identifying the problem, 2) diagnosing the problem, 3) retrieving related knowledge and discussing its implications for overcoming the problem, 4) forming alternatives to action, 5) testing the feasibility of the alternatives, and 5) adopting and implementing the selected alternative. Henrie and Bailey (1968) further refined this model by using six phases: 1) clarifying goals, 2) defining objectives, 3) defining the mission, 4) analyzing tasks, establishing the management system, and 5) setting up evaluative mechanisms.

Lipham et al. (1985) asserted that the problem-solving model is most effective when the following conditions exist:

1. Norms and organizational support for problem solving.
2. Effective leadership for initiating and maintaining problem solving.
3. Staff perceptions of the legitimacy of a problem-solving approach.
4. Open-mindedness of the staff.
5. Sufficient time, adequate funds, and absence of controversy.
6. Appropriate space for staff to meet, confer, and use the problem-solving approach. (p. 110)

Social Interaction Model

This model emerged from early research on the diffusion of agricultural innovations. It is the most often used model for schools and is particularly powerful for analyzing and explaining the adoption of educational innovations (p. 111). The social interaction model is an outward view of change that emphasized communication channels and messages for diffusing innovations. It was also concerned with interpersonal influence patterns that led to the adoption of innovations as well as the stimuli for adoption that originated outside the adopting system (p. 110). This model included four phases: knowledge of the innovation; persuasion leading to the formation of attitudes about the innovation; a decision about adoption or rejection of the innovation; and confirmation from peers that the decision to adopt or reject was sound.

The social interaction model can be used effectively when the following exists:

1. financial or organizational support to establish outside contacts.
2. opportunities for traveling, attending conferences, and buying journals.
3. a cosmopolitan orientation among the staff.
4. time to talk with friends and colleagues.
5. the desire to gain status, recognition, or influence.
6. funds to purchase products.
7. proximity to sources of new ideas.

Chin (1967) viewed the most important variables in the process of changing are those described in the informal as well as formal structural arrangements of a school. Therefore, considerable attention is given to describing the kinds of action that must be

undertaken by the change agent to improve and shape teacher's attitudes and feelings about change (Lipham et al., 1985). School in-service, workshops, and management training programs are some of the strategies that have emerged from this process model of change.

Linkage Model

The linkage model of change as described by Havelock (1973), incorporated some of the phases and strategies of the other three models and had four important phases. The first phase incorporated the stages of the problem-solving process. Thus, new knowledge relevant to the problem to be considered is searched for and retrieved. The second phase incorporated the stages of the research process. Therefore, educational researchers conduct the process of research, development, and diffusion of research findings and provide them to the school. The third phase borrowed from the problem-solving model in that attention is focused on the relationships and communication systems between and among the researcher, developer, practitioner, and consumer. The fourth and final phase is that of the linkage process model itself. Each role incumbent is helped to see what the other role incumbents are doing in their respective parts of the process of changing.

Lipham et al. (1985) emphasized establishing communication networkes between the sources and the users of an innovation through direct or intermediary facilitating role, referred to as a linkage agent. Havelock (1973) pointed out that the user must be meaningfully related to outside sources and must enter into a reciprocal relationship

with the outside resource that corresponded to what is happening in the local school. This collaboration built trust whereby the school staff viewed the outside resource as concerned and set up channels of communication from the school to the outside resource, and conversely (Lipham et al., 1985).

Katz and Kahn (1966) stated the basis for selecting a change strategy must be that the primary target of the organizational change efforts must be the system itself-the social structure that defined and described the organization. A common error in dealing with problems of organizational change, both at practical and theoretical level, is to take administrators or officials out of their organizational roles and give them training in human relations. Then they return to their customary positions with the same role expectations from their subordinates, the same pressures from their superiors, and the same functions performed before their special training (p. 36). Even if the training program has begun to produce a different orientation toward other people on the part of the trainees, they are likely to find little opportunity to express their new orientation in the ongoing structure situation to which they return (p. 36).

Katz and Kahn (1975) identified strategies for bringing about organizational change. The first strategy is the use of information which served as a supplementary and supportive function for other methods of change, no matter what their target. Information provided the rationale for an anticipated program of change and made clear what is expected of the individual, the group, or the organization as a whole. The use of information capitalized upon the existing forces in a situation, and is not itself a prime mover. It produced change, therefore, only if the necessary motivation is forthcoming from other places (p. 38).

The second strategy is individual counseling and therapy. The target of therapy is the personality of the individual. If the individual gained new insights, overcame insecurities, experienced the world as a less threatening place, and hence perceived it more objectively, they should be able to relate to coworkers more effectively. The second target of changing the individual's personality structure is the restructuring of their own role and their relationships with others in the organization. In some cases such individual changes may help the functioning of the organization inasmuch as a sick person may no longer impede the organizational functioning (p. 39).

A third approach to producing individual change is through the influence of the peer group. This method has three advantages:

- 1) the behavior of associates does exert tremendous power over the individual.
- 2) changing several people at the same status level in the organization introduces the possibility of continuing reinforcement of the behavioral changes.
- 3) the possibility of discovering an acceptable solution calling for change is greater in groups not inhibited by authority figures.

The peer group is a promising vehicle for intragroup processes of influence because equal status and power encourage full discussion, free decision making, and the internalization of the resulting decisions (p.41).

The next strategy is group sensitivity training. As the therapist leads the individual to express his own emotional conflicts, to become aware of them, to explore

and to attain insight into his own motivations, so, too, is the group encouraged to express its emotions, to examine its activities, and to become aware of group process. This specific training consisted of ten to sixteen people and began without agenda, structure, division of labor, or rules of procedure. By using this method, the members of the group attain increased sensitivity to their own behavior, the actions of others, and the nature of group development. Group members often emerge with a restructuring of their values about people and about their operations in group settings (p. 47).

The fifth strategy is group therapy within the organization. This method borrowed from the principles of individual therapy to groups in the organizational environment. The essence of this procedure is to have the organization change itself by means of group processes occurring at every level in the organization. The target of this approach is the improvement of people's understanding of their organizational interrelationships and their own personal motives (p. 50).

Systematic use of feedback is the next strategy. Most organizations have at least one kind of feedback from the environment to guide their operations and indicate the need for organizational change. Two types of information are used by organizations. One is the technical side of internal functioning and implied an accounting for each production job in the organization, and the other concerned internal information that considers the human side of the productive and production-supportive processes of the organization. Surveys of morale or/and of employee feelings, attitudes, and beliefs are conducted by companies to give the latter type of feedback and are employed to get

ideas about technical improvement and to get feedback on the human problems of the organization (p. 52).

Lastly, systematic change is most effective when attempts are made to change an organization as a social system, or in other words, to deal directly with organizational characteristics as properties of the organization rather than as the outcome of group and individual properties (p. 57).

Fullan (1982), delineated three broad phases to the change process. Phase one, which is referred to as initiation, mobilization, or adoption-consists of the process which led up to and included a decision to adopt or proceed with a change. The significance of the process of initiation or adoption must be considered in the context of three larger questions: How broad is the universe for potential adoptions? What is the impact of the process of adoption on subsequent stages? What is the impact of the process of adoption on subsequent stages? Specific factors affecting adoption are: The existence and quality of innovations, access to information, advocacy from central administrators, teacher support, community pressure or support, availability of funding, bureaucratic incentives for adoption, and problem-solving incentives for adoption (p. 42).

The second phase is implementation or initial use. This involved the first experiences of attempting to put an idea or program into actual practice. Implementation consisted of the process of putting into practice an idea, program, or set of activities new to the people attempting or expected to change. The change may be externally imposed or voluntarily sought; explicitly defined in detail in advance or

developed and adapted incremental through use; designed to be used uniformly or deliberately planned so that users can make modifications according to their perceptions of the needs of the situation (p. 54).

Phase three, called continuation, institutionalization, or incorporation, referred to whether the change gets built in as an ongoing part of the system or disappeared by way of a decision to discard or through attrition (p. 39). The reasons for lack of continuation were the same ones which influenced implementation, except that their role became more sharply defined (p. 76). Fullen (1982) added the concept of outcome to provide a more complete overview of the change process. Five different kinds of outcomes can be identified and measured:

- 1) Degree of implementation
- 2) Attitude toward innovation
- 3) Impact
 - a. students' benefit
 - b. teachers' benefit
 - c. organizational benefits
- 4) Continuation or institutionalization
- 5) Attitude toward school improvement

Degree of implementation assessed the degree of actual change on the part of teachers. Attitude toward the innovation concerned perceptions of the strengths and weaknesses of the change. Impact involved an assessment of student learning, teacher benefits, and organizational change. Continuation involved such matters as incorporation in the budget, staffing, and extent of durability of the change. Attitude toward school improvement is related to whether experience has led people to conclude that it is worthwhile to try and implement changes (p. 78).

Organization Development

In this section the essentials of Organizational Development (OD) will be reviewed. Also the importance of institutionalizing changes in OD will be considered. Particular aspects for OD in schools as well as the concepts of integration and differentiation will be reviewed.

The fourth edition of *Organizational Development and Change* (1989) is a comprehensive resource on organizational development. It was written by Thomas G. Cummings who has continued the work carried out by himself and Edgar F. Huse who died soon after the second edition of the book was published. As Cummings and Huse identified their sources, they will be identified accordingly in this review of OD. They defined organizational development as "a process by which behavioral science knowledge and practices are used to help organizations achieve greater effectiveness, including improved quality of work life and increased productivity" (p. 1).

Essential Aspects of Organization Development

After comparing and contrasting various models of change in OD, Cummings and Huse (1989) presented the "Integrative Model of Planned Change" (p. 53) which is credited to R.J. Bullock and D. Batten around 1985. They provided a model of four phases that provide information and understanding of the aspects of OD. The four phases of this model are the exploration phase, planning phase, action phase, and the integration phase. In the exploration phase, the ground work for OD is conducted. The clarification of expectations, commitments, and processes used in OD, between the

practitioners and the leaders of the organization are critical steps of this first phase. This suggests that this is an important step since ensuing efforts are influenced by these underlying assumptions and understandings. The planning phase is when data are collected and analyzed. Diagnoses occurs for the purposes of determining what items needed attention in the organization. They report that at this stage collaborative processes and discussions with management help insured accuracy of diagnosis and that the necessary support will be provided. In the action phase, specific interventions are utilized to bring about desired changes in the organization. They suggested ongoing evaluation in order to guide these efforts and to maximize growth. In the integration phase, steps are taken to create structures and processes which make the changes a lasting part of the organizations. In addition to these formative evaluations, the authors suggested that summative evaluations provide directions for further OD efforts in the organization as the capacity for ongoing renewal is enhanced and established. They also indicated that the process is cyclical: activities within and between phases overlap and repeat in effective OD. Due to its importance, the concept of institutionalizing changes, which is part of the latter phase of OD, are reviewed in greater depth in the next section.

Institutionalizing Change

Cummings and Huse (1989) emphasized the importance of taking steps to insure that changes derived from OD are made part of the organization.

To the extent that changes persist, they can be said to be institutionalized. Such changes are not dependent on any one person but exist as part of the

culture of an organization. This means that numerous others share norms about the appropriateness of the changes. (p. 478)

Cummings and Huse explained that the congruence between OD results and the basic philosophy of management, the degree of stability or turbulence in the environment, and the extent to which labor groups will allow interventions, all contributed to the institutionalization of changes brought about by OD efforts. They maintained that when OD interventions targeted specific goals, which represented truly important issues to an organization, the likelihood of creating lasting change is enhanced.

Developing support for OD ideas in an organization helped to produce people who will facilitate and sustain the changes. Securing support from leadership is another critical aspect of this process presented by Cummings and Huse. They maintained that as changes become part of the organization, members are socialized about the changes; also, the improvements in organizational life usually resulted in higher levels of member commitment. These factors combined to sustain changes. They reported that adapting systems of rewards to match the changes works to reinforce concepts and their continuance to the organization. Sharing the changes with others and continuing to refine programs as necessary are also ways to institutionalize the positive aspects of OD. Cummings and Huse explained that the degree to which OD is institutionalized is relative and not absolute; therefore, one can measure the extent to which change had been made part of an organization by studying the beliefs, habits, values, and practices which occurred in an organization after OD interventions. Particular considerations for OD in schools will be discussed in the next section.

Organizational Development in Schools

Cummings and Huse (1989) suggested that both the external context and internal composition of an organization need to be considered in order for effective implementation of OD. Robert A. Cooke was engaged by Cummings to write about the nature of OD in schools. Cooke's ideas about OD in schools are reviewed in this section. According to Cooke, schools shared similarities with other organizations; however, they "differ from other organizations with respect to such things as the tasks they perform and the technologies they use to accomplish these tasks" (p. 489). Therefore, OD programs applied in schools need to be modified to fit the reality of these organizations. As he described the primary task of schools was to educate students, Cooke maintained that "ambiguity and disagreement about the dimensions along which students should be changed" (p. 490) are likely to exist in schools. He explained that traditional administrative structures in schools are similar to other organizations and are stable over time; however, "collegial structures tend to be weak" (p. 490). "Better developed collegial structures would be particularly useful in schools for solving the problems experienced by those directly responsible for carrying out the tasks of the organization" (p. 490). He adds that since schools are "vulnerable to their environments" (p. 491) and tasks and "technologies used to carry out these tasks are uncertain" (p. 491) both traditional and collaborative structures and processes will be necessary to address the problems faced by schools. Cooke suggested that teachers "typically do not have access to structures for collaborative problem solving and often do not possess the skill needed to use such structures" (p. 491). Therefore, he stated

that providing access to and skills training for teachers in collaborative processes is recommended. Cummings and Huse presented and discussed various OD models for schools in their text. The models they presented "are designed to promote collegial problem solving in schools" (p. 495). They reported "Collaborative structures are seen as appropriate for increasing the flow of information, generating supportive relationships, and increasing members commitment to their organization" (p. 496). The concept of collaboration is explored in greater detail in the next section which reviews the concepts of integration and differentiation.

Integration and differentiation

Cummings and Huse (1989) reported on the work of P. Lawrence and J. Lorsch which dated back to 1967 in the areas of integration and differentiation. Definitions of these two terms, environmental factors which influenced their application, and the trend toward a normative approach are discussed. These authors defined differentiation as the degree of autonomy given to the various parts of an organization. In a highly differentiated organization, a great deal of autonomy for performing tasks is extended to the various parts. They maintained that the parts of an organization should be designed to match their respective context both within the organization and as relative to the larger, external environment. They described integration as the level of coordination, communication, and collaboration which exists in an organization. In a highly integrated organization, these practices are performed both well and frequently. P. Lawrence and D. Dyer (1983) created a model which suggested that

environmental factors influence the degree of differentiation and integration necessary in organizations. When an organization faced high levels of scarce resources, higher levels of integration are then necessary. When confronted with high levels of complex information, pressures to differentiate increased. Moving beyond a contingency model, Lawrence and Dyer suggested organizations adjust environmental factors and implement a normative approach with high levels of differentiation and integration.

Cummings and Huse (1989) suggested the ideal model for all educational organizations is to be highly differentiated and highly integrated. Being able to adapt OD to existing realities in a school and moving the organization in the direction of being highly differentiated and highly integrated is a logical extension to the concepts presented by the individuals as developed in this section. Weick (1982) reinforced the need to look at schools in this light. He maintained that both internal and external realities of schools require that they be managed differently with something he calls "loose coupling" (p. 673). "The administrator of a loosely coupled system centralizes the system on key values and decentralizes everything else" (p. 676).

A Call For Restructuring

According to Powell (1985), the first wave of reform of the early 1980's was a concerted effort to reform American public education. The catalyst for these attempts was primarily economic. Observers of the educational system concluded that the United States was on the verge of being displaced as a major player in the world economy (Sizer, 1984). The belief that we were falling behind other industrial powers

in development, productivity, and quality was a theme that laced the pages of several reform reports (Carnegie Forum, 1986; Education Commission of the States, 1983; National Commission on Excellence of Education, 1983; National Governors Association, 1986; National Science Board, 1983). Reformers immediately made the connection between the economic inadequacy and the educational system. Education was viewed as the vehicle to recapture economic superiority (Guthrie and Kirst, 1988).

Once the failure of schools to produce literate citizens was documented, and this shortcoming was inexorably linked to our declining economic position in the international marketplace, analysts began to dissect the educational system in search of explanations (Tye, 1992). The central conclusion of these analyses (Goodlad, 1984;Sizer, 1984; Boyer, 1983; Hampel, 1986) was that schools were characterized by intellectual softness, lack of expectations and standards, inadequate leadership, a dysfunctional organizational structure, conditions of employment inconsistent with professional work, and the absence of any meaningful accountability.

As a result of these analysis and these economic concerns, the most intense and comprehensive effort to improve American schools was launched (McCarthy, 1990). As a result of the numerous commissioned national and state reform reports, attempts to strengthen the quality of American public education began to appear at all levels (Timar, 1989). In the first wave (1982-86), change efforts focused on restoring quality by repairing the existing system (Murphy, 1989). These early suggestions focused on centralized control and standards (Boyd, 1987).

This top down approach suggested that the conditions of schooling that contributed to poor student outcome measures are a result of the poor quality of the workers and the inadequacy of their tools. These measures are subjected to revision through mandated, top down initiatives (Sizer, 1984). This centralized model used to initiate improvement led in turn to the emphasis on early reform efforts on policy mechanisms such as prescriptions, tightly specified resource allocation, and performance measurements that focused on repairing components of the system and raising the quality of the work force by telling employees how to work (Hawley, 1988). According to Wise (1986), a result of the various reform reports led to the majority of states passing laws to come in compliance with the recommendations of these reports.

Little time had passed before criticisms of these early reforms were detailed (Chubb, 1988; Elmore, 1987; Sizer, 1984). The criticisms by those opposed to the first wave of reforms was that they were misdirected and were using the wrong policy tools to improve schooling. Top down mandates were the main criticism. These reformers argued that the fundamental revisions needed in the cultural institutions of the larger society, in the ways that educational systems were organized and governed, in the roles adults played in schools, and in the processes used to educate America's youth (Bacharach, 1990). Many began to see the writing on the wall-that this system was beyond repair. Analysts called for an attempt to rework the very heart of schooling or a restructuring of the educational enterprise (Sarason, 1989).

Several significant national studies (Goodlad, 1984; Boyer, 1983; Sizer, 1984) and reports (Carnegie Forum, 1986; Holmes Group, 1986) laid the foundation for the types

of changes needed to develop alternatives to schools as they are currently organized.

A second and third wave of national reports (Carnegie Council, 1989; Council of Chief State School Officers, 1989; National Governors' Association, 1989; Quality Education for Minorities Project, 1990) began to expand and legitimize current restructuring efforts. Teachers, parent, and students have shaped new methods of overhauling the American educational system. Important lessons are drawn from those schools, school districts, and states that have begun the difficult task of developing new patterns of management, organization, and delivery of educational services (Johnson, 1989; David, 1989). Another viewpoint is offered by analysis of the effects of both current and earlier attempts at decentralizing schooling (Malen, Ogawa, and Kranz, 1989). DesDixon (1994) pointed out that since most of the philosophy subsumed under the auspices of reform have a tradition in education, our knowledge of the components of restructuring is strengthened by tracing key ideas back to their roots.

The Significance of Restructuring

Restructuring encompassed a basic change in one's view of the relationship between the school and the environment. Historically ingrained notions of schools as sheltered monopolies, or delivery systems, have broken down under the incursions of a market philosophy into education (Boyd and Hartman, 1988). The traditional relationship between schools and the public is being reworked in favor of more nearly equal arrangements, i.e., partnerships (Seely, 1988). Sizer (1984) mentions the business of education is being redefined in relation to the customer. Restructuring

assisted unprecedented inroads of market forces into the governance and organization of schools (Chubb and Moe, 1990). It brought about significant changes in the way that states relate to schools (Elmore, 1988).

Consistent with the present change in schools are efforts to develop new forms of school organization and management. The bureaucratic, hierarchical organizational structures that have defined schools over the past 80 years have given way to more decentralized (Guthrie, 1986) and more professionally controlled systems (David, 1989), systems that can be thought of as a new paradigm for school management (Wise, 1989). In these contemporary organizations there are "very basic changes in roles, relationships and responsibilities" (Seely, 1988, p. 35): traditional patterns of relationships are altered (Conley, 1989), authority flows are less hierarchical, role definitions are both more general and more flexible (Corcoran, 1989), leadership is connected to competence for desired responsibilities rather than to formal position, and independence and isolation are replaced by cooperative work (Beare, 1989). The apparent goal (Schlechty, 1990) is not the maintenance of the organizational infrastructure but rather the development of human resources. The intent of the organizational change in transformed schools is from top-down management to empowerment.

Seeley (1988) saw change as a shift in the goals and a new vision of our educational system. Schools that were traditionally organized to produce results consistent with the normal curve, to sort youth into the various strata needed to fuel

the economy, are being redesigned to ensure equal opportunity and success for all children (Chubb and Moe, 1990).

Also significant to restructuring is the acquisition of knowledge (Tye, 1987).

Different views of what is important to learn are emerged in restructured schools. The traditional emphasis on content coverage and rote learning of basic skills is being challenged by more in-depth treatment of areas and a focus on higher order thinking skills (Carnegie Council, 1989). More recently, emphasis has been placed on active learning and a century old concern for independent work and competition, in favor of a more cooperative learning, relationships and a focus on the social dimensions of human existence (David, 1989).

The role of the teacher has evolved (Murphy, 1991). Rather than seek ways to simplify instruction, the complexity of teaching was acknowledged and nurtured (Petrie, 1990). Teachers were given autonomy of content of instruction rather than state and district curriculum guides. The model of the teacher of the "sage of the stage" (Fisher, 1990, p.83), in which instructors were viewed as content specialists who possessed the relevant knowledge that they transmit to students through telling, is replaced by an approach in which "teaching is more like coaching, where the student is the primary performer" (p. 83). In this new approach, teachers acted as facilitators and coaches (Sizer, 1989) who invested "students with increased power and responsibility for their own learning" (Elmore, 1988, p. 3). The emphasis in the restructured school was on the learner and not the deliverer. The focus was on learning, not on the

delivery system (Sizer, 1984). Hawley (1989) stated that the students are seen as the producers of knowledge and teachers as managers of learning.

The Forces Behind Restructuring

As we have moved toward a postindustrial society, a rethinking of the underlying assumptions about our place in this larger world occurred. Concomitant with this process are attempts to mold organizations to the realities of this new world. Critics claimed that without a concerted effort to reform will result in serious consequences for the well-being of American society. It is within this context that pressures to reinvent schooling are rising (Sizer, 1984). There is a widespread belief that schools must overhaul the way they are organized and governed. The effort of reformers to overhaul current educational practices and to drive schools toward alternative forms of governance and management has originated from a variety of forces (Moffet, 1994). The researcher delineated these forces that have been instrumental in bringing about change.

Crisis in the Teaching Force

A crisis in the teaching force has led to nearly universal calls for the professionalization of teaching and the organizations in which they work. This professionalization of teachers required restructuring of schools that develop the type of work environment that empowers teachers and promotes continuous professional development (Murphy, 1991).

Elmore (1989) documented the fact that a large proportion of the current teaching force will leave through attrition or retirement in the next decade, and that teacher turnover will occur during a period of broad changes in the labor force. Education has fallen behind in its ability to draw from the labor pool from which teachers have traditionally been drawn (p. 2). If education is to regain its competitive position in the labor market, the argument goes, schools will have to be more attractive places to work and economic rewards of teaching will have to be competitive with other professional occupations (p.3).

Those who favor restructuring argued that organizations with strong professional cultures, where there is "access to frequent collegial interaction about complex problems of practice, access to the knowledge required to enhance professional development, differential rewards for people who develop knowledge and skill at significantly higher level than their colleagues, and access to the basic resources necessary to good performance" (Elmore, 1988), are required if education is to be able to attract and keep a first class work force (Carnegie Forum, 1986; Wise, 1989;Sizer, 1984; Goodlad, 1984; Holmes Group, 1986). The Holmes group (1986) delineated the fact that if the profession of teaching is going to succeed, schools will have to change. Wise (1986) argued the need to move in this direction when he concluded that the professionalization of teaching is as much about the preservation of the public school tradition as anything else.

Research and School Effectiveness and improvement

School effectiveness research has contributed a great deal of support and pressure for transformation of schools (Clune and White, 1988; Murphy, 1990). Findings from this research (Clark, Lotto, and Astuto, 1984) are that school improvement is a combined rather than a piecemeal activity. Improvement occurs on a school-by-school basis.

The devolution of control are at the center of efforts to restructure school. Chubb (1988) articulated this conclusion by saying, "the more control a school has over those aspects of its organization that affect its performance, the more likely it is to exhibit the qualities that have been found to promote effectiveness" (p. 37). This organizational provision represented a major shift from traditional school governance and management.

Changing Population

The rapidly changing demographics in schools has been documented: schools are increasingly populated by disadvantaged youth, children of color, youth whose language is not English, students who require non-educational services, and students who come from single parent homes (Carnegie Council, 1989; Education for Minorities Project, 1990). Boyd and Hartman (1988) reported that these at-risk children, for whom schools have been least successful, will soon make up a full one third of the student population. The number of low-skilled jobs in the economy has declined, the demand for highly skilled workers has increased, and the surplus of

workers has fallen as the population ages (Goodlad, 1984). These challenges have exerted a tremendous force on public schools to be more innovative and meet the needs of at-risk children. Given the documented failure of schools as they are currently organized to succeed with these students (Cuban, 1989), considerable pressure is being applied to restructure education.

Competative workforce

There is widely held belief among many Americans that the failure of the schools to educate youth adequately is the reason behind America's failure to sustain its "once unchallenged preeminence in commerce, industry, science, and technological innovation" (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983). Kearns (1988) stated that the second wave of reform is critical because public education has put America at a terrible disadvantage. In order to sustain the standard of living that Americans have been enjoying, we must regain our competitive position in the world economy, therefore, we will need a better educated workforce (Elmore, 1989).

Reformers argue that the model of schooling that was so successful in fueling the industrial economy is ill suited to meet the demands of preparing workers for postindustrial, postbureaucratic organizations (Murphy, 1989). According to Kearns (1988), the predominant thinking, particularly among business leaders, that guided early thinking about school reform in the 1980's first wave of reform was that schools failed to prepare students as had been done in the past. As the needs of business have evolved, as the level of skills required by workers has risen, and as the number of

surplus students has fallen (Seely, 1988), the economy is demanding not only that schools radically redesigned their operations to produce a better product, but also that they reduce the error rate (Mitchell, 1990). Schlechty (1990) points out that "for the first time in history of humankind, in America at least, education is essential to liveliehood" (p. 31).

Lack of Success with the Standards Raising Movement

In the mid-1980's, the movement to improve education focused on raising standards by increasing centralized controls (Sizer, 1992). A state-centered, top-down model of organization was predominant. Prescriptions and performance measurements were stressed (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983). Disconnected efforts were attempted to fix the existing educational system (Sarason, 1990). Many educators and academics found these methods to be philosophically misguided and conceptually limited (Boyd, 1987).

Educational reformers (Sizer, 1984; Goodlad, 1984) declared that the standards raising-movement would strengthen the site bureaucracy while diminishing the morale of school site personnel, thereby crippling efforts at real improvement (David, 1989). Some critics pointed out that the standards-raising movement failed to take "into account the most fundamental variables in the educational process: the nature of the relationship between educators and their students and the extent to which students are actively engaged in the learning process" (Sedlak, Wheeler, Pullin, & Cusick, 1986, p. ix). These criticisms and concerns have helped to pave the way for a second phase of

educational reform in which a reanalysis of the basic structure of schooling is occurring and the possibility for a "reformation" (Soltis, 1988) of American education is being shaped.

Discontent with School Bureaucracy

Much of the school-based pressures for the restructuring of education led back to concerns with the prevailing model of governance, organization, program delivery, and management of schools. The bureaucratic and organizational structure of schools has come under attack from critics that who claim that schools are so covered with bureaucratic sediment that initiative, creativity, and professional judgement have all been paralyzed (Chubb and Moe, 1990; Conley, 1989) and the likely success of reforms has been neutralized (Sizer, 1984). Critics also maintained that bureaucratic management practices have caused unacceptable distortions in educational process (Wise, 1989), that they are paralyzing American education and getting in the way of children's learning (Sizer, 1984; McNeil, 1988; Wise, 1988).

This attack on bureaucracy has also come from analysts who believe that bureaucracy is counterproductive to the needs and interests of educators within the school. They argued this school bureaucracy is impractical, and it does not fit the psychological and personal needs of the workforce (Clark and Meloy, 1989). Analysts believed that the rigidities of bureaucracy impede the ability of parents and citizens to govern and reform schooling. Lastly, this attack on bureaucracy came from advocates who hold that the existing organizational structure of schools is neither sufficiently

flexible nor sufficiently robust to meet the needs of students in a technoservice or postindustrial society (Sizer, 1984; Beare, 1989).

This attack on the bureaucratic organization of schools has led to demands to develop alternative methods of operating that are based on new principles of organic organizational form rather than mechanistic forms. These organic forms of organization encouraged the development of substitutes for leadership, encourage professional development, and utilize current skills and attitudes (Wise, 1986).

Lessons from Business

Those who support school restructuring found support for different methods of operation from modern management theory and from experiences of the business world (Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1986; Schlechty, 1990). The corporate world has been faced with problems similar to those of schools. As a result of these problems, businesses set out to examine those organizations and structures that were successful in overcoming impediments (Peters and Waterman, 1982).

It was discovered that the most effective corporations had transformed their businesses by decentralizing operations. This has been accomplished by pushing decisions down to the level of the organization in closest contact with the customer, by reorienting their management philosophy from control to empowerment, by establishing scrupulous reputations for attention to quality, and by changing their views of workers from property of the company to partners in the corporate undertaking

(Peters and Waterman, 1982; Maccoby, 1989). In other words, they had restructured themselves from more hierarchically organized unit to more fluid and organic systems. Kearns (1988) pointed out these lessons are now being used by corporate leaders to demonstrate to education what needs to be done to bring about change. According to Timar (1989), there is significant pressure on educators to adopt these recommendations and transform school operations so they are consistent with the organizational revolution occurring in the corporate world.

Transformation of Roles and Responsibilities

The redefinition of roles and responsibilities is a key element in the restructuring of schools. The roles and relationships among staff members and between staff and students will change (Murphy, 1994); teacher accountability rested on informed professional judgement and measures more relevant to the educational goals rather than current standardized tests (Lewis, 1989). Schools must be more like the business world by having the ability to be flexible in order to respond to a fast changing market (Chubb and Moe, 1990).

David (1990) used the metaphor of a circular jigsaw puzzle with students and teachers in the center, surrounded by rings of interlocking pieces representing the demands of state, local, and federal agencies; for example, testing programs, curriculum, teacher certification, textbooks, graduation requirements (p. 211). Attempting to change one piece of an interlocking set of pieces is not possible unless

PLEASE NOTE

**Page(s) not included with original material
and unavailable from author or university.
Filmed as received.**

UMI

the other pieces are flexible enough to yield when the shape of a neighboring piece is changed (p. 211).

Previous reform efforts have either added another piece to the puzzle or have attempted to change one piece without recognizing the need to change neighboring pieces (p. 211). Kirst and Meister (1985) argued that centrally defined and imposed reforms have added new pieces with little or no effect on interactions between students and teachers. School-based reforms have tried to effect the pieces in the center without changing any surrounding pieces (David, 1990). The goal of structural change is to reconfigure the puzzle as a whole-to change the rigid, interlocking nature of the system to a more flexible, responsive structure (p. 211).

Another aspect of the change of roles and responsibilities is the necessity for more emphasis on interdependence and cooperative teams that shared assignments and provided opportunities for teachers and administrators to confront a variety of problems with different colleagues (Clark and Meloy, 1989). The traditional distinction between teacher and administrator begin to blur (Petrie, 1990). Roles of system participants focused on technical competence rather than assigned to a specific goal. Beare (1989) stated that the new organization will require adaptable people who can turn their hands to several tasks and who viewed the organizational and professional world more globally than the narrow specialist.

Teacher Empowerment

Sizer (1989) argued that there is a vision of a comprehensive change in the work performed by teachers in the restructured school. Various interest groups have advocated the empowerment of school staff members (Maeroff, 1988; Chubb and Moe, 1990). Johnson (1990) defined empowerment as the opportunities an individual has for autonomy, choice, responsibility, and participation in decision-making in organization. Jenkins (1988) stated that "to empower others is to give a stakeholder share in the movement and direction of the enterprise (p. 114). The assumption is made that teachers who are able to initiate and carry out new ideas by involvement in decision making will, in turn, create enhanced learning opportunities for students.

The importance of staff involvement gets its roots in the area of business and industry in the form of self-managing teams (Peters and Waterman, 1982). Studies in participative decision making in business and industry have revealed that involvement in key decisions increased worker productivity and sense of ownership. Traditionally school level personnel are excluded from critical decisions including personal allocation and hiring practices, curriculum, budget allocation, and scheduling of teaching time (Olson, 1988).

Individually and collectively, teachers in restructured schools are getting new responsibilities that extend their role beyond the confines of their own classrooms (Smylie and Denny, 1989). Johnson (1989) stated that the changes in decision making are of two types-"those that increase teachers' right to participate in formal decision

making and those that give teachers greater access to influence by making school structure more flexible (p. 23)."

Team approaches to school management and governance are examples of expanded responsibilities for teachers. Teachers in restructured schools exercised considerable influence over the type of evaluation procedures employed and are actually setting standards for their own performance (Corcoran, 1989). Sickler (1988) maintained that teachers are assuming greater responsibility for the mentoring and supervision of their peers, particularly beginning teachers.

Smylie and Denny (1989) maintained that the development of new leadership roles for teachers are at the forefront of restructuring. Sergiovanni (1989) argued that we should look at leadership in terms of its density in the organization and that leadership roles are shared and leadership broadly exercised. These new professional roles have added leadership responsibilities to teachers. An example of taking on a leadership role would be the master teacher who continued to work in his/her own classroom, but may also spend two days a week working with other teachers in their classrooms or with peers developing student assessment materials (Sizer, 1992).

Goodlad (1984) pointed out that professionals in other fields nurture their common bonds as a way to improve the field's collective wisdom and expertise, and that a teacher typically pursued excellence alone according to personal intuition, not as part of a group of trained experts pursuing common goals in coordinated ways. Teacher collaboration is a necessity for the restructured school of the future.

McCarthy and Peterson (1989) developed a classification of work design for teachers. According to these analysts, the categories of teacher as colleague, teacher as decision maker, teacher as leader, and teacher as learner made and attempted to capture the nature of these new roles for teachers. Teachers are professionals who engaged in regular, and important, exchanges with their colleagues to the point that traditional isolation among teachers in schools began to break down (p. 6). Sykes and Elmore (1989) maintained that the managerial role of teachers is institutionalized and that to perform as a professional, teachers must be more collegial, develop more interdependence with peers, and share their knowledge with others in a variety of settings.

Role of the Building Administrator

The traditional "custodial school" included the triangle table of organization in which the top level of management (the central office) informed middle management (the individual school) to shape up the troops at the bottom (Rothberg & Pawlas, 1993). The school principal took on a new role in context to the restructured school (Murphy, 1990). What is evident is that an administrator in a restructuring school must be less a director and more a facilitator (Payzant and Gardner, 1994; Gainey, 1994; Hall and Hord, 1987). In a restructuring school, the principal must be a coach and facilitator who "delegated, directed, motivated and built a culture of mutual trust and collaboration" (Rothberg et.al, 1993). Enabled, facilitated, and collaborated

behaviors must replace controlling, blocking, and competing behaviors (Payzant and Gardner, 1994).

Murphy (1994) grouped principal role changes into three areas: leading from the center, enabling and supporting teacher success, and extending the school community. Leading from the middle meant that the principal is willing to orchestrate from the background, to become a support element or facilitator or "an equal participant in shared decision making" (p. 96). In an empowerment model, the principal retained an important role but not one of greatest centrality. Nor is the principal a autonomous educational leader. Rather, According to Chapman and Boyd (1986) the principal now became relocated from the apex of the pyramid to the center of the network of human relationships and functioned as a change agent and resource" (p. 55).

The second role change of the principal that Murphy (1994) referred to is enabling and supporting teacher success. In enabling and supporting teacher success, principals in schools engaged in reform endeavors perform five functions: formulation of a shared vision, development of a network of relationships, allocating resources consistent with the vision, providing information to staff members, and promoting teacher development (p. 96). Stein and King (1992) maintained that the principal is the "keeper of the dream" and his/her primary function is to be an advocate for the entire belief system (p. 29).

Extending the school community is the third role change of the principal (Murphy, 1994). A dramatic shift for principals who have undergone reform is the need to expand public relations activities with external constituents. Because the public image

of schools has become a matter of increasing concern, more and more of the principals' time in restructuring schools is being directed toward public relations and the shaping and promoting of the school's image and toward selling and marketing the schools and its programs to the community (p. 98).

Leithwood and Montgomery (1986) referred to this change in leadership in a restructured schools as "transformational leadership". In essence, transformational leadership is a leadership that facilitated the redefinition of a people's mission and vision, a renewal of their commitment, and the restructuring of their systems for goal accomplishment (Roberts, 1985). Transformational leadership required a maintaining of a collaborative culture. In collaborative school cultures, staff members often talked, observed, critiqued, and planned together (Rothberg and Pawlas, 1993). In these collaborative school cultures leaders actively communicated the school's cultural norms values and beliefs in their day-to-day interpersonal contacts and they also shared power with and responsibility with others through delegation of power to school improvement teams within the school (Johnson, 1990).

The fostering of teacher development is important in this transformational leadership. School leaders enhanced teachers' development when they give them a role in solving nonroutine problems of school improvement within a school culture that valued continuous professional growth. Also important to transformational leadership is the role of the principal by improving group problem solving skills. In this role, the leader of the school assisted group discussions, ensured open discussion, and avoided commitment to preconceived solutions: they actively listened to different views and

clarified and summarized information. These leaders shared a genuine belief that their staff members as a group can develop better solutions than the principal can alone (Payzant and Gardner, 1994).

The role of the Superintendent and the Central Office Staff

The work of superintendents and their staffs changed dramatically in the restructured school system (Tewell, 1994; Harrison, Killion and Mitchell, 1989). Hord (1990) argued that the superintendent has largely been excluded from educational reform. Murphy (1994) stated that the role of the superintendent is emerging. The superintendent as the chief executive officer of reformed schools can no longer act as controllers, but as enablers (Bradley, 1989) and their job is to facilitate not dictate (Lindelow, 1981).

One of the main roles of the superintendent and the central office staff is has been to serve and assist schools. In this role, central office staff acted as service providers or support centers that offer technical assistance to schools (Clune & White, 1988). Thompson (1988) asserted that under this new type of work design, schools can contract with the district office for services as needed or desired. In their role as an enabler, district personnel also needed to build the capacity of schools to take advantage of the opportunities of decentralization (Murphy, 1989). The district has had the responsibility for establishing the direction for the enterprise and for measuring the success of each school's programs (Lindelow, 1981). In the transformed school system, they undertook these functions, not by appeal to "centrally enforced rule, but

by management by exception" (Murphy, 1989, p.811). This meant that they focused on those parts of the organization experiencing difficulty.

Central offices have often become smaller in restructured school districts. The remaining organization is often flatter, less hierarchical (Tewell, 1994; Bradley, 1989; Chapman & Boyd). As this leveling of the organizational pyramid occurs, responsibilities historically undertaken at the district level are transferred to the schools and "functions that are currently centralized will be spread over a larger number of people" (Thompson, 1989, p. 15). David (1989) stated the role of the remaining middle managers became more focused on providing services directly to schools.

Hord (1990) contended that the superintendent must utilize a new leader model of active instructional leadership to improve the education of students. Superintendents have to be able to assess the educational condition of the system, guide the staff and the community in determining a vision for the future and carry out the goals associated with this vision (Murphy & Schiller, 1992).

Site-Based Management

Odden and Wohlstetter (1995) defined site-based management as decentralization from the central district office to individual schools as a way to give school constituents-principals, teachers, parents, community members, and, in some schools students-more control over what happens. Harrison, Killion, and Mitchell (1989) defined site-based management as "bringing the responsibility for decisions as close as possible to the school as well as creating ownership for those responsible for carrying

out decisions by involving them directly in the decision-making process-and by trusting their abilities and judgements". David (1989) pointed out that site-based management is not a fixed set of rules but is the opposite of this prescription. By definition it functioned differently from one district to another and from one school to the next. This autonomy empowered school staffs by providing authority, flexibility, and resources to solve problems that are particular to their school (p. 52).

In the 1960's and 1970's, forms of school-based management, usually called decentralization and school-budgeting, came to the forefront of educational issues. These school based reforms were adopted in order to give political power to communities, increased administrative efficiency, or in some cases to offset state authority (Wissler and Ortiz, 1986). In the late 1980's and 1990's, however, school-based management had focused the attention for different reasons. Districts are implementing school-based management today to bring about significant change in educational practice: to empower school staff to create conditions in schools that facilitate improvement, innovation, and continuous professional growth (Goodlad, 1984). Meier (1987) argued that this is a response to evidence that our educational system is not working and that strong central control actually diminished teachers' morale and, correspondingly, their level of effort.

The basis for site-based management rested with two propositions: 1) all decisions should be made at the lowest possible level-the school being the primary decision-making unit (Smith and Perky,1985), and 2) change is not imposed by external procedures but rather by ownership that comes from the opportunity to participate in

defining change and the flexibility to adapt it to individual needs (Fullan, 1982).

These propositions meant that autonomy is increased through participation in budgetary matters and the lessening of rules and constraints. It also translated to mean that authority must be shared with teachers and sometimes parents, students and community members.

Key ingredients that emerged from the experience of schools that are experimenting with site-based management included: increased participation of staff in the selection of personnel, ability to change and modify school curriculum, site-based budgeting and allocation of school monies, provisions for students, parents and community members to share concerns and ideas, and the expansion of decision-making from the principal to the members of the faculty (Aronstein, Marlow, and Desilets, 1990; Murphy, 1991; Hess, 1994).

Clune and White (1988) described school autonomy as decision-making authority in three areas: budget, staffing, and curriculum. David (1990) pointed out that in practice these distinctions are obfuscated because staffing is the largest part of a school's budget and decision-making authority is a matter of degree, constrained by district, union contract, state, and federal rules and regulations.

In budgetary terms in school-based management, schools received either a lump-sum budget or some portion of the budget, usually for equipment, materials, supplies, and other areas such as staff development. This budgetary method is misleading because of the restrictions that are placed on most budgets (p. 47). Decision-making authority in budgetary terms are limited by rules governing class size, tenure,

curriculum objectives, assignment, and hiring. With staffing, building repairs, and textbook costs removed, each school's budget is the small amount left for materials and supplies (p.47).

Site-based decision making took on two forms concerning staffing decisions: defining positions and selecting people to fill them (David, 1990). Some school have the choice of spending money on a teacher, part-time aides, or clerical support. For filling vacancies, the principal and teachers select from a pool of applicants. The district still does the hiring based upon recommendation of the principal, but the staff is given the opportunity to provide input to which individual will best fit the needs of the school (Johnson, 1990).

Curriculum decisions in site-based management are dependent upon teachers to develop and select curriculum based upon a wider framework of goals or core curriculum established by the district or state (David, 1990). Some degree of coordination between schools is required to accommodate the moving of students from school to school (p. 47). Delegating control of curriculum to schools stimulated the creation of new ideas and materials, which required the opening of lines of communication among committees of teachers within the district (Wissler and Ortiz, 1988).

Jenkins (1988) stated that this empowerment gives shareholders a stake in the movement and direction of the enterprise. Short and Greer (1991) pointed out staff members, who are able to initiate and carry out new ideas by involvement in decision making, should create enhanced learning opportunities for students. In a National

Education Association survey (1990), respondents indicated that site-based decision-making has: 1) permitted stakeholders of the education community to produce policies that reflect the concerns of all interested parties, 2) improved trust and opened lines of communication, 3) allowed more room for new initiatives and addressing problems because more people have access to the decision-making apparatus and 4) improved employee morale.

Maeroff (1988) emphasized that altering the outside structure (i.e. longer school days, longer school year, and more of certain subjects) are important, but in the end it is the teacher who is going to make the most difference. According to Lewis (1989), reforms that are of a permanent nature, usually required organizational changes that allowed all that are involved to buy into. Reforms that skim over the problems by strengthening old practices and do nothing to get at the heart of the problem will do nothing to address the real problems (Sizer, 1984).

Summary

Although there has been considerable study of educational change, there is still no general and overarching theory of change. Getzels conceptualized educational change into three types: enforces, expedient, and essential. Change processes outlined by Havelock, examines four classifications: The Research, Development, and Diffusion Model, the Social Interaction Model, the Problem Solving Model, and the Linkage Model. Other change models included that of Katz and Kahn Strategies of Change, and The Three Phases of Change as outlined by Fullan.

Organizational development is cyclic process emphasizing planned changes in an organization. Implementing various strategies for institutionalizing changes is an important consideration of OD. Although organizations shared similar aspects, each school has unique features. A result of these atypical features, schools need to be managed and developed accordingly. It has been suggested that high levels of differentiation and integration are necessary in schools to result in innovative, efficiency, and member involvement.

Earlier reforms of the 70's and 80's that focused on top-down, centralized improvement failed to bring significant improvement in educational quality. More recently, reformers laid the foundation for the types of change needed to develop alternatives to schools as they are presently organized. New patterns of management and organization have begun to provide valuable lessons in new restructuring that emphasized decision making from the bottom up.

This organizational change emphasized the empowerment of teachers and parents, and, in some cases, students. The acquisition of knowledge has evolved from the content coverage and rote learning of basic skills to in-depth treatment of areas and higher order thinking skills. The role of the teacher has changed from that of a content specialist to a coach or facilitator where the emphasis is on the learner not the deliverer.

The effort of reformers to overhaul current educational practices and to drive schools toward alternatives forms of governance and management has originated from a variety of forces. Crisis in the teaching force, school effectiveness research,

changing population, the need for a competitive workforce, lack of success with the standards raising movement, discontentment with school bureaucracy, and lessons learned from the business community have all been instrumental in bringing about change.

The redefinition of roles and relationships is a key element in the restructuring process. The roles and relationships among staff members and between staff and students have changed. This aspect will require more interdependence and cooperative teams that shared assignments and provided opportunities for teachers and administrators to confront problems with different colleagues. The principal's role changed from the apex of the pyramid to the center of the network of human relationships and functions as a change agent and resource.

Site-based management is defined as bringing the responsibility for decisions as close as possible to the school as well as creating ownership for those responsible for carrying out decisions by involving them directly in the decision-making process and by trusting their abilities and judgements. This allowed for autonomy and empowered school staff by providing authority, flexibility, and resources to solve problems that are particular to the individual school.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The research methods used to examine the change process of a restructuring secondary school as it shifted from a traditional organizational structure to a site-based management structure are described in this chapter. Description and analysis of restructuring were made using the restructuring of Dixie High School as a case study. This study did not answer all questions raised in similar cases, nor does it claim that the setting of Dixie High School or the restructuring process that occurred there are statistically comparable to other schools.

The reason for selecting this case for study was its potential for providing both valid and useful information to other schools. The study helped to identify critical issues to restructuring and related areas that other schools considering the process need to be aware of.

The first section of this chapter describes the research strategy. The second section describes the context of the school and why it had been selected for this study.

The third section describes the means of collection of data. The last section describes procedures for the analysis of data and the establishment of the trustworthiness of the data.

Research Strategy

This case study sought holistic description and explanation. Due to its descriptive purpose, this study used qualitative methods in a single case study design (Yin, 1994). It is the intent of this type of study as defined by Becker (1968) "to be able to arrive at a comprehensive understanding of the group under study and to develop general theoretical statements about the regularities in social structure and process" (p. 233).

Since this study dealt with the building of theory, it implied the interpretation of data that was conceptualized, and these concepts were tied together to form a theoretical construction of reality. This construct was used to explain the conclusions of this study and provided a framework for how to undertake school restructuring.

School Context

Dixie High School in St. George, Utah, is a rural comprehensive high school located in southwestern Utah. Dixie High School is one of six high schools in Washington County School District. Until 1984, this was the only high school in the immediate St. George area. It consists of approximately one thousand students in grades 10-12 and 58 staff members. Most students come from middle class families whose parents are employed in service industries or government jobs. Mormonism is

the dominant religion and plays important role in the conservative community.

St. George, like many southwestern cities, is growing at an extraordinary rate because of its attractiveness as a retirement community. This school district has been realizing an annual rate of student growth at seven to eight percent for the past five years. Over the 1995-95 school year, the school district had grew by 900 students, 37 percent of the total growth for the state. Currently there are 18,000 students in the Washington County School District.

This school was selected because it is viewed by citizens, legislators, and educators in Utah as a success story in restructuring. Another reason for the selection of this school was that it provided important lessons in school site-based management in relation to the restructuring process. The staff, parents, and business leaders of the community were able to break through old paradigms of how schools define and accomplish their missions. The goal of this school's plan was to help students to better become contributing citizens in today's applied technology-oriented information age. It also attempted to empower teachers as true professionals by giving them an active part in the curriculum development process. A third reason for the selection of this school for the study was its proximity to the researcher. This allowed a more comprehensive investigation of this school. Even though restructuring at Dixie High School started five years ago, it continues to inspire new curriculum development and other improvements.

The Steps to Restructuring

The process of restructuring began in 1990 when the Utah State Board of Education provided seed money from a \$500,000 legislative appropriation. Washington County School District was approached by state school board officials and asked to be one of the nine districts involved. The Washington County School District then asked Dixie High School to embark on this project. Once the project was approved by the local school board, the principal of the school initiated the chain of events that helped the school to realize meaningful change through the restructuring process.

The principal began the process by inviting teachers to informal after-school meetings to discuss the weaknesses and needs of the school. At first, only a few of the staff showed up to participate, but eventually most of the staff were involved. After determining the need for restructuring based upon investigation of global workforce needs and technological advances, and after evaluating existing programs, the staff set out on an intensive research plan to see what was being done in other schools. The principal and several members of the staff visited other schools around the region to find out how they were implementing innovations that research had already shown to be valuable, all in an effort to save the time and resources that would be involved by starting completely from scratch.

Crucial to the success of this program were the faculty retreats that generated ideas on which direction to take and promoted the high degree of collaboration and unity that would be needed among staff members to effect major changes. Each year since

the inception of restructuring, the faculty has left town to get away from the distractions that tend to interfere with intensive planning and discussion of innovation. These retreats proved essential in generating ideas critical to restructuring at this high school. These retreats were also critical in forming faculty cohesiveness that was so important as a change of this magnitude took place.

Once the staff had established the need for change, the principal and team members set out to develop staff co-ownership. Breaking down paradigms, creating a common vision, and promoting professionalism were among the strategies employed to develop staff co-ownership. Another important component involved developing a master plan that included a mission statement, beliefs, models, and strategies. A steering committee and various task forces were established for addressing the needs of each part of the plan as it began to take shape. Lastly, the master plan put pilot projects into place. These included not only development of new curricula, but also job placement through cooperation with Job Service and preparation of staff for natural resource partnerships with the Bureau of Land Management and other local businesses willing to participate.

The Academy Model

Eventually the staff developed an academy model that mirrored the Holland Interest Test. Each academy represents a Holland Interest Area that correlates with the six major career interest areas. Students are placed in academies according to an interest test taken in the ninth grade, and the academy choice is reevaluated after

taking the Armed Forces Vocational Aptitude Test in the eleventh grade. Students are given the opportunity to change interest areas upon recommendation of parents and teacher advisors.

The management plan for the school's new academy structure includes a navigation team that makes recommendations to the principal who still retains full veto power by virtue of having the ultimate responsibility for governance. The Business, Arts, Applied Technology, Service, and Science Academy council directors and task forces on advisement and enrichment, SEOP (Student Education and Occupation Plan), cafeteria beautification, school schedule, and business partnership development all presented suggestions to the Navigation Team for consideration.

Aspects of this academy plan includes teachers in their subject specialties acting as SEOP advisors to a set group of students. The groups maximize the potential for mentorship between a student and instructor who share the same subject matter interest within the general scope of the academy the student has chosen. Examples of the specific occupational areas within academies are as follows: Business (finance, marketing, management and information processing), Arts (visual, performing, and graphic/commercial), Services (travel/tourism, hotel/motel management, social services, law enforcement), Sciences (natural resources, health, agriculture), or Applied Technology (electronics, trades, CAD CAM).

From the inception of the program, the teachers of Dixie High School felt that there needed to be more and better integration of subjects. Facilitated by new interaction across department lines, the teachers created several courses that connect

various subjects. They merged a home economics class with physical education and health to form a life skills course for all students. Literature has been incorporated into all areas of science. Social studies, art, English, dance, drama, and music teachers have a common preparation time to run an interdisciplinary humanities class. Not all of the courses that were implemented are still in place, however. Members of the staff attribute this to the latitude of being able to experiment and find what works and what doesn't.

Another highlight of the academy plan was the Business Partnership Task Force that had representation from law, banking, industry, the Bureau of Land Management, the Chamber of Commerce, and Job Service. These representatives have joined forces to provide a powerful network of business and community contacts that generate cooperative student work experiences for each academy. School job fairs, apprenticeships, guest speakers, and an employers' Back to School Night have also strengthened these relationships. Business leaders have helped to inform students on the social and technological skills that today's employers are really looking for.

Data Collection/Gathering

Because it is descriptive in nature, this study utilized qualitative methods in a single case study. It was qualitative in that it examined events, relationships, activities, and situations that are not quantifiable (Fraenkel and Wallen, 1993). This case study allowed the researcher to investigate this high school as a social unit affected by variables that are important to restructuring.

Case study protocol and established research questions guided the collection of data. Elements of protocol included an introduction of the case study to participants, a schedule of field visits, an outline of questions that guided the researcher's original investigation, and the identification of probable sources of evidence.

Inasmuch as this research utilized human subjects, permission for the study was sought from the Office of Sponsored Programs. Permission was granted prior to the start of this case study.

Voluntary interviews were conducted with the teachers who participated in the entire restructuring process. Interviews with the administrators and school board member who were involved with the restructuring process were conducted as well. Selection of participants for interviews was based on whether those individuals had the necessary experience to be able to provide the data that would answer the established research questions.

Goetz and LaCompte (1984) suggested using key informants who possess special knowledge, status, or communicative skills and who are willing to share that knowledge with the researcher. Special care was taken in choosing informants in order to ensure full representation of all the teachers at this school. Teachers selected in this study were involved in the restructuring process from its very beginning to the present. Several teachers on the staff of this school joined after the beginning of the restructuring, so they were not be able to provide data appropriate to the eventual "big picture".

Those selected were a purposive sample (Fraenkel and Wallen, 1993) on the basis of the depth of their involvement. This involvement provided the data necessary for this study. Due to time restrictions and the large number of potential informants, not all of them could be interviewed. Frequent and consistent contact was made with the school in an attempt to gather as much information as possible from the informants.

Interviews

The primary source of data collection was through the use of interviews. Merriam (1988) noted that the use of semi-structured interviews allowed the researcher to respond to the situation at hand, to the emerging world view of the respondent, and to new ideas on the topic. These semi-structured interviews were guided by a list of questions or issues to be explored. The exact wording and order of the questions were determined prior to the interviews. The use of semistructured interviews assisted in the formulation of new questions that guided the researcher in conducting later interviews of a more specific nature (Yin, 1994; Goetz and LaCompte, 1984; Burgess, 1988) .

A pilot study was conducted for the purpose of developing relationships, and as Goetz and LaCompte (1984) mentioned, "to ensure that interviewer and respondent are sharing approximately the same language". The researcher's specific knowledge of this school and its individuals allowed for greater investigation, clarity, and depth in the interview process. The prior relationships between the interviewer and the informants assisted in securing reliable and meaningful data.

Merriam (1988) cautioned that the conditions required for establishing this degree of rapport increase the idiosyncrasy of interview sessions and thus posed difficulties for establishing reliability. Borg and Meredith (1989) pointed out the possibility that interview subjects may be distrustful, hostile, or present themselves in a favorable light to the interviewer.

The researcher used a tape recorder, and information was later transcribed to ensure accuracy of data. Merriam (1989) suggested tape recording to reduce the tendency of the researcher to make an unconscious selection of data favoring certain biases. Also, the tape recording allowed for the reanalysis of the interviews.

Admission into the school was accomplished by meeting with the principal and providing him with a summary of the events of the study. Permission was granted through the district office by the superintendent. The researcher met with each interviewee prior to the interview and explained the nature of the study and the guidelines for the interview.

The study was presented to the staff as a case study of a school that had undertaken restructuring and that would investigate the processes that were necessary for it to be successful. The study also considered the inevitable obstacles in this process. The following questions guided the researcher.

1. What events were necessary in planning for and implementing change in a restructured high school?
2. How did the process restructuring change roles and relationships of the teachers and administrators within the school?
3. What are the barriers to restructuring?

4. To what extent have the changes of restructuring been institutionalized?

Below is a list of the people who were interviewed and their respective jobs during the restructuring process:

Craig Hammer (teacher and vice-principal at D.H.S.)
 David Burr (teacher)
 Warren Brooks (teacher)
 Phillip Ellis (counselor)
 Ross Taylor (former principal-now retired)
 Cheryl Cox (counselor)
 Adele Clark (teacher and director of Applied Technology Academy)
 Richard Mildenhall (teacher and director of Applied Technology Academy)
 Pauline Smyly (teacher and Academy director)
 Steven Peterson (Washington County School District Superintendent)
 Jerry Dyer (teacher)
 Forrest Fonnesbeck (teacher)
 Greg Murray (teacher)
 Burke Staheli (teacher)
 Russ Saxton (teacher and director of Arts Academy)
 Cathy Miles (school board member)
 Jay Andrus (media coordinator)
 Rob Ward (teacher)
 Marilyn Wenzel (teacher)
 Tim Lowe (teacher and director of Business Academy)
 Sandy Ferrell (teacher and academy director)
 Laurel Peterson (teacher)

Interview Questions

The interview questions were open-ended to allow informants the latitude of expressing their ideas and impressions of the restructuring process as it unfolded (Yin, 1990; Sowell and Casey, 1992). Because this study was qualitative, open-ended questions assisted the researcher in detecting respondents' meanings and interpretations without the risk of cueing the informant.

The researcher established effective communication with the informant by engaging in a few minutes of small talk at the beginning of the interview. This technique (Borg and Gall, 1989) helped informants relax and established rapport. Informants were assured that all statements would be used for research purposes only. Interviews were prefaced by a brief statement of research purpose and by an outline of how the interaction was expected to proceed (Goetz and LaCompte, 1984).

The interview guide provided an overview of the issues to be covered during the interview. This open-ended format allowed for depth and comprehensiveness of the data collected. This format also allowed the researcher to respond to the situation at hand, to the emerging worldview of the respondent, and to new ideas on the topic (Merriam, 1989).

The questions were provided a few days in advance to allow the informants time to think over and formulate ideas and answers for the interview. The initial questions provided the background and history of Dixie High School. Informants were then encouraged to describe the process of restructuring through their personal roles. Identification of the characteristics of change as it relates to the school, community, and students was the next question that was posed to the informants.

The informants were asked to recall those events and people that were important to the process and to discuss why they were important. After identifying the key people and events, the informants were asked to relate the actions of the principal that allowed this change to take place at this school.

Informants were then encouraged to discuss what obstacles they encountered as the changes began to take shape and what resources were necessary to facilitate the changes. The informants were also asked to provide information regarding the lessons learned from the restructuring process. Finally, informants were asked to provide evidence that the changes at Dixie High School were still in place.

The questions that will guided the collection of data in this study were as follows:

1. Opening information
 - a. Name
 - b. Position
 - c. History
 - d. Please give any other information about you that might be important.
2. Describe Dixie High School prior to restructuring.
3. Tell me about restructuring at Dixie High School.
4. What was your personal role in the restructuring process?
5. Conditions that prompted change at Dixie High School
 - a. What were the important characteristics of the following parts of of Dixie High School?
 1. School setting
 - a. school administration
 - b. faculty
 - c. board of education
 - d. district administration
 2. Parental support
 3. Student support
6. What were the most important events in this restructuring process? How did these events affect those people involved?
 - a. Who were the key participants in the restructuring process?
7. What were the strategies and actions of the principal that allowed change to take place?
8. In your view, what were the obstacles to change?

9. What resources were necessary to bring about change?
10. What lessons can be learned from the restructuring process at Dixie High School?
11. To what extent are the original changes of restructuring still in place at Dixie High School?
12. If components of the changes have been abandoned, please explain why.

Subsequent interviews were held with those participants that were identified by their peers as being key players in the restructuring process. These follow-up interviews served the purpose of further development of the research questions.

The secondary interview questions were as follows:

1. Why do you think that the advisement and enrichment program struggled in the early stages?
2. Explain the purpose of the committees that were formed. How did these committees affect the outcome of the restructuring process?
3. Did the restructuring process change your role in the school? Explain.
4. Were the relationships between the teachers altered as a result of the restructuring? Was the relationship between the principal and the teachers altered?
5. Explain how the business community was brought into the restructuring process. What purpose did they serve?
6. Explain how you went about creating a school vision?

Documents

In the process of restructuring at Dixie High School, some school site documentation was produced that was applicable to this study. Meeting agendas, personal notes, papers prepared by participants, and project documents were some of the documentation found to be useful.

Outside documents provided by newspapers, television program transcripts, and state-prepared documents were also utilized. These outside resources provided information from observers that were not directly involved with the restructuring process, thus providing additional perspectives. These documents were used to corroborate and augment evidence from other data sources (Yin, 1989).

Analysis of Data

Qualitative data analysis is a search for general assertions about relationships among different categories of data. Lincoln (1985) maintained that a qualitative study is an ongoing process that happens at different times and at different levels. Analysis and interpretation bring order, structure, and meaning to the various data sources gathered (Marshall and Rossman, 1989) and build grounded theory.

Data analysis is a process of translation, using data, recorded perceptions and tacit knowledge to describe what has happened in a particular context (Skrtic, 1985). This type of inductive analysis takes into account the contextual variables reflected in the multiple realities that exist in an organization.

In this case study the researcher was concerned with the collection of data that was representative of the many aspects that relate to school restructuring. Typical of interpretive research, the collection and analysis of data were simultaneous. Through the entire data collection process, the researcher used ideas and themes within the data to guide the later interviews.

Data conceptualization (Strauss and Corbin, 1990) was the first step in the analysis process. By breaking down and conceptualizing the data, the researcher was able to take apart the sentences and paragraphs of the interviews and other documents. This allowed for giving the various incidents, ideas, and events, a label that represented the particular phenomenon. These incidents, ideas, and events that were identified in the interviews and documents were separated and compared.

As the process of conceptual labeling took place, the researcher began to categorize by grouping concepts that seemed to pertain to the same phenomenon. These categories were given conceptual names that were more abstract than the specific categories. These broader categories were able to give conceptual power to the study because they were able to pull together around them other groups of concepts (Strauss and Corbin, 1990).

Coding

Each data source had a coding system that allowed source, date, subject, and domain to be identified, thus creating an audit trail for each idea. Strauss and Corbin's (1990) two types of coding, open and axial, were used to analyze data. The coding process was facilitated by transcribing interviews. The researcher utilized the software "The Ethnograph" (Seidel, Kjolseth, and Seymour, 1988) to code and classify data into analytic categories. This process allowed the researcher to mark, sort, and display each category according to identifiable sequence. The sequenced data was then used for comparative analysis with other segments.

The process of open coding was utilized to break down the data into actions, events, and interactions for comparison of similarities and variations (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). Corresponding events, actions, and interactions were given conceptual labels and arranged in categories related to restructuring. Properties and dimensions were used for the purpose of making relationships between categories and subcategories.

In axial coding the research focused on specifying categories in terms of the conditions that each gave rise to, the context in which it was embedded, the action strategies by which it was managed, and the consequences of those strategies. As the new categories emerged from the data, existing categories were modified.

Trustworthiness

The researcher established trustworthiness of naturalistic inquiry by utilizing criteria as outlined by Lincoln and Guba (1985). The criteria included the following areas: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability.

Data and methodological triangulation were the principal means in establishing credibility in this case study. Multiple sources were utilized. Triangulation in this design was provided through critical analysis of similarities and differences that were identified through interviews, historical documentation, and project documents. An audit trail provided a means by which each statement was traceable back to the original data source in order to examine the context in which it was presented.

Also, participants from the site had the opportunity to provide input into the information in the final stages. This process was facilitated by allowing those involved in the study to view information that would aid in establishing the validity of the study. The comments and suggestions were noted and considered a part of the triangulation process.

Credibility

The researcher was concerned with whether the findings would capture what was really there and wanted to present a "more or less honest rendering of how informants actually viewed themselves and their experiences" (Taylor and Bogdan, 1984, p. 98). It was the goal of the researcher to understand the perspectives of those involved in the restructuring, to uncover the complexities of behavior in this context, and to present an interpretation of what happened at this school site.

This was primarily accomplished through using multiple sources of data to confirm the the emerging findings. The methods used included 1) interviews, 2) project documents, and 3) outside documents not related to the school. Member checks as described by Merriam (1988) were another method utilized by the researcher to ensure validity. This involved taking data and interpretations back to the individuals from whom they were derived to check for their validity. Outside documents were employed to validate the interview information as suggested by Bogdan and Bilken (1982).

Transferability

The findings of this study should be transferred only to similar situations. Because this study is descriptive of a specific situation, it does not have general applicability. According to Erickson (1986), the creation of generalization of knowledge is an inappropriate intent for interpretive research; "the search is not for abstract universals arrived at by statistical generalizations from a sample to a population, but for concrete universals arrived at by studying a specific case in great detail and then comparing it with other cases studied in equally great detail" (p. 130).

In order to enhance the possibility of this case study's results being generalized to other situations, the researcher provided a detailed description of the study's particular context. This description specified everything that a reader needs to know in order to understand the findings. The researcher has also, according to Lincoln and Guba (1985), "provided a rich description, so that anyone else interested in transferability has a base of information appropriate to the judgements" (p. 124).

Confirmability

The researcher approached reliability with the intent of making as many steps as operational as possible and conducted the research as Yin (1994) suggested "as if someone were looking over your shoulder" (p. 37). The triangulation of data was used to establish confirmability, as well as the method recommended by Guba (1981) that utilizes the collecting of data from many viewpoints, using various methods, and

drawing upon many sources so that the researcher questions are tested as strenuously as possible.

The researcher followed the procedures outlined by Yin (1989) include a description of the circumstances under which the evidence was collected, succinct citations, consistency with the procedures and questions outlined in the case study protocol, and the indications of the link between the content of the case study protocol and the research questions (p. 182).

Dependability

The audit trail consisted of structured interviews that were taped and transcribed to a computer database as well as printed into hard copies. Data reduction and analysis consisted of write-ups, descriptions, and summaries. Recurring units of information produced themes and ideas. From the themes and ideas evolved the building of the theory. Transcripts were summarized and recurring themes were noted. The data base was read many times, and the important viewpoints of the data and major ideas that cut across the data were noted.

The data base was separated from the case study report and included the researchers case study protocol, documents received as part of the study, and the interview transcripts. The audit trail "establish[ed] explicit links between the questions ask[ed], the data collected, and the conclusions that [were] drawn" (p. 84).

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

Introduction

This chapter contains the findings on the change process in a restructured high school as it moved from a traditional organizational structure to a site-based management model. This inquiry studied four principal research questions which directed data collection and reporting of the findings.

- 1. What events were necessary in planning for and implementing change in a restructured high school?**
- 2. How did the process of restructuring change roles and relationships of the teachers and administrators within the school?**
- 3. What were the barriers to restructuring?**
- 4. To what extent have the changes of restructuring at this high school been institutionalized?**

Through the process of data collection, themes and concepts emerged from the actions, events, and interactions of the participants as they went through the restructuring process. The themes and concepts that arose during the investigation and

were utilized for developing categories helped build the theory of this study. These categories were important to the study because they provided a basis for comparison with other groups of concepts.

The first section of this study examined the events that were necessary for change to take place. The ten components of the restructuring process included the following: 1) state office of education endorsement and support, 2) local school board approval and support, 3) selection of on-site project leader, 4) organization of committees, 5) retreats, 6) Wednesday planning meetings, 7) site visits, 8) business- community linkage, 9) parental involvement, and 10) articulation of beliefs and school mission statement.

The second section addresses the changes in roles and relationships of the individuals who were involved with the process. The five categories which emerged from the data are as follows: 1) site-based decision making, 2) changing role of the principal, 3) staff bonding and cohesiveness, 4) staff interaction and collaboration, and 5) emerging leadership.

The third section discusses the barriers that participants had to cope with and the methods that were used to overcome them. Six principal categories emerged: 1) staff opposition, 2) bureaucratic control, 3) parent opposition, 4) lack of resources, 5) enormity of the project, and 6) organizational constancy.

The fourth and final section of this chapter examines the extent to which the changes have been adopted and are currently being used. The two categories that

make up this section are 1) structural institutionalization, and 2) internal institutionalization.

Critical Events

Overview

The specific events that were critical to the processes of restructuring were identified through interviews and documents. Particular events created the conditions that were necessary for changes to occur. The results of the events often overlapped, but each event was nonetheless critical for the implementation of change at Dixie High School.

The data from these areas were derived from questions in teacher interviews that dealt with the participant identifying the important events in the restructuring process. Additional data were obtained by asking the participants what lessons could be learned from restructuring.

The specific events of restructuring follow. The information derived from the data represents the views of 17 teachers, 3 administrators, 1 school board member, and various documents.

State Office of Education Endorsement and Support

The initial catalyst of restructuring at Dixie High school was the state legislature and state school board members who provided the money and focus for this project. The state provided financial support in the form of grants of \$50,000 per year for three

years and \$13,000 per year over the next two years from the Utah Centennial Schools money. Dixie High School was also given unprecedented latitude to challenge any State Board regulation (Utah State of Office of Education, 1993).

The teachers and administrators at Dixie High School were aware that a degree of top down influence was necessary for the project to move forward. Mrs. Cox conceded that "it came to us not by way of our requesting but by having the opportunity presented to us".¹ Superintendent Steven Peterson related how the state came to choose the Washington County School District:

The regents were the ones that decided which school districts were to be involved, and I was heavily involved in that....They came to me and asked if we would be willing to consider the project....They said they had enough confidence in our district from what we had done in the past".²

Subsequent meetings with state education officials served as a source of information and motivation for staff members who attended. As for the initial meeting with state officials, Mrs. Cox said "it was one of those things that kick-started us because we went there and had a lot of feedback of the kinds of visionary things that were being done in other places".³ Mr. Hammer mentioned that the state was excellent at "providing some direction of the possible results that they could see"⁴ as they were

¹ Interview, September 30, 1995.

² Interview, November 2, 1995.

³ Interview, September 30, 1995.

⁴ Interview, September 27, 1995.

starting the project. Mr. Hammer said that the state was "pushing the idea that there was a genuine need for change",⁵ and at the same time, Mr. Burr related that "they wanted us to go out and accomplish our own thing, and whatever we did, they would back us up".⁶ Members of the staff felt like the state was supportive throughout the project and "never once said that we are going to far in what we are doing,"⁷ according to the counselor, Mr. Ellis.

School Board and Administrative Endorsement and Support

Although the Board of Education of the Washington County School District endorsed the restructuring project, the feelings of the participants were mixed regarding the support of board members. Mr. Staheli felt that "they were supportive and recognized some of our challenges"⁸ and according to Mr. Dyer, "they are pretty much open to what we are still doing".⁹ Mrs. Cox contended the school board and superintendent "were cautiously permitting us to proceed...I don't feel like there was any active support, but I also don't feel like that there was any opposition".¹⁰ In referring to some of the changes that the school board approved, Mrs. Smyly noted:

⁵ Interview, September 27, 1995.

⁶ Interview, September 30, 1995.

⁷ Interview, November 2, 1995.

⁸ Interview, September 29, 1995.

⁹ Interview, October 10, 1995.

¹⁰ Interview, October 30, 1995.

For the courses that we came up with, they approved them without any hesitation. We had one class called Reading for Pleasure....We had to attach some things to it to give it some credibility, but the board didn't hesitate to approve the class".¹¹

Mr. Andrus pointed out that board members Miles and Johnson were "supportive and were willing to give us what we needed...while at the same time they were a buffer from the community".¹² Board member Miles mentioned the fact that "we wanted to be involved but were not really asked to be heavily involved".¹³ One board member who seemed to be interested according to Mr. Taylor was board member Johnson, Mr. Taylor stated that "he encouraged the other board members to be supportive but they were not knowledgeable or involved to the extent that they might have been".¹⁴

Participants of this study felt that the superintendent was supportive and involved to some extent, as echoed by Mr. Saxton: "He put a lot of trust in us".¹⁵ Mr. Taylor further related the following in this regard:

The superintendent was very supportive and always wanting to know what we were doing. His level of expectations was even higher than our own because

¹¹ Interview, October 18, 1995.

¹² Interview, October 4, 1995.

¹³ Interview, November 9, 1995.

¹⁴ Interview, October 2, 1995.

¹⁵ Interview, October 16, 1995.

he was anxious to see change come about. I think there were times when he felt like we were coasting when we really should have been digging in".¹⁶

Superintendent Peterson related that he spent a great deal of time with the board members "just to try to keep them informed and knowledgeable so they could be supportive as they went through the whole thing...so the board was willing to back changes...and there were some pretty rough bumps".¹⁷

Project Leader

The staff and administration felt that it was necessary to have someone on the staff that could lead the project who was not an administrator. Cheryl Cox was selected by her peers to be the site leader. She was relieved of her counseling duties for one period per day so that she could concentrate on activities of the restructuring project. One seventh of her salary was paid with money from the Nine-District Consortium (Utah State Office of Education, 1993).

Her peers felt that she was an excellent person to lead the project. Mr. Saxton expressed the fact that "this whole process would not have evolved the way it did without the help of Cheryl Cox and the countless hours that she put into it".¹⁸ The staff recognized that Mrs. Cox was in a good position to lead, for as Mr. Staheli

¹⁶ Interview, October 2, 1995.

¹⁷ Interview, November 2, 1995.

¹⁸ Interview, October 16, 1995.

declared, "she was someone who understood the whole school, people respected her, and she was a person that people could count on".¹⁹

Her position as a counselor at Dixie High School gave her an advantage. Mr. Ward pointed out that "Cheryl was not exactly one of us (teacher), and she wasn't one of them(administrator), so she was kind of like in the middle",²⁰ thus allowing her to be an effective leader. Her group counseling skills assisted her in dealing with the many staff-wide activities that were held. Mr. Mildenhall affirmed this by saying, "the fact that she was in the counseling department and had more effective people skills brought out the important qualities in us".²¹ Mr. Burr referred to her as a "facilitator...who served as a liaison between the administration and the staff".²²

Mrs. Cox expressed her view of her personal role and how it affected her:

This was a dramatic change for me personally. I was not a teacher and I was not an administrator. Sometime it could be a little lonely here because you are not in either place. It put me in the limelight and allowed the staff to get a first hand look at my stuff. I think I became, through the process, one of our more key people...in the sense of informal leadership.²³

¹⁹ Interview, September 29, 1995.

²⁰ Interview, October 31, 1995.

²¹ Interview, October 2, 1995.

²² Document, Personal paper presented to graduate class as project, Summer, 1995.

²³ Interview, November 8, 1995.

What is evident is that an individual who was not an administrator was needed to lead the project. Mrs. Cox's relatively neutral position in the school organization, combined with her group counseling skills, was a significant factor in the restructuring process.

Organization of Committees

At the beginning of the restructuring process, several committees were formed to look at different aspects of the school that needed changing. These included the following committees: steering, staff development, public relations, curriculum, business partnership, finance, delivery mode, scheduling, special needs students, physical facility, technology, assessment, and student planning.²⁴

Mr. Taylor explained that the initial committees "were used to explore what we were about and some of the issues...and was the best way to focus on a few areas while trying to get everyone involved".²⁵ A division of responsibility was important to the staff, and as Mr. Lowe points out, "if we had tried to do this as an entire group, we would have ended up talking it to death".²⁶

All members of the staff were given the opportunity to choose the committees that they wanted to be on. A few that didn't choose were assigned by the project leader. Having all of the members of the staff involved was important because as Mrs. Ferrell

²⁴ Document, School consortium master plan, 1991.

²⁵ Interview, November 8, 1995.

²⁶ Interview, November 7, 1995.

explained, "major people would have been the ones that did most of the work, and a lot of the others would have sat on the sidelines and watched it happen".²⁷

Another aspect of the committees is that they had the responsibility to do much of the research for the various areas. Mrs Cox noted that "it allowed your staff to have many experts in several areas instead of just one person".²⁸ This allowed the staff, as Mr. Burr describes, "to come up some new strategies and techniques".²⁹

Retreats

This strategy was hailed by most of the participants to be the single most important component in the restructuring process. The initial retreat was held overnight at Brian Head Ski Resort at the conclusion of the school year in 1991. As an inducement for staff members to participate, they were paid a stipend for their attendance. Subsequent retreats were held again at Brian Head or in Zion National Park.

Mr. Burr noted that there were some important ground rules that had to be followed in order for the retreats to work:

No family is allowed...It is important that everyone is able to concentrate on the matters at hand. The retreats must be overnight...Somehow at least one 24 hour cycle is needed to experience a lasting effect. The retreat must be

²⁷ Interview, October 17, 1995.

²⁸ Interview, November 8, 1995.

²⁹ Interview, November 8, 1995.

out of town...If staff members are allowed to go home for the night, the above items will be nullified. Lastly, there must be lots of entertainment into the wee hours of the morning that will allow staff members to let their hair down.³⁰

Members of the staff agreed that the retreats played an important role in promoting staff cohesion. Mr. Mildenhall related that "they were the single most important item because we saw each other outside of the school building and learned that we could associate on different levels".³¹

Dixie High School had departmental divisions like most schools. It was important to this school to minimize these divisions through these retreats. Mr. Taylor maintained that from his experience, "you have got to knock down the walls before you can build new ones....We have got to first soften the lines between the departments and this had to be done before we could even start to think collectively".³² The result of the retreats had a lasting effect as related by Mrs. Peterson who said, "I now know the people that I work with....I feel like that I know them better, and I can't believe how the atmosphere at school has improved".³³

"Knocking down walls" at these retreats was primarily accomplished through the several activities that were both formal and informal in nature. The formal meetings at

³⁰ Paper presented to graduate class as part of project, summer, 1995.

³¹ Interview, October 2, 1995.

³² Interview, October 2, 1995.

³³ Interview, October 25, 1995.

these retreats were crucial to the planning of restructuring, and as Mr. Andrus related, "allowed us to brainstorm...and to ask the teachers what it was they wanted to do".³⁴

The informal activities that took place afterward included hiking through the hills with the staff, rendezvous in the hot tub, and group discussions in the rooms of the participants. Mr. Burr contended "that the best stuff didn't come out of formal meetings....The best ideas came from conversations in a hot tub or out on midnight walks".³⁵ Mr. Saxton noted:

These times we were able to get away have been some of the most productive and successful experiences that we have had in the whole process. We may have been in the jacuzzi but we were talking restructuring, and plus the bonding that was taking place. That has really brought a joy to this faculty and brought us closer together.³⁶

The retreats were critical for the enhancement of relations of staff and administration. Important strategic planning and was also accomplished through the time that was spent at the retreats. These retreats were important enough that the staff has continued to have them.

³⁴ Interview, October 4, 1995.

³⁵ Interview, September 29, 1995.

³⁶ Interview, October 16, 1995.

Wednesday Planning

Soon after the staff began the restructuring process, it was determined that ongoing planning time was needed to facilitate the process. The staff approached the school board with the prospect of allowing them to hold school longer on four days of the week so that the staff could have one half day a week for planning. The school board approved the proposal, and the teachers began to meet Wednesday afternoons. The staff used some of the state grant money to provide a catered meal to teachers on Wednesdays. Because the lunch was provided, the staff was able to stay at school together rather than spend time going out to lunch. Former Principal Taylor related the importance of the Wednesday planning meeting:

We began to see that our biggest problem would be time because how could we possibly pull all of our staff together to decide what we were going to do in a high school where everyone goes to coach this and club that after school. That was when we decided that time was going to be the biggest factor. I think it was one of those things that, had it not been approved, that the restructuring would not have happened. It was Wednesday afternoon and nobody was gone and everybody was required to be there. These meetings became a central focus to change and why changes occurred.³⁷

³⁷ Interview, October 2, 1995.

The time that was set aside for restructuring from 1-3 p.m. "was considered sacred, and there were no practices or meetings...and without that time, nothing would have happened" according to Mr. Taylor.³⁸

That staff members looked forward to the Wednesday meeting was evidenced by Mr. Lowe who said, "you have a nice meal and then you sit down and talk...That is something that the teachers looked forward to".³⁹ Mr. Ward expressed the opinion that "we felt like we were professionals...If they would have told us to just show up and bring our sack lunch, it would have gotten old in a hurry".⁴⁰

The time provided on Wednesday afternoons provided the staff the opportunity to meet as a faculty without the inevitable interruptions the are common in a high school setting. This meeting was important because it provided the time necessary to plan and organize the restructuring process.

Site Visits

Another piece of the puzzle to the restructuring experience was the site visits. The staff felt that important information could be gathered from other places that had experienced similar changes or were doing things that were considered to be innovative and useful. All of the participants that attended these site visits viewed them in a positive light. The staff visited schools in Phoenix, Seattle, Los Angeles,

³⁸ Interview, October 2, 1995.

³⁹ Interview, October 16, 1995.

⁴⁰ Interview, October 31, 1995.

and Denver. Upon returning from these site visits, those who attended reported to the staff during the Wednesday planning meetings.

The opportunity to visit these places was a motivating experience as related by Mr. Andrus: "We had the money and the interest in faculty members to go and find out what other schools were doing, and it went a long way in adding to the success".⁴¹ Mr. Murray expressed the fact that "we got to see what others were doing and learn from their mistakes...and we didn't have to reinvent the wheel".⁴² This was expressed by others who felt that they obtained valuable information. Mr. Hammer agreed with the importance of these site visits when he said, "I think that a lot of the ideas for the restructuring came from the traveling to see other schools".⁴³

The experience of traveling to these sites was also valuable from the standpoint that the teachers were spending time together getting to know each other. When these small groups of people had the opportunity to travel, they "got to know each other differently...and so they became more connected".⁴⁴ Mr. Hammer discussed one trip that he went on. One of the other teachers that went was a teacher that he "had experienced some differences with in the past". On this trip he came to realize that his perception of her had been mistaken, that "she was actually a party animal".⁴⁵

⁴¹ Interview, October 4, 1995.

⁴² Interview, November 2, 1995.

⁴³ Interview, September 27, 1995.

⁴⁴ Interview, September 30, 1995.

⁴⁵ Interview, September 27, 1995.

The site visits that the staff members went on provided information about what other schools were doing in the arena of restructuring. It also provided the opportunity for staff members to get to know each other, which facilitated future collaboration for successful restructuring.

Business Community Linkage

A move that assisted Dixie High School in the process was the involvement of the local business community through the creation of linkages which involved representatives from law, banking, industry, BLM, chamber of commerce, and Job Service. In the early stages, these businesses provided input in determining what skills were necessary for students to be successfully employed. Employment research has been utilized in the planning of many courses, including those traditionally considered academic.⁴⁶

It was clear that the business community was receptive to the idea as evidenced by the ease of finding businesses leaders who were willing to participate. Mrs. Cox referred to the committee of business leaders that was assembled as being "made up of the bosses from the chamber of commerce, Job Service, Moore Business Forms, BLM and other influential individuals in the business community".⁴⁷

Superintendent Peterson pointed out the importance of involving the business community when he said, "it was critical that they involved the business community in

⁴⁶ Document, Nine District Consortium self evaluation form, May 11, 1993.

⁴⁷ Interview, September 30, 1995.

a meaningful way...so it was a community effort".⁴⁸ The idea that the school was seeking input from the businesses served as a vehicle in getting the entire community to buy into the project. Mr. Hammer noted that "it would have most likely been less successful if this visible part of our community wouldn't have been included".⁴⁹ The business-community linkages were able to alleviate some of the concerns that people had in a community that Mr. Taylor described as being "very suspicious of what is happening in the schools".⁵⁰

There were some concerns about whether the business linkages were used as effectively as possible. Mr. Taylor pointed out that "we didn't capitalize on it to the extent that we could have and the reason is that it takes a lot of time".⁵¹ Another teacher said, "it seemed to take a lot of time for the business people and for the staff members who were involved....I think everyone just got tired".⁵²

Parental Involvement

The staff at Dixie High School was cognizant of the parents and sought their input throughout the process. Parents were encouraged to come to the high school and sit in on the meetings where many were selected to be on some of the particular committees.

⁴⁸ Interview, November 2, 1995.

⁴⁹ Interview, October 20, 1994.

⁵⁰ Interview, October 2, 1995.

⁵¹ Interview, October 2, 1995.

⁵² Interview, October 18, 1994.

One strategy that was less than successful was the large-group meetings that were held for the purpose of informing the parents and other community members.⁵³ Mr. Hammer felt that the meetings were necessary but didn't work because "three or four people who were opposed to the project dominated the meeting".⁵⁴

In order to involve more people, the staff and administration went to what they called neighborhood meetings. Mr. Taylor described the neighborhood meetings:

We met with 10 to 15 families at a particular neighborhood home. We would talk about restructuring ideas, and why it was we were doing what we were doing. We responded to the questions that were asked without suddenly having the whole system choked up. They were a great success, and our parent support became much more evident. As a result, more parents were buying into the restructuring concept.⁵⁵

Much of the success of these neighborhood meetings, according to Mr. Burr, was attributed to the fact that they are "more personal, less volatile...and we can actually talk to people".⁵⁶ Mr. Hammer commented that "these small groups seem to function better....We probably had 40 of these meetings".⁵⁷

⁵³ Document, letter to interested schools, September 30, 1995.

⁵⁴ Interview, September 27, 1995.

⁵⁵ Interview, October 2, 1995.

⁵⁶ Interview, September 29, 1995.

⁵⁷ Interview, September 27, 1995.

These smaller meetings proved to be more effective than the larger meetings held in the school auditorium. In the neighborhood meetings, the teachers and parents "were in a totally different setting...and different groups had different concerns".⁵⁸ Mrs. Cox pointed out that in this smaller group setting, "we started to hear concerns that we had never heard before....Each meeting became focused in a different direction as to the concerns and input of the parents".⁵⁹

There was some concern that even with the neighborhood meetings, the interest wasn't that high among the parents. Mr. Saxton felt that "there just wasn't that much interest in the community",⁶⁰ and Mr. Ward pointed out that he felt that the people that showed up for these meetings were the type "that don't squeak until something rubs them the wrong way".⁶¹ Dixie High School continues to have several of these neighborhood meetings each year.

Articulation of Beliefs and School Mission Statement

One of the early things that the staff at Dixie High School did was to outline a belief system and a mission statement that guided them through the restructuring process. Mr. Ellis noted that "restructuring clarified a school mission statement and it

⁵⁸ Interview, September 30, 1995.

⁵⁹ Interview, September 30, 1995.

⁶⁰ Interview, October 16, 1995.

⁶¹ Interview, November 2, 1995.

developed clear goals".⁶² The belief system that the staff developed was based on "what the staff believed the purpose of the school was and what they wanted to see accomplished with students".⁶³ Mr. Taylor said of the beliefs system:

Once the beliefs system was worked out, we assigned a committee to put together a mission statement. I've always been told that the mission statement is the guiding influence and force of restructuring, and it probably is, but I don't think our mission statement did as much good for us as just our simple statement of beliefs.⁶⁴

The development of this school mission statement turned out to be a time-consuming process. As Mr. Lowe described it, "probably took two years to develop...and involved a lot of group work".⁶⁵ Mrs. Smyly felt that it was time consuming because "we read a lot of literature...visited a lot of places and brainstormed before we came up with this vision".⁶⁶ Mr. Ward maintained that "this process probably wouldn't have been dynamic without the mission statement and accompanying goals that we developed".⁶⁷

⁶² Interview, November 2, 1995.

⁶³ Document, project information, 1993.

⁶⁴ Interview, October 8, 1995.

⁶⁵ Interview, October 16, 1995.

⁶⁶ Interview, October 18, 1995.

⁶⁷ Interview, November 2, 1995.

The beliefs system and school mission statement served as a guide in the strategy and planning of restructuring. Staff members agreed that it was important to have these beliefs and goals in place prior to any wholesale changes. The formulation of these beliefs took place at the retreats and Wednesday planning meetings.

Summary of Critical Events

This flexibility and freedom that the staff was allowed set off a chain of events that assisted the staff in tailoring a school that best fit the needs of all concerned with Dixie High School. These events included Utah State Office of Education endorsement and support, school board support, selection of a project leader, organization of committees, retreats, Wednesday meetings, site visits, business community linkages, parental involvement, and the articulation of a beliefs and school mission statement.

Roles and Relationships

Overview

The section addresses the changing roles and relationships within Dixie High School as it restructured. The importance of site-based decision making was discovered from the interviews held with participants. Nearly every participant in the study pointed out that it was the new autonomy granted to teachers that allowed the changes to take place at this school. District and state administrators agreed that it was the empowering of teachers that was the impetus behind these changes. Had these

changes come entirely from the top down, restructuring probably would have failed (Utah State Office of Education, 1993). Also evident is that the administrator in a restructuring school must be less directive and more of a facilitator who directs, delegates, motivates, and promotes a climate of cohesion and collaboration.

Other crucial aspects of this school were the staff cohesiveness and the opportunity for collaboration. This provided the opportunity for teachers to confront a variety of problems with their colleagues. The five categories that emerged from this part of the restructuring were: 1) site-based decision making 2) changing role of the principal, 3) staff bonding and cohesiveness, 4) staff interaction and collaboration, and 5) emerging leadership.

Site-Based Decision Making

Consensus among the participants of this study was that for a successful endeavor, it had to be as Mrs. Cox pointed out, "based on the belief that if our staff was empowered to make change, that they would be the ones to have the greatest impact...a grassroots movement that became void of administrative mandates".⁶⁸ Once the teachers realized that this was a genuine opportunity and not another top down mandate, they "jumped into the fracas and grabbed the bull by the horns"⁶⁹ as described by Mr. Burr.

⁶⁸ Document, Letter to interested schools, September 30, 1995.

⁶⁹ Interview, October 30, 1995.

Mr. Ward pointed out that in the project, "the only mandate from the state and district was that we were free to do what we wanted to do".⁷⁰ Board President Miles felt that the purpose of the restructuring was not to "tie them down to specific rules or the ways that things have always been done".⁷¹ With this in mind, Mr. Taylor asserted that they were able to "come out of their comfort zones and to explore and experiment the possibilities of creating a renewed school".⁷² It was this carte blanche approach that empowered the teachers to experiment and explore areas that they felt were crucial to the success of the school. Mr. Burr noted:

The reason that restructuring worked here is because it was a grassroots movement. It came from the ground up and it didn't come from faceless people with doctorates or from other administrators sitting behind a desk. The ideas were coming from the people right on the pavement. The ideas came from the people in the classroom.⁷³

The Superintendent of Schools mirrored this by pointing out that "the ideas were posed to the staff in shared governance type of operational decisions at the school".⁷⁴

Several teachers voiced the belief that any type of top down mandate that would have been forced upon them would have been doomed to failure. The current

⁷⁰ Interview, October 31, 1995.

⁷¹ Interview, November 8, 1995.

⁷² Interview, October 2, 1995.

⁷³ Interview, October 29, 1995.

⁷⁴ Interview, November 2, 1995.

principal of Dixie High and former teacher under restructuring, Mr. Hammer voiced this same feeling:

If the superintendent or others from the state would have come to us and said, "I want you to form five academies and I want you to do this and that"....If they would have told us everything that we were supposed to have done....This restructuring would never have happened. We would be exactly the same school that we were 10 years ago.⁷⁵

Through this site-based decision making, it was critical for the teachers to have ownership. It is this ownership as described by Mr. Burr that "makes us feel and behave like professionals".⁷⁶ It is possible for changes to take place from top down sources, but as Mr. Hammer pointed out, "but not with the same enthusiasm and all out effort that I have seen with this school ownership".⁷⁷ Social studies teacher Greg Murray portrayed this feeling:

I feel ownership because I worked on that...so I kind of feel like it is my baby. I understand it...and the rationale behind many of the aspects and I'm committed to it".⁷⁸

Mr. Saxton described the approach that some of the schools had within the Nine-District Consortium as "being administratively driven...with one high school really

⁷⁵ Interview, September 27, 1995.

⁷⁶ Interview, October 30, 1995.

⁷⁷ Interview, September 27, 1995.

⁷⁸ Interview, November 2, 1995.

having a tough time with this approach...and in fact one principal losing his job over it".⁷⁹ If people believe in what they are doing and they create it, they commit to it; it will be a lasting change. Without the ownership of the stakeholder, it will be as Mrs. Cox describes as a situation were if "I don't believe in it, then I blatantly try to do things that will thwart it".⁸⁰ Teachers will challenge what they are forced to do. Mrs. Smyly noted:

Teachers are very stubborn...and if you try to tell them that he or she has to do something it is just like your own kids....What do they do? Nothing but challenge us".⁸¹

There was general agreement that the principal, Ross Taylor was wise when he approached it with the attitude, "if you folks want to do it, it has to come from you",⁸² as described by Mrs. Smyly. Mrs. Cox maintained that the flexibility and freedom that was extended to the teachers was "a morale builder for the members of our staff....people feeling like their opinion mattered, they counted, and they were smart enough that they could come up with some good stuff".⁸³

⁷⁹ Interview, October 16, 1995.

⁸⁰ Interview, September 30, 1995.

⁸¹ Interview, October 18, 1995.

⁸² Interview, October 18, 1995.

⁸³ Interview, September 30, 1995.

Changing Role of the Principal

Prior to the restructuring, the principal of Dixie High School, Mr. Taylor was a traditional school principal. Mrs. Cox characterized him as a "black and white kind of guy....who sometimes had to crack the whip".⁸⁴ There was a general agreement that Mr. Taylor took on a "boss" type role in his leadership at this school. One individual viewed him as being "extremely autocratic and domineering", but as a result of restructuring, "he was able to come out of the comfort zone of domineering to more of a relaxed role as principal".⁸⁵ Mrs. Smyly felt that he became more "open-minded".⁸⁶ The project leader, Mrs. Cox, who spent considerable time with Mr. Taylor, said of his change:

Through this process there were some things that he let go, and he was easier to deal with in terms of seeing that this group was very good and capable. That even when you give them flexibility...that they will work twice as hard. He realized that he didn't have to be a "boss", and he could see that his contributions were very valuable, I think it gave him the leadership by an earned leadership.⁸⁷

Some of the staff members referred to his new role as taking more of a back seat approach. Mr. Taylor explained that "I just wanted to sit with the staff....I simply

⁸⁴ Interview, September 30, 1995.

⁸⁵ Interview, November 9, 1995.

⁸⁶ Interview, October 18, 1995.

⁸⁷ Interview, November 8, 1995.

wanted to be a voice with them".⁸⁸ This approach "allowed him to become another valuable member of the team",⁸⁹ according to Mrs. Cox. Mr. Burr noted that this "back seat leadership style...wasn't normal for him because he is an up front kind of guy and a person who takes charge".⁹⁰

At certain stages of the restructuring, Mr. Taylor had to step forward and take on more of an active role. Many times members of the staff "would still look to him for advice....They still looked to the principal for leadership".⁹¹ Mr. Burr pointed out that Mr. Taylor was "a good leader that recognized when it was best for him to step back....He also knew when it was best for him to jump in and say,'let's go'".⁹² Mr. Taylor commented on the active role that he occasionally had to take:

There were times, I think, when there had to be a little bit of leadership taken to nudge things along. There had to be some time-lines established. There had to be some directions taken and some summations given to what we were doing. So, I suppose there are times when I kind of led out. There were times when I would have to say,'yes, that looks good, but what about this and this'? and some other things that I could see as an administrator.⁹³

⁸⁸ Interview, October 2, 1995.

⁸⁹ Interview, September 30, 1995.

⁹⁰ Interview, September 29, 1995.

⁹¹ Interview, September 27, 1995.

⁹² Interview, September 29, 1995.

⁹³ Interview, October 2, 1995.

Other members of the staff viewed him as a "facilitator" or "coach". Mr.

Mildenhall said that he was "more like a coach....He wanted to keep the process moving and keep the momentum going".⁹⁴ Members of the staff felt that many of the things that he did to facilitate the process, they weren't even aware that they were happening. For example, Mrs. Ferrell stated that "he did a lot of facilitating the process by contacting state people...and he was out planting seeds, and I think that a lot of his effort he did quietly".⁹⁵ Superintendent Peterson concurred with this:

The seeds were planted and the homework was done and Ross [Taylor] had talked with key people on the staff and all those kinds of things to make sure politically, if you will, everything was in line to have it so the skids were greased so they could move forward.⁹⁶

This role as a facilitator was evident in the teachers' view of the Mr. Taylor with his vast educational experience. According to Mr. Hammer, "even though he took a back seat role, the teachers would still look to him for advice....People respected him because he had been in the business for 30 years, and he had seen a lot of things come and go".⁹⁷ In this school the staff had a great deal of respect for Mr. Taylor because of his experience, hard work, and support for the things the staff were trying to accomplish.

⁹⁴ Interview, October 2, 1995.

⁹⁵ Interview, October 17, 1995.

⁹⁶ Interview, November 2, 1995.

⁹⁷ Interview, September 27, 1995.

Staff Bonding and Cohesiveness

The staff at Dixie High School prior to restructuring was very similar to other schools from the standpoint that most of the staff members tended to cluster around the people in their respective departments. With the exception of some of the cliques of teachers, the relationships of the teachers and administration were "business-like,"⁹⁸ according to Mr. Brooks. Mr. Hammer pointed out that "the relationship between some members of the staff prior to restructuring was such that they didn't feel like they could talk to each other".⁹⁹ Mr. Taylor noted the results of restructuring on the staff:

We had a much more congenial staff with almost no polarization. You could walk into a staff meeting and not tell who the vocational teachers were from the math teachers, there was such a mix. The staff had become much more cohesive. It was an important time because of the several new people that were seeking alliances and some who were pretty outspoken and strong leaders.¹⁰⁰

This staff cohesiveness that came about as a result of the bonding was accomplished through the several retreats, site visits, and other events that took place during the restructuring process. Teachers felt that the relationships changed because they had an opportunity to communicate with these people in different settings. It also

⁹⁸ Interview, October 31, 1995.

⁹⁹ Interview, September 27, 1995.

¹⁰⁰ Interview, November 2, 1995.

also "brought the people in the school together to develop and accomplish a shared vision" (Van Leer, 1993). Mr. Andrus viewed this staff cohesiveness as "chemistry within the staff...and is the single most important facet of a good school".¹⁰¹

Many members of the staff felt that without the staff cohesion, the restructuring experience wouldn't have been as meaningful. For example, Mr. Saxton said that "if we wouldn't have had the bonding experiences, we wouldn't have had the synergy to carry out the process," and he characterized these relationships as "almost brother-and sister-like".¹⁰² Mr. Murray noted:

I realized that everyone is a person, and I think that was my favorite part was the getting to know people and relating to them on a personal basis. Even the ones who had some negative feelings about certain aspects of restructuring, it didn't matter because they were one of us. It definitely removed the "us" versus "them" among the faculty.¹⁰³

Some of the staff members spoke of the "trust and loyalty"¹⁰⁴ that prevailed as a result of the bonding that took place. This building of trust and loyalty was important, for as Mr. Taylor pointed out: "it helped us subsequently when we had disagreements

¹⁰¹ Interview, October 4, 1995.

¹⁰² Interview, September 16, 1995.

¹⁰³ Interview, November 2, 1995.

¹⁰⁴ Interview, October 31, 1995.

because rather than pulling things apart, we could agree to disagree".¹⁰⁵ Cohesiveness allowed discussion and debate with a minimal amount of conflict.

Staff Interaction and Collaboration

The former Dixie High School fostered a strong sense of departmentalization and there was no crossover from department to department. It was a situation where "they just kind of built their own department, loyal to their own department, loyal to each other...and wanting what was best for their department"¹⁰⁶, according to Mr. Taylor.

Mr. Mildenhall noted:

With the restructuring the teachers as a whole had to come together...and all of a sudden we were tuning into each other's curriculum and wondering whether there was overlapping and whether or not all things were getting covered.

Restructuring broke down the departmental walls, and thus more teachers were working together.¹⁰⁷

An example of staff collaboration was the integration of subjects across departmental lines. Social studies, art, English, and music teachers established a common preparation time to be able to co-teacher a humanities class. Early in the process much of the staff collaboration came about as a result of the several opportunities to intermingle. Mr. Staheli commented that "not only did good ideas come from the

¹⁰⁵ Interview, October 2, 1995.

¹⁰⁶ Interview, October 2, 1995.

¹⁰⁷ Interview, October 2, 1995.

collaboration in a formal setting but also in the vans and on the planes when we were together in more of an informal setting".¹⁰⁸ Mr. Hammer spoke of the isolation that teachers had previously felt:

Teaching is the only profession where people don't have the time for collaboration. Many of the teachers in this school would go to their room with four walls, and they would stay to themselves. I think that this was detrimental. Restructuring broke down those walls and now we have more teachers that are working together. I think that it was the lunches, retreats, and trips that motivated the teachers to collaborate.¹⁰⁹

The opportunity for the staff at Dixie High School to interact with each other served as a vehicle to solve problems and create in a collective manner. The members of the staff continue to take advantage of the collegiality and information that is available through collaboration.

Emerging Leadership

One of the unintended outcomes of the project was that informal leaders emerged as a result of the restructuring. In a project of this magnitude, it was crucial that key people step forward to lead the project. A new informal leadership structure was created while the "old informal leadership diminished"¹¹⁰ as described by Mrs. Cox. Mr. Brooks said that "before, some of these teachers taught in the closet and you

¹⁰⁸ Interview, September 29, 1995.

¹⁰⁹ Interview, September 27, 1995.

¹¹⁰ Interview, November 8, 1995.

would hardly see them...and then through restructuring, they stepped forward to take charge of what had to be done".¹¹¹ Mrs. Cox described the emergence of these leaders:

I was surprised at some of the people who emerged as leaders in this process.

It changed the dynamics of our school because new people became new leaders in the process. These people became new leaders, new people who were innovative and creative and willing to work really hard. They are still the leaders that you go to for help.¹¹²

One group of teachers that was identified as providing leadership was the English department. Mrs. Wenzel, a teacher in the English department, was key to finding much of the research on what should be tried. "I was constantly providing Cheryl [Cox] and Ross [Taylor] with articles about curriculum and restructuring that I had clipped out of journals", noted Mrs. Wenzel.¹¹³ Another English teacher who was identified by his colleagues as being an informal leader was Mr. Mildenhall. Mr. Mildenhall was placed in the technology academy and filled a role as pointed out by Mrs. Wenzel:

He was an English teacher who became involved in technology, and because he had the verbal skills, reading skills, writing skills, speaking skills... people in technology and others were willing to let Richard

¹¹¹ Interview, October 31, 1995.

¹¹² Interview, September 30, 1995.

¹¹³ Interview, October 16, 1995.

(Mildenhall) take over. He was one who was detail-conscientious, bright and articulate. He became a spokesman across several lines, and often he was one who went to make the presentations to parents.¹¹⁴

Also providing leadership in the English area was Mrs. Smyly, who Mrs. Cox points to as "providing some real leadership in the area of humanities...and who had an extensive background and made many important suggestions".¹¹⁵

Another teacher who emerged as a leader was Greg Murray. Mrs. Wenzel identified him as: "one that will say, 'let's think about this a minute....What if?' He was a real key person that when there was confrontation...he could turn it around".¹¹⁶ Mr. Andrus, the media director of the school, was identified by his peers as being an important leader. Mr. Taylor identified him as the "staff chaplain...who was always a positive influence while he was the media director and he had the capability to be in touch with lots of people that came in and out of the media center"¹¹⁷.

One teacher that had worked alone and never really had much interaction with the rest of the staff was special education teacher, Mrs. Ferrell. Mrs. Cox described her as "a special education teacher whose passion was science...and who integrated special education where she brought her kids into the regular class..She emerged as one of the

¹¹⁴ Interview, October 16, 1995.

¹¹⁵ Interview, September 30, 1995.

¹¹⁶ Interview, October 16, 1995.

¹¹⁷ Interview, October 2, 1995.

the best teachers on the staff".¹¹⁸ Mr. Burr was also identified as one of the key individuals who emerged as a leader in the restructuring process. He was one of the teachers who attended the NDC meetings in Salt Lake City and went on other site visits. Mr. Burr was "an individual who was creative and great at generating ideas",¹¹⁹ according to Mrs. Cox. Mr. Taylor said that "Dave (Burr) is one of those guys who seems to light a fuse in everybody....He is one that always kept us pumped up".¹²⁰ The staff members who emerged as leaders were important in influencing the change process at Dixie High School. This influence took place in both formal and informal settings.

Summary of Roles and Relationships

The staff of the school were empowered to bring about the change at this school. They were empowered by the state and the district office by being allowed to make changes that they themselves felt were in the best interest of the students and community. This empowerment gave teachers ownership of the project, thereby increasing the participation and commitment level of the staff.

Mr. Taylor's role as principal changed from a traditional "boss"-type leader to that of a facilitator. The principal assumed a secondary role in the changes that were taking place at Dixie High School. Staff at the school respected him because of his experience and deserved leadership role.

¹¹⁸ Interview, September 30, 1995.

¹¹⁹ Interview, September 30, 1995.

¹²⁰ Interview, October 2, 1995.

Prior to restructuring, Dixie High School was characterized as a school whose staff got along but were not totally cohesive. As a result of restructuring and the several bonding experiences, the staff became more united. Relationships were altered because the staff members were able to see and work with each other in social situations. This cohesive chemistry was an important element in the success of instituting meaningful change.

The former Dixie High School was portrayed as being departmentalized with little or no collaboration. Restructuring fostered collaboration of colleagues that led to many of the changes that occurred. The opportunity for collaboration was promoted through the working events that provided a social setting for teachers to communicate and share ideas.

In the category of emerging leadership, various staff members began to play important roles in helping to move the process along to bring change. The leaders were informal in that they were not chosen to lead, rather they emerged in social situations with ideas, enthusiasm, and skills that were important for the change process.

Barriers to Change

Overview

Organizations that attempt to bring about major changes will invariably be faced with challenges that have to be addressed and conquered. This third section discusses the barriers that the staff at Dixie High School had to contend with in the process of

restructuring. This section also will point out the strategies that the staff employed to overcome these barriers. The six categories that emerged were as follows: 1) staff opposition, 2) bureaucratic control, 3) parent opposition, 4) lack of resources, 5) enormity of the project, and 6) organizational constancy.

Staff Opposition

Not every teacher supported the changes that occurred at Dixie High School. A group of four or five teachers was identified as opposing the changes for various reasons. Most of these teachers were in the social studies department. One teacher reflected on this opposition: "the personalities of some of the people in the school were extremely negative and one person in particular...being extremely negative and fighting against every change".¹²¹ Mostly these people didn't feel the need to change as expressed by Mrs. Wenzel who said that "you will always have teachers who will want to pull out their files from ten years ago and give that same test because it is ready".¹²² Some of these people served as watchdogs as described by Mr. Taylor:

Some of these people served a good function as "the devil's advocate". You can get swept away with ideas, and you can overlook some things, and so I would say some of those teachers would say, "Hey, wait a minute'. What about this and what about that?" It is good to have opposition in all things for the

¹²¹ Interview, October 18, 1995.

¹²² Interview, October 16, 1995.

purpose of self-examination. You have got to listen to your critics.¹²³

Mrs. Cox spoke of one teacher in particular that "if we could justify to him what we wanted to do, we were in pretty good shape because he would come in and hit us in our weak spots".¹²⁴

Those teachers that resisted the changes were put in slots that allowed them to teach as they had always taught. Mr. Burr referred to one teacher in the science academy who was close to retirement and was reluctant to change his curriculum and teaching style: "it wasn't long before we realized that butting heads was pointless and we went on without him. We left him alone without disdain, but with respect for his years of experience".¹²⁵

Bureaucratic control

Bureaucratic red tape was also a challenge to the staff as they sought to bring about change. Although the staff at this school felt that the state and district offered support, they felt that there were still some areas where change would never be supported. Mrs. Cox, the project leader, felt that "obstacles were many times created by people that we had to go through to make changes...a sort of bureaucratic hoop jumping".¹²⁶ It was this red tape that caused frustration and confusion for the staff

¹²³ Interview, October 2, 1995.

¹²⁴ Interview, September 30, 1995.

¹²⁵ Paper presented to graduate class as part of project, Summer, 1995.

¹²⁶ Interview, September 30, 1995.

who were responsible for the paperwork that had to be done as part of the restructuring. Mrs. Cox noted one example:

We were integrating vocational and academic classes, and it was like the state didn't want to give us the vocational money. We did finally get them to just keep us status quo on our vocational funds. Maybe the state didn't envision something this big when they said that you can do whatever you want with this restructuring.¹²⁷

Dixie High School was still required to comply with state requirements which limited the scope of their effectiveness. Mr. Dyer noted that "fitting in new programs to the requirements of the state seemed to be a problem as far as what supplemented what for graduation or if a class is a vocational class or a science class".¹²⁸ There seemed to be a feeling that the district didn't want any of its programs diminished as a result of the restructuring. For example, Mr. Lowe stated: "The district told us that they didn't want us to do anything that would hurt any other programs, like the articulated program".¹²⁹

Some staff members felt like some people at the state and district level wanted to see immediate change. The staff felt that this may have limited the types of changes that they made due to the prolonged time to implement and see the effects. According to Mr. Andrus, "some people wanted proof of immediate results....It is difficult to meet

¹²⁷ Interview, September 30, 1995.

¹²⁸ Interview, October 10, 1995.

¹²⁹ Interview, October 16, 1995.

the standards of legislators....They want to see that change has made a difference immediately".¹³⁰ Mr. Taylor described the restructuring changes by using the metaphor of raising a baby:

Once the baby is born, people want to know what it looks like and what it will do. You have to tell them that you don't know, it hasn't grown up yet, it will take time to know".¹³¹

Bureaucratic regulation and the desire for the school to produce immediate results were concerns of the staff at this school. The school didn't have a method of coping with this problem but felt that it was "a big obstacle of change"¹³² that was inevitable.

Parent Opposition

The staff felt that the majority of parents were supporters of the changes at Dixie High School. Nearly every participant in this study did refer to a small group of parents that were opposed to the changes. This group of parents appeared in the early stages of the public meetings that were held to inform parents and community members and to get their input. This particular group of parents attended the school board meetings to voice their opposition. They also attended the several committee meetings that were held at the school.

¹³⁰ Interview, October 4, 1995.

¹³¹ Interview, October 2, 1995.

¹³² Interview, October 2, 1995.

This opposition came in the form of criticism at public meetings and in the local newspaper. These parents felt that the changes were going to hurt their children. As Mr. Hammer observed, these people felt that "we were crazy and the kids were never going to be the same....and that we were doing some kind of Nazi experiment".¹³³ Mr. Mildenhall referred to these people as the "Eagle Forum type...and were the exception rather than the rule".¹³⁴ Another teacher felt that some of these people wanted a different role from the one that they were given, and "they wanted to be the driving force in the restructuring process more than just giving input".¹³⁵

One of the negative effects of this group of vocal parents was that of the repercussions that it caused. Staff and administration admitted that it took extra time and energy to counteract these criticisms. Mrs. Smyly noted:

These parents were coming to the information meeting and would cause all kinds of ripples, so we were spending lots of time putting out the fires that they were starting which could have been spent on what I think should have been more positive things.¹³⁶

¹³³ Interview, September 27, 1995.

¹³⁴ Interview, October 2, 1995.

¹³⁵ Interview, October 17, 1995.

¹³⁶ Interview, October 18, 1995.

Mrs. Cox referred to these people as "constant complainers....nd it was disheartening to our staff".¹³⁷ Another teacher talked of a steering committee meeting that almost came to blows because of the constant irritation of this group of people.

The staff dealt with this opposition by making a more concerted effort in public relations to counteract the negative effects of these people. Because the staff had tried to work with these people and nothing positive resulted, the staff made an effort to exclude them from the process. The steering committee was disbanded and a navigational team was formed.¹³⁸ This committee was made up of representatives from the staff, business people, parents, and students. It was selected by invitation through representation in other areas. This move precluded the small group of complaining parents from attending further committee meetings and causing additional problems. Another critical move that was made to eliminate this negative influence was to start neighborhood meetings to replace the large public meetings. This allowed only the families in the immediate neighborhood to attend, preventing it from becoming a large open forum.¹³⁹

What seemed clear was that some parents and community members were not totally prepared to let the school make unfettered changes. The staff considered the changes to be based on sound educational principles and assumed that the parents and community would accept changes with open arms.

¹³⁷ Interview, September 30, 1995.

¹³⁸ Document, Letter to interested schools, September 30, 1993.

¹³⁹ Document, Restructuring notes of teacher, November, 1992.

Lack of Resources

Lack of time was a universal concern among the participants of the study. The Wednesday afternoon meetings that were granted by the school board were important, but still did not provide the kind of time that many of the staff desired. Mr. Burr felt that "we could have easily taken off an entire year with the staff and not teach....just prepare for the changes".¹⁴⁰ Superintendent Peterson likened it to "running the train while they were laying the track",¹⁴¹ and the fact that they had to teach and perform their jobs while at the same time make drastic changes complicated the issue. Mr. Taylor pointed out the problems of time in high schools and the frustration that teachers feel as a result:

Getting many of these things off the ground seemed to be limited by time.

These things can be done but oftentimes there is just not enough time in the day to get it done. We have teachers involved in all kinds of activities and have other kinds of special assignments during the day. To ask them to go out and recruit business and implement them into their program...all you can see them do is roll their eyes into the back of their heads and cloud up and go to tears. The real pain in public education is the tremendous overload on high school teachers. They could do so much more if they had the time.¹⁴²

¹⁴⁰ Interview, September 29, 1995.

¹⁴¹ Interview, November 2, 1995.

¹⁴² Interview, October 2, 1995.

Another resource that the staff at Dixie High School felt was important was that of money. Financial support was provided by the NDC through the state office of education. The money given did provide opportunities for teachers and administrators to do many things, but some staff felt that more money would have provided additional opportunities. There were projects and ideas that were discussed by the staff that didn't get off the ground because, as Mr. Lowe pointed out, "we didn't have the financial backing"¹⁴³

Enormity of the Project

After getting started on the restructuring project, the staff began to see that it was going to be an immense undertaking. Mr. Hammer mentioned the fact that, "we were treading on territory where few had been....It was an awesome task and responsibility".¹⁴⁴ The principal, Mr. Taylor talked of the task:

It was an exciting opportunity, but we didn't have any idea of where we wanted it to go or what we wanted to have happen...and we overdrove our headlights a little bit by not really looking down the road and seeing the challenges that were there when we took off in a direction.¹⁴⁵

¹⁴³ Interview, October 16, 1995.

¹⁴⁴ Interview, September 27, 1995.

¹⁴⁵ Interview, October 2, 1995.

The frustration at the size of the project was expressed in terms of "being overwhelmed" as Mrs. Peterson expressed.¹⁴⁶

The immensity of the project seemed to take a toll on the members of the staff in the form of fatigue. In the process of bringing major changes, many of the staff felt physical and mental fatigue as a result of the time and energy spent. Mr. Dyer pointed out that "as the years have passed, everybody has worn down from all the meetings and inservice...It just kind of wore us down".¹⁴⁷ Mr. Andrus concurred with this observation when he said,

I think that the process has taken a lot out of the people that have really been involved. It has worn down those teachers with a great level of energy and involvement because it has taken a lot. There is not the energy level now because there isn't the drum beating that there once was.¹⁴⁸

During the 1994-95 school year, the new principal, Mr. Hammer, encouraged the teachers "to sit back and take a break...They were just emotionally drained from doing all the extra stuff from restructuring".¹⁴⁹ Some of the teachers indicated that the one year off from implementing change was a valuable break.

¹⁴⁶ Interview, October 25, 1995.

¹⁴⁷ Interview, October 10, 1995.

¹⁴⁸ Interview, October 4, 1995.

¹⁴⁹ Interview, September 27, 1995.

Organizational Constancy

Organizational constancy refers to the attitude of some of the staff, parents, and community members that things should not change. Some staff members attributed this constancy to the conservative nature of the community and its "rich traditions".¹⁵⁰ The old adage that Mr. Dyer used, "if it's not broke, why fix it"?¹⁵¹ was something that the staff felt was a barrier to restructuring at Dixie High School. The attitude of some was that things are going fine, we are graduating some good students, and they are becoming productive citizens, so why should we change a good thing? Mr. Saxton referred to this attitude as "paradigm paralysis",¹⁵² meaning a standard of what people thought education should be had been established and was immovable.

Many of the staff agreed that it is difficult to bring about change when there are many forces that are working against those changes. Mr. Andrus used the analogy of "the lobsters in the bucket....One tries to climb out and all the others try to grab a hold and pull it back down,"¹⁵³ referring to the many influences that resisted change, not only within the ranks of their own staff, but also within the community. Overcoming this condition was accomplished by having a unified staff that was, as Mr. Hammer described, "committed 100% to the idea of change and what needed to be done".¹⁵⁴

¹⁵⁰ Interview, October 31, 1995.

¹⁵¹ Interview, October 10, 1995.

¹⁵² Interview, October 16, 1995.

¹⁵³ Interview, October 4, 1995.

¹⁵⁴ Interviews, November 8, 1995.

Summary of Barriers to Change

This section discussed the barriers that the staff faced as they went through the restructuring process. Although there were other types of barriers, those discussed shared a common thread throughout the interviews.

Although most members of the staff accepted the changes, there was a small group of teachers who were opposed to the changes for various reasons. Those who opposed seemed to be comfortable with their situation. Some of these people served as watchdogs to keep changes within reasonable bounds.

Bureaucratic control and red tape served as obstacles to the changes as well. Integration of vocational and academic classes, and restrictions by the district were examples of where red tape acted as a limitation to what could be changed.

The barrier of parental opposition was manifested by a small group of parents who were opposed to all proposed changes. These parents were characterized as a minority of parents and not representative of most parents. These parents placed frequent hurdles in front of the restructuring process. This was discouraging to some teachers as they expected to see the changes accepted with open arms.

Time and money were the resources that the staff felt were the most limiting to the restructuring process. Although the state and district did provide some of these resources, the staff felt that additional time and money would have been beneficial.

The conservative nature of the community explained for the organizational constancy that faced the restructuring process. Staff felt that people were comfortable with the way that school had always been done. This constancy served as a barrier

because of the influences that were working against the staff to forsake changes and maintain the status quo.

Institutionalization of Change

Overview

This final section of this chapter examines the extent to which the changes have been adopted and are currently being used. Cummings and Huse (1989) pointed out that institutionalization means that changes are not dependent on one individual but exist as part of the culture of the organization. This implies that as restructuring at Dixie High School pertains to this context, that others in the organization shared the norms concerning the appropriateness of the changes.

This section is concerned with the several changes that occurred as a result of the restructuring process and what organizational structures and programs are still functioning. It may also be that some of the structural components of restructuring are intact while at the same time there is little or no commitment from the staff to maximize their effectiveness. In other words, this section is not only concerned with the visible structural changes, but the internal, attitudinal changes of the participants of the study; an evaluation of the degree to which they have "bought into the program". The two categories that make up this section are: 1) structural institutionalization, and 2) internal institutionalization.

Structural Institutionalization

The most visible of the structures that was implemented as a result of the restructuring program was the academy model. The academy model is part of the school-wide guidance model for assisting students to see where they are headed after high school, and how education connects to curriculum and training now, as well as to the jobs they will select in the future. All of the participants spoke of the academy in a positive light and that it was at Dixie High School to stay. Mr. Staheli commented that "the academy model is improving every year....A lot of it has to do with the example of the arts and science academies....They just keep getting better".¹⁵⁵ One visible sign of the strength of the arts academy was the production, "Bye, Bye, Birdie" this past fall. It was advertised in the newspaper and on posters throughout town as being put on by the "Arts Academy". The music, drama, and other areas in the arts academy combined to put on this production.

The science academy continues to involve students in field trips and other projects that are held in conjunction with local agencies. For example, science academy students have been involved in Desert Tortoise counts in the nearby desert as well as the fish counts in the Virgin River. The science academy also continues to promote their summer science camp.

Although less frequent this year, Dixie High School has been the destination of numerous site visits and received several inquiries from other schools about the details

¹⁵⁵ Interview, September 29, 1995.

of the academy model.¹⁵⁶ The administration and counseling department have prepared information packets that are sent out to schools that are interested in the model.¹⁵⁷ Mr. Hammer commented that "we've had people from all over the country that have inquired about what we have done... In fact, one school in Scottsdale [Az] adopted some of the main components that we have".¹⁵⁸ Last year members of the staff visited this school in Scottsdale and made a presentation on the aspects of the academy model.

A further indication of structural institutionalization is that the school has continued courses that cross departmental lines. The staff has experimented with several integrated classes. Some have been successful and remained while others have not. The home economics department, physical education, and health classes are continuing to offer an integrated life skills course for students. Humanities includes the subjects of history, art, English, and music, and teachers continue to have a common preparation time. One course that didn't stay was "babble-on", which exposed students to four different languages during the school year.

One component of the academy model that has struggled but still continues is Advisement and Enrichment (A & E). A student selects a teacher to act as her/his advisor. The teachers provide a more individualized attention and a mentoring relationship. Initially the school started with these advisor meetings every day, where

¹⁵⁶ Interview, September 27, 1995.

¹⁵⁷ Document, project information guidebook.

¹⁵⁸ Interview, September 29, 1995.

the teacher would meet with their advisees. Many teachers thought that meeting every day was too often, so it was changed to weekly. For the 1994-95 year, the A & E was put on hold. Opposition from the staff due to the lack of training for what should take place during the advisee sessions was a major reason for its discontinuance for a time. Some teachers also felt that they were being assigned tasks that should be left to the counselors who were better trained to advise and deal with student problems. At the beginning of the 1995-96 school year, A & E was reinstituted. Teachers felt it was more successful during this time because the advisee sessions were held only once a month, and the teachers received training from the counseling department prior to sessions. Mr. Hammer commented that "in concept, everybody agrees that it is a great idea, and it ought to be done....It's just the hard part of how to do it, and we still haven't found the perfect way to do it".¹⁵⁹

Another structural consideration for restructuring related to the choice of a new principal when Mr. Taylor decided to retire at the conclusion of the third year of restructuring. The staff felt that having a new principal who was familiar with the academy model would be important for continuing on the path laid out early in the restructuring process. The staff made it known to the school board that they supported the assistant principal, Craig Hammer, as the new principal. The school board hired Mr. Hammer a short time later. Mr. Hammer commented: "I feel that the reason that I

¹⁵⁹ Interview, September 27, 1995.

got this job was not because I was the most qualified, but because the staff and board wanted to see that things continue on the present path".¹⁶⁰

The hiring of new teachers also reflected the school's ambition to continue with the changes of restructuring. Mr. Hammer noted:

When we interview, we discuss specifically the changes with potential teachers, and how they feel about change. We are looking for flexible people. We are looking for people who are adaptable to the changes that are continuing to take place.¹⁶¹

Dixie High School has brought in 23 new teachers since restructuring began. There is some concern that because the new teachers haven't been through the pain and experience of the changes, they don't have the same level of commitment to the way things are done. Mr. Burr pointed out:

One thing that we haven't done well in this process is incorporate new teachers into our arena of changing education....Most of the new teachers are very young and are easily confused by the unexpected climate they encounter. We have found that they are so tied up with simply getting through the first year or two that they have little time for newly-developed methods. We will have to concentrate on developing better ways to bring these new

¹⁶⁰ Interview, September 27, 1995.

¹⁶¹ Interview, September 27, 1995.

sheep into the fold, or we will find ourselves in a situation where half of the staff has not experienced the original enticements that made the rest of us buy into change.¹⁶²

Superintendent Peterson felt that the changes were on a firm foundation and maintained that "for the new teachers, the program has been solid enough that they have had the attitude that this is the way business is done here, and therefore it has carried itself".¹⁶³

Critical to the continuation of site-based decision making has been the navigational team. This group has academy linkages that involve parents, students, the college, and business in decisions that impact Dixie High School.¹⁶⁴ The navigational team continues to meet on a monthly basis and makes recommendations to the principal, who retains full veto power by virtue of his ultimate responsibility for governance. Academy council directors and various task forces continue to make recommendations to the navigational team for consideration.

Many other changes, such as competency-based curriculum, inclusion of special education students, and the integration of honors students into regular classes have continued since their implementation. Most, if not all of the structural elements and programs are still in place at Dixie High School, although some of them have struggled for a variety of reasons.

¹⁶² Personal paper presented to graduate class as project, Summer, 1995.

¹⁶³ Interview, November 2, 1995.

¹⁶⁴ Document, Letter to interested schools, September 30, 1995.

Internal Institutionalization

Internal institutionalization means that the members of the staff have accepted the changes and are attempting to be more innovative as a result of restructuring. These attitudinal changes are reflected in the beliefs, habits, values, and practices that occur in an organization after restructuring. The success and longevity of the changes that were created depend in part on the personal commitment of the individual to the achievement of the goals within the organization.

Several members of the staff talked of this new perspective on teaching and how these changes are being implemented. Mr. Murray felt that "if we went back to doing exactly what we were doing before, we still wouldn't be the same because our attitudes have changed".¹⁶⁵ This belief was also reflected by Mr. Saxton who said, "I really don't think that Dixie High School can ever, or will ever, be the same high school it was five years ago as a result of restructuring".¹⁶⁶ Mr. Hammer noted that the restructuring has promoted self-examination among teachers, and what is best for the students:

The school has never been the same since the changes. Teachers will not go back to their old teaching methods. The most healthy thing that has come about as a result of change is not the academy model or other aspects, but the fact that the teachers are doing things that are best for the kids. They have

¹⁶⁵ Interview, November 2, 1995.

¹⁶⁶ Interview, October 16, 1995.

taken a hard look at themselves and made some drastic changes, and I mean from top to bottom.¹⁶⁷

It was pointed out that the commitment was such that if the school ever reverted back to its former structure, that many teachers would leave, as expressed by Mr. Burr:

If the state office came to us and said, "O.K., you have to stop all of these programs because you are the only one doing it, and all the schools have to be the same, so you have to stop this", I think that you would find that many of the people that were involved in the process would leave. I know that I would leave. I couldn't go back. If it were forced to go away, I think you would see mass exodus here. It is here to stay and will only get stronger. That is very comforting to a guy like me who has been around through the whole thing.¹⁶⁸

Mrs. Ferrell felt that the changes at this school are permanent. She said, "I know that some of the older teachers think that this is a pendulum swing, and I don't see that it is....I don't think we will ever go back to the way things were".¹⁶⁹

Several of the staff members referred to the changes as continuing to evolve and improve. Mr. Hammer felt that they weren't saddled to the "it" syndrome, the notion "that once 'it' is figured out, then 'it' can be kept just the way 'it' is".¹⁷⁰ Mrs. Smyly stated that "we are still refining...throwing things out and adding to all the time....I

¹⁶⁷ Interview, September 27, 1995.

¹⁶⁸ Interview, September 29, 1995.

¹⁶⁹ Interview, October 17, 1995.

¹⁷⁰ Interview, September 27, 1995.

don't think restructuring will ever be totally completed".¹⁷¹ Principal Hammer reflected that "when we first got into this, we thought it would take two or three years and it would be over....From my experience with the change process, I don't think that it ever ends".¹⁷² Mr. Taylor pointed out that the staff learned improvement is continual:

We learned that there are better ways to do things. We are not the owners of utopia. There is always a way to look at something that will be more helpful, that will move the students into a better environment with a better attitude and a better vision about school.¹⁷³

School board member Mrs. Miles agreed that the school was not finished, saying "they are still finding ways to perfect the changes and work things out".¹⁷⁴

Throughout the interviews, none of the participants ever expressed "we have tried this, now things will get back to normal". Instead, the staff and administration felt that changes that resulted from the restructuring were significant and had improved the school and its effectiveness.

Summary of Institutionalization of Change

The institutionalization of change at Dixie High was measured by the present existence of the structural programs that were created as a result of the restructuring.

¹⁷¹ Interview, October 18, 1995.

¹⁷² Interview, November 2, 1995.

¹⁷³ Interview, October 2, 1995.

¹⁷⁴ Interview, November 9, 1995.

The overwhelming majority of the structural changes and programs are still in existence after five years of application. At least one of the major components, A & E, struggled and was discontinued for one year. Normal staff turnover was a concern because it was doubted that new staff members would share the same level of commitment to the changes. The hiring of new teachers with open minds to change and who would conform to the way things were done was one way that the principal and staff dealt with normal staff replacement.

The institutionalization of change at Dixie High School was also measured by the attitudes of the participants as seen in their beliefs, habits, values, and practices. Members of the staff felt that the changes would endure, but that if the school did revert back to its former self, then many of the staff members would most likely leave. There was general agreement that restructuring is an ongoing process of change and improvement.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS, WORKING HYPOTHESES, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND FURTHER RESEARCH

Introduction

This interpretive case study examined the changes that resulted from restructuring in a high school. The data collected from the interviews, site documents, and external documents revealed the extent to which the changes were institutionalized at Dixie High School. It also revealed the changes in the roles and relationships of the teachers and administrators at this school. The barriers that impeded restructuring were also revealed.

This case study was concerned with the building of theory as it related to organizational development and change theory. This theoretical construct was used to explain the realities of this case study and provided a basis for action in the arena of events and process of school restructuring.

In this section, important concepts from the review of the literature were compared with the results of the study. Concepts will be briefly defined in this section, since terms and ideas were developed in greater detail in the review of the supporting

literature. Appropriate sources will be cited. First, this chapter summarizes the case study findings. Second, working hypotheses that were inferred from the study findings are discussed. Lastly, the implications and recommendations for educational administration and future research are outlined.

Summary of the Findings

Overview

The findings of this study were summarized according to a) the events critical to change, b) the significance of site-based decision making, c) the changes in roles and relationships, d) the barriers to restructuring, and e) the extent of institutionalization of change. The results of this case study supported findings from the review of the literature. In the following paragraphs, summaries of the findings with conjunctive similarities to the literature will be addressed.

Critical Events

The events that were critical to the process were those that created the conditions necessary for change. Such events as the retreats and the site visits were essential to "breaking down walls"¹⁷⁴ that divided the staff. These bonding experiences that the staff shared were important for building staff cohesion. As Mr. Mildenhall stated, "we could then associate on different levels".¹⁷⁵ This cohesiveness was important for

¹⁷⁴ Interview, October 2, 1995.

¹⁷⁵ Interview, October 2, 1995.

change because it resulted in a spirit of cooperation and teamwork among staff and administration. These events were described in terms of Lawrence and Lorsch's model of integration and differentiation as outlined by Cummings and Huse (1989). The events of restructuring assisted the organization by fostering a high level of integration. High levels of integration were shown by coordination, collaboration, and communication that existed in the school.

The organizational meetings utilized for the purpose of planning and organization are expressed in terms of Bennis' et al. (1976) problem solving model. This model was reflected through the diagnoses of what needed to be changed in the school. Proposed solutions to school improvement, selection of solutions, and the implementation of the solutions as it relates to change in the school were all essential elements to successful restructuring. It was through such events as the site visits, Wednesday planning meetings, and committee efforts that many of the ideas, beliefs, and strategies were formulated by staff members for the purpose of restructuring.

Neighborhood meetings and business linkages allowed for communication and collaboration among the staff members, parents, and community. In Havelock's (1973) Linkage Model, it was suggested that the user be related to outside sources and must enter into a reciprocal relationship with the outside resource that corresponds to what is happening in the school. These relationships, as suggested by Havelock (1973), were expressed in terms of linkages between the school and community. These linkages with the community were essential for building political support within the community at large and as a means to keep a "finger on the pulse" of the community.

The linkages were maintained through the navigational team that was comprised of students, teachers, parents, administrators, and business leaders. The navigational team acted as the site-based decision making team.

In summary, these events allowed the process of restructuring to transpire. These events were utilized for planning, decision making, and implementation of change in the restructuring process.

Roles and Relationships

Site-Based Decision Making

The staff at Dixie High School was empowered to bring about change as a result of the state office of education and the local school board's willingness to allow this school to create change. Cummings and Huse (1988) referred to decentralized decision making as differentiation. Differentiation is defined as the degree of autonomy given to the various parts of an organization. In this school context, it can be concluded that there was a high degree of differentiation as evidenced by the level of autonomy that was allowed the staff.

The staff made major changes in the curriculum, instituted a comprehensive guidance counseling program, and brought about a multitude of other changes that confirmed the decentralization of traditional power. Board president Miles commented that the purpose of the restructuring was "to allow the staff members to create the changes...and not tie them down to specific rules or the way that things have always

been done".¹⁷⁶ Staff and administration referred to this shared governance as a "grassroots movement," and as Mr. Burr commented "it didn't come from faceless people with doctorates".¹⁷⁷

The justification for site-based decision making in the context of this school rested with two propositions postulated by Fullan (1982): 1) all decisions should be made at the lowest possible level, the school being the primary decision-making entity, and 2) change is not imposed by external procedures but rather by ownership that results from the opportunity to participate in defining change and flexibility to adapt it to individual needs of each school. The school conducted its site-based decision making through the navigational team that was made up of staff, students, parents, and business leaders. It was this personal ownership that fostered commitment to the success of the restructuring. Mr. Murray reflected that "I feel ownership because I worked on that....so I kind of feel like it is my baby. I understand it....and the rationale behind it, and many of the aspects, and I'm committed to it".¹⁷⁸

In summary, it was the site-based decision making or the grassroots movement, as described by participants, that allowed staff, parents, and students to have more control of the school reorganization. Overall, the organizational culture of this school in terms of beliefs, habits, and values was more open, participatory, and supportive than before the restructuring process. Important components that emerged from the context of

¹⁷⁶ Interview, November 8, 1995.

¹⁷⁷ Interview, September 29, 1995.

¹⁷⁸ Interview, November 2, 1995.

restructuring at Dixie High School included the following: arrangements for parents, students, and community to share concerns and ideas; capability to change and modify curriculum; and participation of the staff in hiring new personnel. The concept of site-based decision making was supported by Odden and Wohlstetter (1995), David (1995), Sizer (1988), Murphy (1991), Smith and Perky (1985), Huse and Cummings (1988), and others.

The Principal

The principal at Dixie High went from a "boss" leadership style to that of a school facilitator. The role of the principal as a facilitator is outlined by Hall and Hord (1987) who argued that the administrator of the restructured high school must be less of a director and more of a facilitator.

The approach of Mr. Taylor at Dixie High School reflected the role changes described by Murphy (1994). The first role is that of leading from the middle. This meant that the principal was willing to orchestrate from the background, to facilitate, and act as an equal. The staff felt that he took more of a back seat approach, and as Mr. Taylor described, "I just wanted to sit with the staff....I simply wanted to be a voice with them".¹⁷⁹ Referring to his central role in the process, Mr. Burr pointed out that Mr. Taylor "recognized when it was time for him to step back....He also knew when it was best for him to jump in and say, 'lets go'".¹⁸⁰

¹⁷⁹ Interview, October 2, 1995.

¹⁸⁰ Interview, September 29, 1995.

The second role was that of enabler. Murphy (1994) described the principal as an enabler, who supported teacher efforts to be successful through formulating a shared vision, promoting a network of relationships, allocating resources that were consistent with the vision, and by providing information to staff members. Mr. Taylor was key in the promotion of the site visits, retreats, and other activities that fostered staff collaboration and bonding. Staff looked to Mr. Taylor for information. According to Mr. Hammer, "even though he [Mr. Taylor] took a back-seat approach, the teachers still looked to him for advice"¹⁸¹ because of his 30 years of experience. Mr. Taylor enabled teachers by providing money, access to facilities, and time.

Expanding the school community was the third role of the principal. Murphy (1994) described extending the school community as expanding public relations activities with external constituents. The superintendent characterized the work of Mr. Taylor as "greasing the skids....and planting the seeds"¹⁸² among the people in the community. Accompanied by Mrs. Cox, Mr. Taylor attended neighborhood meetings, public meetings, and business meetings. This was an attempt by the principal to establish communication with community, establish ties, and promote the school in a positive light.

¹⁸¹ Interview, September 27, 1995.

¹⁸² Interview, November 2, 1995.

Emerging Leadership

One of the unintended outcomes of restructuring was the emergence of individual staff members as leaders in the restructuring process. Prior to restructuring, most of the key individuals in the restructuring process would not have been identified as leaders. Mrs. Cox commented that she "was surprised at some of the people who emerged as leaders in this process," and she noted that "it changed the dynamics of our school".¹⁸³ These teachers were individuals who were identified by their peers as "willing to come out of their comfort zone"¹⁸⁴ and were "willing to do the extra work".¹⁸⁵

The informal leaders assumed different roles in the change process, depending on their interests and special skills. One teacher assumed a leadership role "because he had the verbal, writing...and speaking skills"¹⁸⁶ that were needed in the vocational areas. Another informal leader procured much of the research that was crucial in developing the ideas for restructuring. Mr. Burr was described as a leader who "seems to light a fuse in everybody".¹⁸⁷ Teacher leadership is conceptualized through teacher empowerment and its new responsibilities. The new responsibilities extended the roles of the teachers beyond the confines of their own classrooms. Smylie and

¹⁸³ Interview, September 30, 1995.

¹⁸⁴ Interview, November 17, 1994.

¹⁸⁵ Interview, October 2, 1995.

¹⁸⁶ Interview, October 16, 1995.

¹⁸⁷ Interview, September 29, 1995.

Denny (1989) maintained that the development of new leadership roles for teachers are at the forefront of restructuring. Sergiovanni (1989) suggested that schools should look at leadership in terms of its density in the organization and that leadership roles should be shared.

Staff Cohesiveness and Collaboration

Prior to restructuring, Dixie High School was characterized by staff as being very departmentalized with many of the staff teaching in isolation. This isolation was characterized by Mr. Hammer as "each teacher was an island unto themselves".¹⁸⁸ It was participation in restructuring and related events that accomplished what Mr. Burr called "some serious bonding".¹⁸⁹ The result was that "we had a more congenial staff with almost no polarization".¹⁹⁰ Teachers felt that the improved relationships provided the momentum to carry out the process. The school climate was such that teachers were able to get along, and according to Mr. Taylor, this cohesiveness "allowed the process to go forth with a minimal amount of conflict".¹⁹¹

Restructuring fostered collaboration among colleagues that led, in turn, to many of the changes that occurred. Much of the collaboration occurred in informal settings that allowed staff members to talk with colleagues, therefore allowing a free exchange of

¹⁸⁸ Interview, September 27, 1995.

¹⁸⁹ Interview, September 29, 1995.

¹⁹⁰ Interview, October 2, 1995.

¹⁹¹ Interview, November 18, 1994.

ideas. These collaborative relationships continue with the integration of subjects that cut across traditional departmental lines.

The retreats, Wednesday meetings, and site visits provided formal opportunities for collaboration where teachers were able to "experiment, create, and brainstorm the possibilities of what could be done".¹⁹² Informal meetings created an environment for collaboration as well, and occurred in such places as the faculty lounge, during travel to site visits, and after hours at the retreats. Mr. Burr concludes, "that the best stuff didn't come out of the formal meetings....The best ideas came from conversations in a hot tub or out on midnight walks".¹⁹³ Informal settings as a vehicle for change were expressed in terms of Lipham's et al. (1985) social interaction model that stressed that adoptions originated outside the formal adoption system. Staff cohesiveness also allowed the staff to "discuss, argue, and disagree without staff division".¹⁹⁴

Cummings and Huse (1989), reporting on Lawrence and Lorsch concepts of integration, supported the notion that organizations such as schools need a high level of communication and collaboration. This was accomplished through the events that fostered the bonding of relationships in the early stages of restructuring. A collaborative approach to change in schools has enormous support in the literature.

Sizer (1992), March and Odden (1988), Cummings and Huse (1989), Hargreaves (1995), and many others have supported this collaborative approach. It is possible that

¹⁹² Interview, September 30, 1995.

¹⁹³ Interview, September 29, 1995.

¹⁹⁴ Interview, September 18, 1994.

in subsequent years, collaborative efforts will continue to foster changes, or at very least, a successfully restructured school.

Barriers to Change

Many of the inhibitors to restructuring reported in the literature also impacted Dixie High School. Among these were stagnant practices and attitudes of educators, the massive amount of time that is needed, limited resources, lack of funding, parental opposition, bureaucratic red tape, enormity of the project, and organizational constancy. These frustrations to restructuring are examined in literature sources by Sizer (1989), Moffit (1994), Lewis (1989), Colvin (1987), DeFour (1995), and others.

Two significant problems that slowed or inhibited this school from making changes were discussed in terms of organizational constancy and parent opposition. After the site-based efforts had mobilized the staff to make changes and after having been given financial and regulatory freedoms from state and local bureaucracy, the most significant obstacles to change were the attitudes and expectations of the local community. The staff at Dixie High School was faced with the question as stated by Mr. Taylor: "How do we convince a public that there are more effective models which may look quite different from existing school, when many people believe their local schools are doing fine the way they are, and thus, they will resist major changes?" Mr. Saxton referred to this attitude as "paradigm paralysis".¹⁹⁵ The school made significant efforts to include large segments of the local community in the

¹⁹⁵ Interview, October 16, 1995.

change process. Superintendent Peterson commented that "the staff went above and beyond the call of duty to inform people".¹⁹⁶

Much of the criticism for the changes was deflected by implementation of the neighborhood meetings and the business community linkage; the staff expressed the fact that these efforts were very time and energy intensive. Although the changes were based upon what staff called "sound educational practices",¹⁹⁷ the school was not given unlimited license by the community to make major changes.

Institutionalization of Changes

The institutionalization of change at Dixie High School appeared to align with what Cummings and Huse (1989) described as "numerous others' shared norms concerning the appropriateness of the changes". An examination of the restructuring would indicate that most, if not all, of the structural and program changes that were made from 1991-93 have continued and share general acceptance by the staff. Perhaps the most visible of the changes is that of the academy model. The academy model continues to guide the placement of students in areas of their interest and serves as a focus for school-wide guidance. The integration of subjects across the curricula continues, as does the site-based decision making body, the navigational team. Although now functioning, the advisement and enrichment program has struggled. Staff training seemed to have provided the impetus to get A and E back on track,

¹⁹⁶ Interview, November 2, 1995.

¹⁹⁷ Interview, October 2, 1995.

although this program lacked the level of commitment that was seen in other aspects of the restructuring project.

The institutionalization of the changes at this school was also reflected in the beliefs, habits, and practices of the individuals. The staff was upbeat and positive about what has been accomplished and are committed to see that the changes stay in place. Mr. Saxton reflected on the magnitude of changes, saying that "I really don't think that Dixie High School can ever or will ever be the same high school it was five years ago".¹⁹⁸ Others teachers felt ownership to the point that if they were forced to return to a traditional mode, there would be, as Mr. Burr described, a "mass exodus"¹⁹⁹ of teachers from the school.

Several members of the staff noted that the implementation of the changes was not completed, that change was would be continually evolving. This belief was expressed by Mrs. Smyly who said, "We are still refining...throwing things out and adding to all the time....I don't think restructuring will ever be totally completed".²⁰⁰ Mr. Hammer pointed out that because of the restructuring process, the staff would avoid the "it" syndrome. He described this as the idea "that once 'it' is figured out, then 'it' can be kept just the way 'it' is".²⁰¹ For many members of the staff, restructuring was an attitude of finding ways to improve effectiveness in the school organization, and most

¹⁹⁸ Interview, October 15, 1995.

¹⁹⁹ Interview, September 29, 1995.

²⁰⁰ Interview, October 18, 1995.

²⁰¹ Interview, September 27, 1995.

importantly, discovering and implementing what was best for the students.

One area of concern for the members of the staff who participated in the restructuring process was the several new teachers who had joined the staff in the past few years. Because these people did not participate in the process, they might not feel the commitment to the structural changes and would therefore threaten their continued existence. Mr. Burr commented that there needed to be more of an effort "to bring these people into the fold",²⁰² so that they would share similar high levels of commitment and ownership.

Working Hypotheses

Working hypotheses have been generated from the results of the study. Although the transferability of these working hypotheses is limited to similar school contexts and conditions, the fundamental purpose of the hypotheses is to provide others useful information on the issues, obstacles, and facilitators in the process of restructuring. It will also provide insight into the issues and implications for additional study on this topic. The study consists of the following four working hypotheses:

Hypothesis One

Site-based decision making is characterized by having a high level of differentiation that extends abundant autonomy to the various parts of the school organization and community.

²⁰² Interview, September 29, 1995.

This study points out that the decisions for making change were made at the lowest possible level--the school. It also revealed that changes were not imposed by top down mandates but were driven by a sense of ownership that resulted from the opportunity to initiate the changes within the school.

The study revealed that the empowerment given teachers through the site-based decision making allowed key individuals to emerge as leaders in the restructuring process. It was these staff leaders who were crucial in the generation of ideas, planning, and implementation of restructuring.

The staff selection of a project leader was also critical in leading the restructuring project. The neutral position of counselor and her ability to use group counseling skills were keys to the success of the project.

The existence of a committee system that created correspondence between the decisions to be made and the most appropriate people to discuss and resolve these decisions was essential. Committees of respective stake-holders and membership overlap provided a communication network that was critical to the success of the committee structure.

Hypothesis Two

Successful change depends on building a high level of integration that stresses a collaborative culture among the teachers and the wider community.

Restructuring required fundamental change in the relationships among teachers, parents, administrators, and the community. Before a collective action such as

restructuring can take place, relationships must be built among these groups. These relationships constitute the culture of the school. This collaborative culture created a climate of trust in which teachers combined resources, dealt with complex and unexpected problems, and shared successes and failures.

The study revealed that time and opportunities for the broadening of relationships and collaboration must be provided to the school staff. Time away from school in the form of retreats or half school days provided an opportunity for teachers to bond and collaborate in both formal and informal settings. Coordinated planning times in the case of the integration of subjects also provided opportunity for staff to collaborate.

Hypothesis Three

The principal in a restructuring high school moves from the apex of the pyramid of power to the center of the organizational network where he/she must function as an enabler and facilitator.

The principal of this restructured school acted as an equal participant in shared decision making. In this empowerment paradigm, the principal retained a significant role but not the greatest centrality in the school organization.

The study showed that the principal of this school went from a controlling principal to one who was willing to lead from the background. Through the process of restructuring, the principal enabled teachers by acquiring resources, providing information, developing networks of relationships, promoting teacher development, and providing leadership consistent with school beliefs and mission statement.

Hypothesis Four

The institutionalization of change in a restructured high school is exhibited through continuation of structures and programs of the organization. The persistence of change is also seen in the shared beliefs, attitudes, and values of the staff about the appropriateness of changes.

This study revealed that the staff of Dixie High School continued to utilize the changes that they perceive as enhancing student learning and preparing students for future work. As various components of the changes became a part of the organization, members of the staff became socialized and committed to their continuation.

The study also revealed that the changes that occurred as a result of restructuring were not static but in a state of constant evolution. Changes were sustained through the efforts of the members of the organization to continue to refine and improve the positive aspects of those respective changes.

Implications and Recommendations for Educational Administration

In this case study of school restructuring, several recommendations for educational administrators were derived. These recommendations were associated with the changes that occurred in a school as it went through the restructuring process. Although the recommendations were derived from the context of Dixie High School, important lessons may be applied to other schools going through the restructuring

process. Educational administrators should apply the recommendations that are appropriate to the needs of their respective schools.

The first recommendation is that the school restructuring process be accomplished through a decentralization of power that allows stakeholders to be directly involved in the decision making process. This generates the sense of ownership needed to power the often difficult changes that restructuring entails. Shared decision-making creates the conditions within the school that facilitate creativity, improvement, and continuous professional growth.

School improvements suggest through a top down approach run the risk of not being accepted or implemented by the teacher in the classroom. This point reinforces the need to involve the teachers and others who are going to be the implementors of change. Schools are unlikely to improve unless teachers, who are the main implementors, are able to shape the direction of change.

Leadership in change efforts does not have to be provided by people in traditional leadership positions; therefore, administrators need to allow support, encourage, and leadership from others in the organization. Building on others' strengths and developing leadership creates positive energy in staff members and in the school change process. Broadening the leadership base creates additional impetus to fuel the change process.

Site-based decision making thrives under the direction of site committees or councils. A committee made up of all the constituencies-parents, administrators, teachers, community members, and students-created a communication network

necessary for the success of the school changes. The challenge to administrators was to increase the likelihood that decisions would be participatory, informed, and sensitive to the particular setting. Each school's context and its respective change project would be somewhat different. There must be coordination of people, resources, and ideas in the context of a local community for changes to be successful. What may have worked in one situation, may not work in another.

The second recommendation is that the principal of the school take a secondary role in the process of change. Change that is perceived by staff as being forced upon them by the principal is less likely to be accepted. The principal must take on the role of an enabler and supporter of teachers in the school through developing relationships, providing information, allocating the necessary resources, and fostering teacher development.

The third recommendation is that time and opportunity be provided to staff to develop and enhance relationships, and engage in collaboration during the change process. Successful change depends on the building of a collaborative school environment among teachers.

Administrators can utilize several strategies to overcome the structures of teacher isolation. Time, in the form of half school days, that allows the entire staff to come to together for a common planning time is one possible aid. The opportunity to meet in informal settings such as retreats enhances relationships and encourages communication and innovation among staff members. The private sector has used retreats with great success. Educators can expect no less from these experiences.

Coordinated planning times foster collaboration among teachers who teach the same subject or who are in cross-curricular team-teaching fosters situations. The benefits from this time planning result in more quality time spent by staff members with students, higher levels of staff morale, improved performance, and more time to innovate and improve existing programs.

The fourth recommendation is that in order to continue to enhance the structures and programs, administrators must encourage the improvement and evolution of the respective changes. This can be accomplished through continued teacher training and collaborative efforts that bring about the changes in the initial stages. In order to reinforce structures and programs, it is recommended that administrators adopt a rewards system that conforms with the need for respective changes.

It should be noted that the institutionalization of change takes time and persistence. There most likely will be failures in the process. Change is not always a neat and orderly venture. Often change is a process of taking calculated risks and trying something new or different. Attempts which do not show immediate success need to be given adequate time to work. Periodic evaluations should be regularly performed for the purpose of refining and making the necessary alterations. Persistence in the change process is crucial. Staff and administrators must allow themselves the latitude to try, fail, and try again to improve their school.

Further Research

Several research topics could follow on the heels of the research presented here.

First, there has been little discussion of the results of restructuring on student achievement in this school. A study of these effects of restructuring on the achievement levels and attitudes of the student population would be appropriate.

Second, there has been some question as to the extent of student understanding of the academy model. Additional research could shed light on student understanding and utilization of this comprehensive guidance program. Specific to this school, additional research could include the perceptions and acceptance level of the community at large.

Third, additional research could delineate the emergence of staff leadership in the change process and could answer the following questions: Who are the key participants in restructuring and reform activities? How do they emerge? Is there a personality type or types who are more likely to become the change agents in a school?

Fourth, this study was completed following the second year of implementation. Additional information pertaining to the continuation of the structures and programs of restructuring at this school could be gathered at the five year status.

References

- Aronstein, L.W., Marlow, M., & Desilets, B. (1990, April). Detours on the road to site-based management. Educational Leadership, 12, (6) , 61-63.
- Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. (1986, September). School reform policy: a call for reason. Alexandria, Va: Author.
- Baldrige, J.V., & Deal, T.E. (1975). Managing change in educational organization: sociological perspectives, strategies, and case studies. Berkeley: McCutchan Publishing.
- Bacharach, S.B. (1990). Educational reform: making sense of it all. Boston: Allyn Bacon.
- Backman, T. (1991, May 17). Preparation is what restructuring is all about. The Daily Spectrum, p. 8.
- Beare, H. (1989, September). Educational administration in the 1990's. Paper presented at the National Conference of the Australian Council for Educational Administration, University of New England, Armidale, New South Wales, Australia.
- Becker, H. S. (1968). Social observation and social case studies. In International encyclopedia of the social sciences (Vol. 11). New York: Crowell.
- Bennis, W., Benne, K., Chin, R., & Corey K. (1975). General strategies for effecting changes in human systems. In Bennis, W. G., Benne, K.D., & Chin, R. (Eds.), The planning of change (3rd ed.). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Bogdan, R.C. & Biklen, S.K. (1982). Qualitative research for education: an introduction to theory and method. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Borg, W.R. & Gall, M.D. (1989). Educational research. New York: Longman.
- Borg, W.R. & Meredith, D. (1989). Educational research. New York: Longman Press.

- Boyd, W.L. (1987, Summer). Public education's last hurrah: schizophrenia, amnesia, and ignorance in school politics. Educational evaluation and policy analysis, 9, (2) , 85-100.
- Boyd W.L., Hartman, W.T. (1988). The politics of educational productivity. In Monk, O., and Underwood, J. (Eds.), Distributing educational resources within nations, states, school districts, and schools. Cambridge, MA: Ballinger.
- Boyer, E.L. (1983). High school: a report on secondary education in america. New York: Harper and Row.
- Bradley, A. (1989, November 1). School-restructuring efforts forcing principals to redefine their roles. Education Week, 9, (9) , 1, 10-12.
- Burgess, R. (1985). Strategies of educational research: qualitative methods. London: Falmer Press.
- Burns, J.M. (1978). Leadership. New York: Harper and Row.
- Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy. (1986). A nation prepared: teachers for the twenty-first century. Washington, D.C: Author.
- Carnegie Council for Adolescent Development. (1989). Turning points. Washington, DC: Author.
- Cartwright, D. & Zander, A. (1960). Group dynamics: research and theory, 2nd ed. Evanston, IL: Row, Peterson and Company.
- Chapman, J. & Boyd, W.L. (1986, Fall). Decentralization, devolution, and the school principal: Australian lessons on statewide educational reform. Educational Administration Quarterly, 22, (4) , 22-28.
- Chin, R. (1967). Basic strategies and procedures in effecting change. In Morphet, E.L., & Ryan, C.O. (Eds.), Planning and effecting needed changes in education. Denver, CO: Designing Education for the Future.
- Chubb, J.E. (1988, Winter). Why the current wave of school reform will fail. The Public Interest, 90, 28-49.
- Chubb, J.E., & Moe, T.M. (1990). Politics, markets, and America's schools. Washington, DC: Brookings Institute.
- Cistone, P.J. (1989, August). School-based management: shared decision-making in dade county. Education and Urban Society, 21, (4) , 393-399.

- Clark, D., & Astuto, T. (1994, March). Redirecting reform: challenges to popular assumptions about teachers and students. Phi Delta Kappan, 78, (10) , 513-520.
- Clark, D.L., & Meloy, J.M. (1989). Renouncing bureaucracy: a democratic structure for leadership in schools. In Sergiovanni, T.J. & Moore, J.A. (Eds.), Schooling for tomorrow: directing reform to issues that count. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Clark, D.L., & Lotto, L.S., Astuto, T.A. (1984, Summer). Effective schools and school improvement: a comparative analysis of two lines of inquiry. Educational Administration Quarterly, 20, (3) , 41-68.
- Clune, W.H., & White, P.A. (1988). School based management: institutional variation, implementation, and issues for further research. Center for Policy Research in Education. Madison, Wis.
- Colvin, R. (1987). Studying the effects of reform. Educational Research, 16, (6) , 7-9.
- Conley, S.C. (1989, March). Who's on first? school reform, teacher participation, and the decision-making process. Paper presented at the annual meeting of American Educational Research Association, San Francisco.
- Corcoran, T.B. (1989). Restructuring education: A new vision at hope essential high school. In Rosow, J.M., & Zager, R. (Eds.), Allies in educational reform. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Council of Chief State School Officers. (1989). Success for all in a new century: adolescents: middle schools gain with 'focus' on child. Education Week, 8, (39) 1 , 20.
- Covey, S.R. (1989). The seven habits of highly effective people. New York: Simon and Schuster.
- Cuban, L. (1989). The "at-risk" label and the problem of urban school reform. Phi Delta Kappan, 70, (10) , 780-784.
- Cummings, T.G. & Huse, E.F. (1989). Organizational development and change. St. Paul, MN: West Publishing Company.
- David, J.L. (1989, May). Synthesis of research on school-based management. Educational Leadership, 52, (7) , 45-53.

- David, J.L. (1990). Restructuring in progress: lessons from pioneering districts. In Elmore, R.F. (Ed.), Restructuring schools: the next generation of educational reform. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- David, J.L. (1995). The who, what, and why of site-based management. Educational Leadership, 53, (4) , 4-9.
- Des Dixon, R.G. (1994, January). Future schools and how to get there from here. Phi Delta Kappan, 75, (5) , 360-365.
- Dixie high school joins nine in restructure project. (1991, September 23). The Daily Spectrum, p. 5.
- Dixie high school restructures 'inside': challenge of the future motivates re-evaluation. (1993, January). Newsletter of the Washington County News, p. 10.
- DuFour, R. (1995). Restructuring is not enough. Educational Leadership, 52, (7) , 33-37.
- Dyer, D. & Lawrence, P. (1983). Renewing American industry. New York: Free Press.
- Education Commission of the States. (1983). Action for excellence. Denver: Author.
- Elmore, R.F. (1987, November). Reform and the culture of authority in schools. Educational Administration Quarterly, 23, (4) , 60-78.
- Elmore, R.F. (1988). Early experiences in restructuring schools: voices from the field. Washington, DC: National Governors' Association.
- Elmore, R.F. (1989). Models of restructured schools. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco.
- Erickson, F. (1986). Qualitative methods in research on teaching. In Whittrock, M.C. (Ed.), Handbook of research on teaching. New York: MacMillan Publishing Company.
- Fisher, C.W. (1990, January). The research agenda project as prologue. Journal for Research in Mathematics Education, 21, (1) , 81-89.
- Fraenkel, J.R. & Wallen, N.E. (1993). How to design and evaluate research in education. New York: McGraw-Hill.

- Fullan, M. (1982). The meaning of educational change. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University.
- Gainey, D.D. (1994). The American high school and change: an unsettling process National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, 78, (560) , 26-34.
- Getzel, J.W. (1973). Theory and research on leadership: some comments and alternatives. In Cunningham, L.L. & Gephart, (Eds.), Leadership: the science and the art today. Itasca, IL: Peacock.
- Glaser, B.G., & Strauss, A.L. (1967). The discovery of grounded theory: strategies for qualitative research. Chicago: Aldine Publishing.
- Glickman, C.D. (1990). Pushing school reform to a new edge: the seven ironies of school empowerment. Phi Delta Kappan, 70, (6) , 68-75.
- Goens, G.A., & Clover, S.I. (1984). Transforming schools. American School Board Journal, 78, (5) , 34-38.
- Goetz, J.P., & LaCompte, M.D. (1984). Ethnography and qualitative design in educational research. Orlando: Academic Press.
- Goodlad, J.I. (1984). A place called school. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Goodlad, J.I. (1975). The dynamics of educational change. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Gross, N., Giacquinta, J., & Bernstein, M. (1971). Implementing organization change: A sociological analysis of planned change. New York: Basic Books.
- Guba, E. G. Development, diffusion and evaluation. In Eidell, T., & Kitchel, J. (1968) (Eds.), Knowledge production and utilization in educational administration. Eugene, OR: Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration.
- Guba, E. & Clark, D. (1974). The configurational perspective: a view of educational knowledge production and utilization. Washington, DC: Council for Educational Development and Research.
- Guthrie, J.W. (1986, December). School-based management: the next needed education reform. Phi Delta Kappan, 68, (4) , 305-309.
- Guthrie, J.W., & Kirst, M.W. (1988, March). Conditions of education in california 1988. Berkeley: Policy Analysis for California Education. (Policy Paper No. 88-3-2).

- Hall, G.E. & Hord, S.M. (1987). Change in schools: facilitating the process. Albany: State University of New York.
- Hampel, R. (1986). The last little citadel. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin.
- Hargreaves, A. (1995, April). Renewal in the age of paradox. Educational Leadership, 51, (7) , 14-19.
- Harrison, C.R., Killion, J.P., & Mitchell, J.E. (1989, May). Site-based management: the realities of implementation. Educational Leadership, 72, (6) , 55-58.
- Havelock, R.G. (1971). Innovations in education: strategies and tactics. Ann Arbor: Michigan: Center for Research on Utilization of Scientific Knowledge, Institute for Social Research, The University of Michigan.
- Havelock, R. G., & Havelock M.C. (1973). Training for change agents: a guide to the design of training programs in education and other fields. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan, Institute for Social Research.
- Hawley, W.D. (1988, November). Missing pieces of the educational reform agenda: or why the first and second waves may miss the boat. Educational Administration Quarterly, 24, (4) , 416-437.
- Henrie, S.N., & Bailey, H.D. (1968). Planning carefully or muddling through: an educator's choice. Journal of Secondary Education, 43, (6) , 349-352.
- Hess, G.A. (1994, May). School-based management as a vehicle for school reform. Education and Urban Society, 23, (3) , 203-209.
- Holmes Group (1986, April). Tomorrow's teachers. East Lansing, MI: Author.
- Hord, S.M. (1990). Images of superintendents' leadership for learning. Southwest Educational Development Lab, Austin, Tx.
- Hoy, W.K., & Miskel C.G. (1991). Educational administration: theory, research, and practice. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Jenkins, K. (1988). Metaphor and mind set for educational leadership. The educational forum, 52, (2) , 143-151.
- Johnson, S.M. (1990). Teachers at work. New York: Basic Book.

- Johnson, S.M. (1989, May). Teachers, power, and school change. Paper presented at the Conference on Choice and Control in American Education. Madison: University of Wisconsin-Madison.
- Jung, C., & Lippitt, R. (1966). The study of change as a concept in research utilization. Theory into Practice, (5) , 25-29.
- Katz, D., & Kahn R. (1966). The social psychology of organizations. New York: John Wiley. In Baldrige, V.J., & Deal, T.E. (Eds.), Managing change in educational organization. Berkeley: McCutchan Publishing.
- Katz, D., Macoby, N., & Morse N.C. (1950). Productivity, supervision and morale in an office situation. Ann Arbor: Survey Research Center, University of Michigan.
- Kearns, D.L. (1988, April). An education recovery plan for america. Phi Delta Kappan, 69, (8) , 565-570.
- Kearns, D.L. & Doyle, D. (1988). Winning the brain race: a bold plan to make our schools competitive. San Francisco: ICS Press.
- Kirst, M. W., & Meister, G.R. (1990). Turbulence in American secondary schools: what reforms last? Curriculum Inquiry, 15, 169-186.
- Latham, G. (1988). Why innovations fail. Principal. National Association of Secondary School Principals. Alexandria, Va.
- Leithwood, K., & Montgomery, D. (1986). Improving principal effectiveness: the principal profile. Toronto, Canada: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.
- Lewin, K. (1947). Frontiers in group dynamics. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Lewis, A. (1989). Restructuring america's schools. Alexandria, Va: American Association of School Administrators.
- Lincoln, Y.S. (1985). Organizational theory and inquiry: the paradigm revolution. Beverly Hills: Sage Publications.
- Lincoln, Y.S. & Guba, E. (1985). Naturalistic inquiry. Beverly Hills, Ca: Sage Publications.
- Lindelow, J. (1981). School-based management. In Smith, S.C., Mazzerella, J.A., & Piele, P.K. (Eds.), School leadership: handbook for survival. Eugene, Or: Eric Clearing House on Educational Management, University Oregon.

- Lindquist, J. (1992, September 23). Dixie high school readies new academy model. The Daily Spectrum, p. 1.
- Lipham, J.M., Rankin, R.E., & Hoeh, J.A. (1985). The principalship: concepts, competencies, and cases. New York: Longman.
- Maccoby, M. (1989, December). Looking for leadership now. Paper presented at the National Center for Educational Leadership Conference. Harvard University, Cambridge, MA.
- Maeroff, G.I. (1988). The empowerment of teachers: overcoming the crisis of confidence. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Malen, B., Ogawa, R.T., & Kranz, J. (1989, May). What do we know about school based management? a case study of the literature-a call for research. Paper presented at the Conference on Choice and Control in American Education. Madison, University of Wisconsin-Madison.
- Marshall, C., & Rossman G.B. (1989). Designing qualitative research. Newbury Park Ca: Sage Publications.
- Marsh, D. & Odden, A. (1988). How comprehensive reform legislation can improve secondary schools. Phi Delta Kappan, 69, (8) , 593-598.
- McCarthy, M.M. (1990). Teacher testing programs. In J. Murphy (Ed.), The educational reform movement of the 1980's: perspectives and cases. Berkeley, Ca: McCutchan.
- McCarthey, S.J., & Peterson, P.L. (1989, March). Teacher roles: weaving new patterns in classroom practice and school organization. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco.
- McNeil, L.M. (1988, March). Contradictions of control, part 3: contradictions of reform. Phi Delta Kappan, 69, (6) , 432-438.
- Meier, D. (1987). Success in east harlem: how one group of teachers built a school that works. American Educator, 73, (5) , 36-39.
- Merriam, S.B. (1988). Case study research in education: a qualitative approach. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

- Mitchell, B. (1990). Loss, belonging and becoming: social policy themes for children and schools. In Mitchell, B. and Cunningham, L.L. (Eds.), Educational leadership and changing contexts of families, communities, and schools. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Moffit, J. (1994, April). On to the past: wrong-headed school reform. Phi Delta Kappan, 78, (8) , 585-590.
- Murphy, J. (1994). Redefining the principalship in restructuring schools. National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, 78, (56) , 94-99.
- Murphy, J.T. (1994). The changing role of the superintendency in restructuring districts in kentucky . Nashville, Tn: National Center for Educational Leadership. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, La.
- Murphy, J.T. (1989, June). The paradox of decentralizing schools: lessons from business, government, and the catholic church. Phi Delta Kappan, 70, (10) , 808-812.
- Murphy, P.J. (1991, October). Collaborative school management. National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, 75, (537) , 39-45.
- Murphy J. & Schiller, J. (1992). Transforming America's schools: an administrators call to action. LaSalle, Ill: Open Court.
- National Commission on Excellence in Education. (1983, March). A nation at risk: the imperative of educational reform. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- National Education Association. (1990). Site-based decision: the 1990 national education association census of local associations. National Education Association Studies in Collective Bargaining. Westhaven, Ct.
- National Governors Association. (1986). Time for results. Washington, DC.
- National Governors Association. (1989). Results in education 1989. Washington, DC.
- National Science Board. (1983). Educating Americans for the twenty-first century. Washington, DC: National Science Board, National Science Foundation.
- Newman, F.M. (1991, Fall). A framework for school restructuring. Issues in Restructuring Schools. Center on Organization and Restructuring of Schools Issue Report No. 1.

- Odden, R.E., & Wohlstetter, P. (1993, February). Making school-based management work. Educational Leadership, 52, (5) , 32-37.
- Olson, L. (1988, May 18). In sante fe experiment, teachers find and select their principal. Education Week, 7, (34) , 20-21.
- Payzant, T.W. & Gardner, M. (1994). Changing roles and responsibilities in a restructuring school district. National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, 78, (560) , 94-99.
- Peters, T.J. & Waterman, R.H. (1982). In search of excellence: lessons from America's best run companies. New York: Harper and Row.
- Petrie, H.G. (1990). Reflections on the second wave of reform: restructuring the teaching profession. In Jacobson, S.L., & Conway J.A. (Eds.), Educational leadership in an age of reform. New York: Longman.
- Pigors, P.J. (1935). Leadership and domination. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin.
- Powell, A.G., Farrar, E., & Cohen, D.K. (1985). The shopping mall high school: winners and losers in the educational marketplace. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin.
- Quality Education for Minorities Project. (1990). Education that works: an action plan for the education of minorities. Cambridge, MA: Massachusetts Institute of Technology.
- Roberts, N. (1985). Transforming leadership; a process of collective action. Human Relations, 38, (11) , 1023-1046.
- Rothberg, R.A. & Pawlas, G.E. (1993). Leadership for restructured schools: what is necessary? National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, 45, (5) , 8-12.
- Sarason, S.B. (1990). The predictable failure of education reform. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Sarason, S.B. (1982). The culture of school and the problem of change. New York: Allyn and Bacon.
- Schlechty, P.C. (1990). Schools for the twenty-first century: leadership imperatives for educational reform. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

- Sedlak, M.W., Wheeler, C.W., Pullin, D.C., & Cusick, P.A. (1986). Selling the students short: classrooms bargains and academic reform in the American high school. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Seely, D.S. (1988, February). A new vision for public education. Youth Policy, 10, (2) , 34-36.
- Sergiovanni, T.J. (1989). The leadership needs for quality schooling. In Sergiovanni, T.J. & Moore, J.H. (Eds.), Schooling for tomorrow: directing reforms to issues that count. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Sergiovanni, T.J. & Carver, F.D. (1980). The new school executive: a theory of administration. New York: Harper and Row.
- Short, P.M. & Greer, J.T. (1991). Restructuring schools through empowerment: facilitating the process. Journal of School leadership, 1, (2) , 5-25.
- Sickler, J.L. (1988, January). Teachers in charge: empowering the professionals. Phi Delta Kappan, 69, (3) , 354-356.
- Sizer, T.R. (1992, January). The substance of schooling. The American School Board Journal, 75, (5) , 27-29.
- Sizer, T.R. (1992). Horace's School. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin.
- Sizer, T.R. (1989). Horace's Compromise. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin.
- Skrtic, T.M. (1985). Doing naturalistic research into educational organizations. In Lincoln, Y.S. (Ed.), Organizational theory and inquiry: the paradigm revolution. Beverly Hills: Sage Publications.
- Smith, M.S., & Perky, S.C. (1985). School reform: the district policy implications of the effective schools literature. Elementary School Journal, 85, (7) , 352-392.
- Smylie, M.A. & Denny, J.W. (1989, March). Teacher leadership: tensions and ambiguities in organizational perspective. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco.
- Soltis, J.F. (1988, August). Reform or reformation? Educational Administration Quarterly, 24, (3) , 241-245.
- Stein, R. & King, B. (1992). Is restructuring a threat to principals' power? National Association of Secondary Principals Bulletin, 76, (540) , 26-31.

- Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1990). Basics of qualitative research: grounded theory procedures and techniques. Newbury Park: Sage Publishing.
- Sykes, G. & Elmore, R.F. (1989). Making schools more manageable. In Hannaway J., & Crowson, R.L. (Eds.), The politics of reforming school administration. New York: Falmer Press.
- Taylor, S.J. & Bogdan, R. (1984). Introduction to qualitative research methods. New York: Wiley.
- Tewell, K.J. (1994, March). Central office blues. Executive Administrator, 16, (3) , 34-35.
- Thompson, J.A. (1988). The second wave of educational reform: implications for school leadership, administration, and organization. In Wendell, F.C., & Bryant M.T. (Eds.), New directions for administration preparation. Tempe, Az: The University Council for Educational Administration.
- Timar, T.B. (1989). The politics of school restructuring. Politics of Education Association Yearbook, 55-74.
- Timar, T.B. & Kirp, D.L. (1987, August). Educational reform and institutional competence. Harvard Educational Review, 57, (3) , 58-69.
- Tye, B.B. (1987, December). The deep structure of American schooling. Phi Delta Kappan, 69, (7) , 281-284.
- Tye, K.A. (1992, September). Restructuring our schools: beyond the rhetoric. Phi Delta Kappan, 74, (1) , 8-14.
- Utah Association of Secondary School Principals (1992). A leaders guide to school restructuring: a special report of utah schools. Salt Lake City: Utah Association of Secondary School Principals.
- Utah Nine District Consortium Final Report (1993, July). High schools for a new age. Salt Lake City: Utah State Office of Education.
- Utah Nine District Consortium (1993, January). Reinventing the high school: the developing story of utah's nine district consortium. Salt Lake City: Utah State Office of Education.
- Van Leer, T. (1993, January 15). Dixie high school gives students a clear direction. The Daily Spectrum, p. C2.

- Weick, K.E. (1982, June). Administering education in loosely coupled schools. Phi Delta Kappan, 69, (1) , 234-236.
- Wise, A. (1988, January). The two conflicting trends in school reform: legislated learning revisited. Phi Delta Kappan, 62, (3) , 3-6.
- Wise, A. (1986). Legislated learning: the bureaucratization of the American classroom. Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Wissler, D.F., & Ortiz, F.I. (1986). The decentralization process of school systems: a review of the literature. Urban Education, 21, 280-294.
- Yin, R.K. (1994). Case study research: design and methods. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publishing.