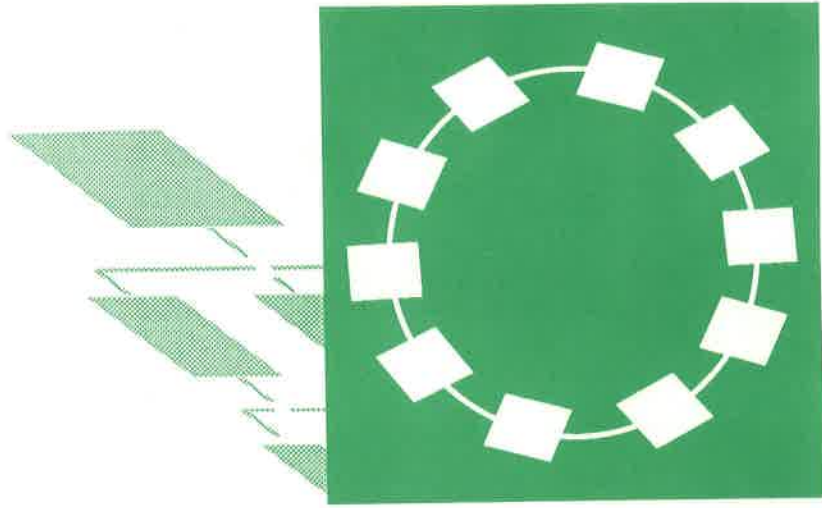


FRESH

IN EDUCATION

November 1991 Volume XVII No. 4



Site-Based Management and Teacher Empowerment

Issue Editor: Roberta Nauman

Site-Based Management and Teacher Empowerment

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Editorial

by Roberta W. Nauman

Site-based management, the transferring of responsibility for making decisions to individual schools, does not necessarily result in teacher empowerment. Teacher empowerment results when teachers are given primary responsibility for decisions which relate most fundamentally to the work they do with children in classrooms and also when teachers are given a voice in decisions at the building and district level which impact on that work.

The theme of this issue, Site-Based Management and Teacher Empowerment, identifies concern with that site-based management which results in teacher empowerment. It also highlights other ways in which teachers become empowered and as a result exert increasing influence over their work and work situations.

Human history, in addition to being a chronicle of events, is at least as importantly a chronicle of ideas and the dynamic tension that results from the interaction of those ideas with the exigencies of day to day existence.

The ideas which run like threads through the articles in this issue are:

1. that knowledge is power;
2. that people are motivated to satisfy needs;
3. that cooperation is at least as important to survival and needs-meeting as competition;

4. that what we believe determines what we do;
5. conversely, that what we do reveals what we believe;
6. that better decisions may result when those most directly involved participate; and
7. that change involves uncertainty and risk.

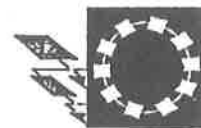
The publication of *A Nation at Risk* in 1983 was followed by a spate of top-down, quick-fix proposals for improving education. However, as early as 1985, reform proposals were emerging which suggested that teachers would have to be key participants in any attempt to transform education.

It has also become apparent that if teachers are to be more than drones in the educational enterprise, their perception of themselves and their work, as well as administrators' perceptions of them and the work of teaching, will have to be transformed. Not all teachers or administrators are likely to welcome these changes. One need only revisit Plato's allegory of the cave to realize that such reluctance is neither sudden nor usual.

The articles included in this issue in some instances reveal philosophical and psychological bases for such transformation and in others chronicle the efforts of administrators and teachers, in some cases with the assistance of consultants and university personnel, to initiate and continue the process.

Teachers' primary work responsibility is making decisions in a fluid environment over which they have only limited control of key variables. Their work is difficult, demanding, and worthy of respect. Most bring to their work a fair degree of sensitivity and idealism and some knowledge of the art and science of their profession. In some instances what they bring is inadequate to the task, yet notwithstanding this inadequacy, they are in a better position than most to identify what is needed and initiate some of the change processes. Hunter and Garrison remind us that it is temper rather than technology that is the key issue.

The Jaime Escalantes and Jessica Siegles of teaching remind us that one person can make a difference. However, the task is too pervasive to be accomplished by individuals working alone. It is more apt to be accomplished in the long run by people like Lenore M. Johnson with teachers and parents of Kingsley School, Doris Sandvick and the community of Paul Norton School, Carrie Cox and her peer coaches in Tinley Park, or Janet Miller working with her graduate students to nurture their newly won sense of empowerment. In some instances the simplicity of the telling belies the complexity and power of the stories told. It was this editor's belief that any issue of an educational journal concerned with teacher empowerment without the voices of teachers would constitute an oxymoron.



Roberta W. Nauman is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Educational Psychology, Counseling and Special Education, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb, Illinois.

School-Based Management: What is it, Why do it, Who Benefits?

by Edward Caputo

What is School-Based Management?

School-Based Management (SBM) is a form of school district organization and management, in which the school site is the key unit for educational improvement. SBM calls for new processes and new relationships. Success is based upon internal growth and development, rather than something brought in from the outside and installed in the schools. School-Based Management assumes that the resources for improvement are already in the school and community; those resources are our people. What is needed is to learn how to use these existing resources more effectively through comprehensive planning and/or the restructuring of the organization. SBM is a means to release talent and skills which are constrained by "top-down" bureaucratic systems.

SBM encourages new processes and new relationships built upon trust, openness and freedom. SBM requires a shared commitment to ideas, values, goals and eventually the management process itself. SBM features love, warmth, personality chemistry, and processes and relationships that are open to the influence of those key players who are most affected by the organization's outcomes. SBM reflects unity with a tolerance for diversity, freedom balanced with order, and fluidity with a steady demand for structure.

SBM demands that we enable and empower each other; it demands trust and a clear sense of interdependence. SBM shares leadership, it does

not give it away. It encourages working together. Together, members of the organization are stretched by each other's strengths to become more than they currently are.

SBM is not primarily a matter of whether or not we reach our particular goals. Goals are good, and several are listed in the next section, but life is more than just reaching goals. As board members, administrators and teachers, as students and parents, we need to reach not just our goals but our potential. Nothing else is good enough. Depree (1989) expresses the fruit of such a management system where people have gone beyond goals and are reaching their potential, "It is the condition of our hearts, improving our work environment, and the quality of our competence, the fidelity of our experience—these give vitality to the work experience and to the meaning of life." These attributes are the fruit of teachers, administrators, parents, and students participating together to fulfill a promise which can deliver us beyond goals to our potential, elevating the quality of our competence, creating human compassion from our experience . . . that is the essence of SBM.

Why School Districts Need School-Based Management?

Most of the 16,000 school systems across the nation, have adopted their organizational structure from the military model which features a top down hierarchy, and a line and staff chain of command. They are authoritarian, legalistic, layered, compartmental, and dependent upon external

motivation for results. Communication is generally difficult, especially getting accurate, meaningful information from the bottom up; the old top-down system does not listen well. Communication is compartmentalized vertically, like silos, from top to bottom with few formal lateral communication channels open. Quality suffers, because siloed, disconnected communication systems do not focus upon student growth and student performance. Siloed, top down communication focuses rather upon short term quantity which tends to stifle quality, fails to tap lateral talent, energy, and skill, produces little ownership, fosters no school center control by teachers and parents, and encourages a lack of respect between teachers and teachers, and teachers and administrators.

Teachers and administrators are further alienated because of labor relations practices in general. Relationships between labor and management tend to exacerbate organizational problems, because unions are hampered by a similar militaristic, top down hierarchical structure for their own decision-making and communication. In effect, then, there are two, top down pyramids, both ineffective regarding the restoration of quality educational services for school children. These dual hierarchical systems, Management and Labor, use the vehicle of contract negotiations to strive for agreement, but too often have produced constrained relations instead. These constraints have kept educational systems frozen and incapable of responding to the demanding, and increasing needs of our nation's children.

Edward Caputo is Director of School Services—South Area for the Rockford (IL) Public Schools. He is the architect of Rockford's SBM program and worked with SBM in Florida schools before coming to Rockford.

W. Patrick Dolan (1990) has outlined five classic characteristics describing the constraining relationship between labor and management which tend to freeze out quality.

1. **Power Oriented.** Decisions are made by a select few, often negotiated in secret and protected from general inquiry. We must be issue oriented and data driven, guaranteeing that decisions will not be arbitrary, secret or closed to questioning.

2. **High Distrust.** Bargaining enhances adversarial relationships. Bargaining forces an us-and-them relationship. It encourages a win/lose continuum. We need a management system that establishes win/win relationships, emphasizing people power not contract power. Trust is needed. **CONTRACTS DO NOT BUILD TRUST . . . PEOPLE DO.**

3. **Extreme Legalism.** Borrowing from Alexander Solzhenitsun (Dolan, 1990) we learn that, "A society based upon the letter of the law and never reaching any higher, fails to take advantage of the full range of human possibilities. The letter of the law is too cold and formal to have beneficial influence upon society. Whenever the tissue of life is woven of legalistic relationships, it creates an atmosphere of spiritual mediocrity that paralyzes men's noblest impulses. After a certain level of the problem has been reached, legalistic thinking induces paralysis; it prevents one from seeing the scale and meaning of events."

4. **Primarily Historical.** Labor contracts are accumulative and grow from year to year. This tends to hold the system to the past. We need to connect our history, but not be forever controlled by it. In conjunction with our past we must develop a shared vision regarding our future as well. We need to ask, where are we going? What shall we become? The best way to predict our future is to create it. The emphasis on duties and performance for leaders has to be on the future, built through the medium of trust. When trust is present, it fosters freedom to create the future. In education, our future belongs to those who believe in

the worth of their dreams, and are willing to act accordingly.

5. **Leadership Fits the Mode of the Four Elements Discussed Above.** Leadership develops within the perimeters it knows. When our leadership is limited by power, mistrust, legalism, and dependence upon past practices, energy is limited to constant crisis fighting instead of future building. What can build our future is roving leadership not static leadership. Roving leadership (Duree, 1989) is a key element in the day-to-day expression of participative processes, the opportunity to have a say in one's job, and the ability to influence the management of organizational resources based upon one's competence and willingness to accept problem ownership. Roving leadership is issue oriented, shifting responsibilities into alignment with specific talents, skills and abilities. No one person is an "expert" in everything. SBM is able to heal the wounds of past win/lose constraints, break the barriers of traditional organizations, and construct new solutions for persistent educational problems.

Again, Why SBM? (South, 1990)

To restore public confidence in our schools by increasing participation of concerned adults, and by putting more control at the level of school and community.

To develop programs based on student needs, and to optimize people resources.

To coordinate resources allocation with need—put money and people where students and student needs are. To move away from pressure as the determinant of allocation, and toward inter-district equalization.

To increase the discretion of principals and teachers over classroom activities and to stop the erosion of teachers' judgements, by increasing the power of teachers to introduce innovations that make sense to them. And,

To increase the problem solving capacity of school and community.

What Are the Benefits for Students, Teachers, Principals, Parents and Board Members?

For Teachers - Teachers have greater ability to define and diagnose their own needs through participating in planning, goal setting, performance analysis, program planning and evaluation. Hence, teachers' desires for staff development and inservice systems development. There is much more on-the-job learning and learning from peers. Teachers can become freer to do what they have learned will work, and to alter learning methods and procedures for specific needs. They learn to execute plans of their own, using materials they think will fit the individual student. They are more in contact with other teachers and with the principal. They feel supported as teachers. They have more tools and more knowledge at their disposal. The central office is now supporting them. In short, teachers have more autonomy, more resources, more support, more knowledge, and more responsibility. Many report that they feel they can do what they were trained to do—for the first time.

For Principals - Principals have better information for planning through development of School Information Systems in which information is stored and retrieved in a form that is useful to school planning. Thus, goal setting by schools and by programs is feasible. There is better articulation between grades, programs, and feeder schools. The needs based approach to curriculum construction develops and, if allowed, puts curriculum in the schools, and makes curriculum development and analysis an integral part of school operations. Principals, like teachers, exercise more discretion and influence over what goes on. As a result, they have more alternatives and more responsibility.

For Parents - Parents experience greater ability to elicit responses from the system. They have increased knowledge of where decisions are made, how they are made, and how to influence them. There are higher levels of parent-teacher contact, and higher levels of community involvement in needs analysis, goal setting, and evaluations. Parents come to realize that programs can be designed for their children, rather than for some mythical average. Hence, a greater feeling of community "ownership" results.

For Students - Students acquire a greater sense of their school being responsive to their needs. There is more attention to individual differences. The system is enabled to respond to diversity. There is a greater sense of requirement for self-discipline and self-awareness. Students develop a keen knowledge of where important decisions are made and how they are made. Students develop a knowledge of how to put information

into the system, and how to get information out. School becomes closer to the student. It becomes more relevant to life itself.

For Central Office Staff - Central office staff experience a greater sense of getting in touch with the total system, and of guiding system-wide change. Because the central office can develop a clearer idea of the operational nature of the system—how it behaves; SBM allows more effective use of people in the central office. Ideas become clearer for the central office of the nature of policies that promote higher performance and a clearer idea of how schools can make a difference for the whole community. SBM creates increased focus on system effectiveness and a finer tuning of the system. There is increased competence in communication, planning, problem management, decision making, and organizational analysis. Central office personnel develop increased competence in process con-

sultation and in long range strategic planning.

For Board Members - Board members experience a greater sense of power, not so much to command, but finally to get something done. There is a greater sense of ability to influence the system through understanding, and through various processes. There is an increase in responsiveness and need meeting on the part of individual schools. There is greater intra-district equity, and a greater sense of student accomplishment. Finally, there is clearer knowledge of where money goes, a wiser use of dollars, and more system wide attention to making money go further. With SBM, there is a greater chance to discharge responsibility for innovation and reform, because there is more autonomy and more interdependence among all key players.

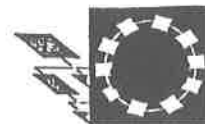
With SBM, all parties feel more effective, and behave accordingly! Children benefit! Reforms endure!

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Organizational Change in Our Schools

by Robert Alan Fritsch

It is now, more than at any time in recent memory, that the driving forces of change are affecting our educational institutions, their values, objectives, and operations. This truth needs no documentation: one has only to be current with the news and professional journals. Links among the family, the community, industry and commerce, governments and the schools are being reevaluated. Even traditional relationships within the schools—management structure, teacher preparation, management of conflicts, to name but a few—are being scrutinized and opened to change.

From pre-school to university, both public and private institutions of learning are looking in earnest at the critical issues of organizational purpose and effectiveness. There is a sense that these driving forces go beyond the challenging of pedagogies: the *raison d'être* of our schools themselves are being questioned.

A few weeks ago when I was invited to write this article I jumped at the opportunity to stand, once again, on my soap box and extol the virtues of Organizational Development to my colleagues in education. Now, after ruminating on the topic, I am ready, but not to extol. It is my intent to inform the reader that there are compelling reasons showing that both the *action research* and *process consultation* methodologies used in the field of Organizational Development are vital to our *changing* educational cultures.

Organizational Development is an outgrowth of the behavioral sci-

ences. It is a management-supported *process* that is focused on collaborative problem-solving, organizational self-renewal, management of the organizational culture, and basic interventions with the organization through the *action research* of the participants. It is a process of researching the dysfunctional aspects (French & Bell, 1984; Schaefer & Fassel, 1988) in order that people can manage "*the culture of an organization rather than being managed by that culture.*" (French & Bell, 1984). Let's look at some of the key elements of these defining terms as we get a clearer picture of this field.

By management-supported I mean the emotional and practical endorsement and backing from the managing powers for the processes and actions to be taken. Without that support the process will be truncated at best. It is here where the OD consultant starts in the intervention process. Indeed, the consultative contract itself is a process whereby that support is explicitly stated. The proactive alternatives to this support, community/labor action, call for an altogether different focus than being discussed here (Alinsky, 1971), but they can be a relevant or even concomitant process.

By process I am talking of the *process consultation model* (Schein, 1987) in which the client (school) is taught to own its own problems, diagnose them, and take action regarding necessary changes. In short, the consultant teaches the manager(s) or group(s) to do what he does. What the OD consultant knows is group processes (Luft, 1984) and interventions (Schein, 1987). What the client knows

is his/her work and objectives. Together they find actionable solutions to problems or steps to seize new opportunities. The OD consultant *teaches* the client how to make appropriate interventions for specific change objectives. These learnings are long-lasting and are an addition to the strategic skills of the organization.

This differs considerably from the diagnostic-prescriptive, or *medical model*. This model, used extensively in commerce, industry, and schools, relies on the "expert" to come to the organization and, frequently, without an analysis of any data pertaining to the local situation, "tell" the client what to do. At best this type of model does a thorough diagnosis before the recommendations are given to the client. However useful the diagnosis and recommendation may be, a very critical aspect is neglected: the *buy-in* or *ownership* by the client of the diagnostic prescriptive process. Without the involvement of the client system in the process and planning, the motivation to carry through on the results and the skills needed to maintain the changes are nil (Lawler, 1986). The client remains dysfunctionally dependent on the consultant (Schaefer & Fassel, 1988).

When we experience collaborative problem-solving, we are working in an atmosphere of trust in which the contributive and substantive skills of the client(s) are used to identify, plan and manage environmental influences, goals, roles, processes, and relationships, of the group or organization (Shonk, 1982). It is a high-involvement style (Lawler, 1986) frequently using a team approach. The

Robert Alan Fritsch is on the staff of Summit School, Dundee, Illinois. He holds a Master's Degree in Organizational Development from Aurora University and is a consultant in private practice.

focus is collegial and cooperative, rather than adversarial and competitive.

The *culture* of an organization is the "basic assumptions and beliefs that are shared by members of an organization..." (Schein, 1985). This includes the climate, the rules, the philosophy, the dominant values, the group norms, and the behavior patterns and rituals of the organization. On the whole, schools spend a great deal of energy in explicitly managing one or several of these aspects of culture. The OD process would thus find ample resources for culture management in the schools to help facilitate change.

Some recognize *action research* to be similar in many respects to the basic problem-solving model of John Dewey. It is, yet it is more extensive. John Collier recognized that it was a difficult process that needed the collaboration of the researcher, practitioner and the client (French & Bell, 1984). It was Kurt Lewin (1951) however, that gave the currently recognizable shape to action research in diagnosing specific situations (Marrow, 1969) (Lewin, 1951; Lewin, 1948). Essentially *action research* follows this general progression (French & Bell, 1984):

1. Identify the problem (opportunity) area for which the client feels concern.

2. Formulate a hypothesis that states a goal and procedure for reaching a solution: a plan or design.
3. Record and evaluate the actions taken to verify the hypothesis and adjust the goal or procedure.
4. Recycle step three above for maintenance.

Lewin (1951) added another dimension to the above process. He viewed both individuals and groups as complex systems subject to influences, both internal and external. Change occurs when the influences of the driving forces (i.e., wants, fears) overcome the restraining forces (i.e., other wants and fears) and move the system to a new equilibrium. It is the task of the researcher (the OD practitioner) to identify the current state of the system and the desired state of the system, and to help the client increase the driving forces and reduce the restraining forces. This was, to Lewin, the act of "unfreezing" the system, moving to a new state, and "refreezing".

Action research and its variations are, for the OD process, the basic tools of the many used by OD practitioners. Most educators will find the process familiar. However, combined with a *process consultation*, these same groups of people will find a refreshing sense of both ownership and investment in the process: this is what I call the **motivated solution**. A motivated solution to a problem re-

sults in a desired change. The "unmotivated solution" results frequently in resistance that is difficult to overcome, and gains that fall short of the desired change.

If our educational organizations are going to deal with the many changes that their problems and opportunities demand, then let us address the change process itself. In using a proven process to deal with change (West & Idol, 1987) we, of course, want to find the "motivated solution" that will bring the desired outcome.

My experience in this field has been that of a "stranger in a strange land." For most of my clients, experiences with problem-solving (or opportunity development) have been with the autocratic, medical model, and short-term. Ownership and investment in the outcomes were nil. Data on which decisions were made was inadequate or never revealed. When I introduced them into the OD process, I observed a tremendous burst of energy for managing and maintaining the changes. I saw my clients (my students, if you will) deal more openly and effectively with their conflicts, feelings, and wants.

I saw people creating desired changes that worked. I invite the readers of this monograph to look at Organizational Development as a viable choice for dealing with change. It works.

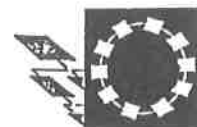
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Teacher Empowerment and the Disappearing Act: Making Connections Between Empowerment and Motivation

by Judy Pickle

Yesterday I listened to a teacher vent her frustrations. As we sat in my office making the last adjustments in her graduate program, this young, bright, and hard-working teacher told me she didn't see how she could continue to teach—even another year. She said she had to handle more and more curriculum and more and more children in her classroom. She thought the district was obsessed with standardized test scores. She felt she faced an overwhelming array of pull-out programs, and yes, parents that don't seem to care. These factors, coupled with an inadequate salary, had already pushed her to seek a second job.

She also told me about her love of teaching. The weariness in her face disappeared as she related a story about her "break-through" with a particular child. This youngster "wouldn't do anything" until she discovered his interest in motorcycles and began to use that interest to organize his learning. He wouldn't write until she arranged a pen pal with whom he could correspond about motorcycles. He didn't read until she integrated reading material about motorcycles. From this example, she generalized that implementing her ideas—if she simply had the time and space—would make an enormous difference for her students' growth. This teacher's story illustrates what teacher empowerment means. As I consider her words, I am reminded of ideas that partially explain her experiences. Herzberg's Motivation—Hygiene Theory, based on hundreds of job studies

conducted with a variety of occupations, provides insights about motivation.

My basic position is that it is in teachers' work with students that they find their basic motivation to teach.

Workers are motivated by factors that include achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, advancement, and growth. Workers express job dissatisfaction when dimensions associated with the failure to receive "fair treatment" come into play. This teacher's motivation peaks when a student achieves in response to her work efforts. Conversely, she clearly is dissatisfied with what she sees as an unfair work load and salary. In summary, she perceives herself functioning in a context that places demands on her time for achieving narrow educational objectives which at the same time disconnect her from the construction and measurement of educational goals. She derives teaching inspiration from a difficult student. Success with that student validates her identity as a teacher.

This teacher's story teaches us something about teacher empowerment. It also illustrates the tenuous

concept of empowerment. I begin with the assumption that teacher empowerment is a positive force although not everyone would agree with it. My basic position is that it is in teachers' work with students that they find their basic motivation to teach. This relationship often involves both academic achievement and personal development. Usually, the relationship involves direct work with students. If efforts to empower teachers ignore this principle, they are bound to fail. The notion of empowerment, if not based on substantive knowledge of teacher motivation, will be unrealized, or will simply disappear.

Teacher Motivation is Grounded in Work with Students

Motivation, argues Herzberg, flows from the relationship a person has to the ". . . job content, achievement on a task, responsibility for task achievement, the nature of the task, responsibility for the task and professional advancement or growth in task capability" (Herzberg, et al., 1962). Even recognition, if it is used solely as a human-relations tool rather than an appropriate reward for good performance, is empty. In short, the work task is a critical element in motivation.

In teaching, students are the center of the task. A teacher's identity is shaped by direct work with individual students, not by paperwork or competitive tasks. Lortie (1975) conveyed the importance of teachers' direct work with students with his socio-

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logical study of teaching. Lortie (1975) found teachers were motivated largely by psychic rather than extrinsic rewards. He puzzled over the discovery that many teachers referred to "the spectacular case"—their success with a difficult student—when discussing craft pride. He noted that the difficult and demanding goals most teachers sought such as "exerting moral influence, 'soldering' students to learning, and achieving general impact presume great capacity to penetrate and alter the consciousness of students".

Lortie (1975) found teachers were motivated largely by psychic rather than extrinsic rewards.

The focus on students that Lortie (1975) observed is still evident. By way of illustration, teachers asked to think about what's been important in their teaching career, typically responded by describing the student-teacher relationship within the context of both academic and personal student growth (See Note 1). The stories about important events in these science teachers' careers represent teachers' relationship with students:

There's a lot of academic growth when you see the—when the light bulb flashes on and they figure something out. . . . That's a part of the rewards. . . . And I think of the relationships I've developed with kids and see how they've changed and how they grew, and being part of that growth, in some small way or maybe in a major way, making that growth positive, making some positive changes. To me it's a big re-

sponsibility, and I enjoy it (Male, High School Science). . . . a student who weighed over 200 pounds and was about five feet tall came into my class. . . . I said, "You know, you just look like you'd make a fantastic shot putter." And I introduced him to our track coach, and he became *very* interested in track. I saw him just last year, which is ten years later, and he said, "I have been perfectly physically fit ever since that day" (Female, High School Science.)

Motivation for teaching is bound to teachers' definitions of teaching. Unlike some hierarchically organized professions in which successful practitioners delegate work with clients, particularly affective work, to employees with less status, teachers seem to embrace a broad spectrum of direct work with students. If teacher empowerment is realized, it will not ignore teachers' perceptions of teaching.

Teacher Empowerment is Grounded in Teacher Motivation

Although the term empowerment is less than precise, it seems to be popularized on the basis of views experienced by several national organizations. The Carnegie Foundation bases its concept of teacher empowerment on the new role of lead teacher. This role embodies a shared responsibility for teaching and supervising. Role incumbents develop awareness and access to current knowledge bases and establish a collegial atmosphere in the school. The American Federation of Teachers and the National Education Association focus their views of empowerment on organizational structure. Centralized patterns with their typical "top-down management" are replaced with the decentralized organizational patterns and their associated shared decision-making.

Some of the results of the implementation of these ideas are: on colle-

gial relationships, new roles, autonomous decision making, and merit pay. Although judgment about these innovations is limited by an incomplete bank of systematic, empirical research, some speculations concerning their effectiveness can be made. More importantly, threats to empowerment can be considered. Specifically, the grounding of empowerment in teacher motivation, which is in turn grounded in direct work with students, can be explored.

The motivational impact of teachers' work with students is a reoccurring theme in the literature on teacher empowerment. In an analysis of collaboration, for example, Little (1990) differentiates joint work (based on interdependence) from storytelling, sharing, and aid/assistance (based on independence). She makes the case for both the positive impact of closely bound groups in promoting change and the negative impact of groups for conserving the present. Her basic argument rests on the view that "teachers' main motivation and reward for involvement with another will be found in the work of teaching . . . they are unlikely to sustain a pattern of out-of-classroom involvement in the absence of interdependent work-related interests". Collaboration or group work is in danger of becoming nothing more than a contrived activity "perched precariously (and often temporarily) on the margins of real work".

The same theme appears in investigations of merit pay, decision making, and new roles. Merit pay, paradoxically appeals to the public while teachers suspect its implementation. Smylie, and Smart (1990), for example, found that teachers devalue merit pay if it creates deviousness and devalues their work with students.

While salary may be a source of work dissatisfaction, it may not increase motivation. Congruent with Lortie's (1975) conclusion that teachers saw psychic rather than extrinsic factors as the major sources of their rewards, teachers' acceptance of merit pay is clearly connected to its connec-

tion to the task of teaching. New roles for teachers and new areas of decision-making exhibit a similar motive. Teachers seem to derive the greatest benefit from their involvement in decision making that is related to classroom issues (Mohrman, Cooke, and Mohrman, 1978; Mitchell, Ortiz, and Mitchell, 1987).

Conclusion

In summary, teacher motivation with its emphasis on teachers' work with students may be the base on which teacher empowerment is built. Although some educators might pinpoint incompetencies in teachers, others would encourage new roles, autonomous decision-making, organizational structures, and career ladders with an eye toward the existing culture of teaching.

Teacher empowerment is "on stage." The idea holds promise for the

improvement of education and for the advancement of the profession of teaching. However, will this innovation, like so many other educational innovations before it, perform a "disappearing act"? Perhaps the longevity of empowerment will be increased if attention is given to teacher motivation: specifically, teachers' perception of the importance of work with students. Some ideas worthy of consideration follow:

1. Care is taken that new roles and decision-making tasks are defined with a clear relationship to classroom work. Although teacher development suggests that more mature teachers are willing to work at the more abstract, or possibly indirect tasks, relevance for students should be part of all new roles and decision-making.
2. Recognition of teacher achievement is given for work with stu-

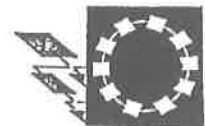
dents. Competition with colleagues is de-emphasized while incentives for success with difficult students is increased.

3. Horizontal as well as vertical career ladders are developed for teachers. For example, teachers might be given "released time" for study, travel, or new roles. They would be able to alternate these activities with classroom teaching.
4. Collaborative arrangements are made to increase group identity around self-actualizing principles. The negative aspects of teachers' isolation in classrooms may be overcome by collaborative groups that embrace norms of personal growth, academic understanding, or group problem-solving.

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Note 1: The teacher interview data presented in this article were collected as part of a research project, Teachers' Moral Dilemmas, in process.



Controlling Technology: Facilitating Decision-Making and Empowering Teachers

by Rhonda S. Robinson

The past decade has been a period of rapid development in electronic information and communications technologies. Computers and other related technologies have become a familiar part of our environment. Microcomputers, satellite dishes, and VCRs have become ordinary for many members of today's society. Word processing, telecommunications, and databases are used routinely and electronic technology, also called information technology, has become the primary means of information storage, transfer, and analysis (AACTE Task Force, 1987).

The growth in technology has also been reflected in the nation's elementary and secondary schools. By the fall of 1988 it was estimated that 1.7 million computers were being used in public schools and roughly ninety percent of all schools had VCRs. Additionally, some schools began using telecommunication technology for distance learning and others explored the instructional potential of interactive videodisc (Glenn and Carrier, 1989).

The past decade also has witnessed an unprecedented commitment to training teachers to use the new technology in the classroom. School districts, schools of education, state education agencies, and private companies have allocated considerable resources to meet the challenge. However, research indicates that the level of training has been minimal at best and the task of training teachers to use

technology remains a major problem (Sollie, 1987).

Technology, defined as the process of systematically solving (instructional) problems, involves more than software and equipment. And while teachers can be trained to use hardware, they need to be involved in the technology decision-making process in order for innovation to occur.

But perhaps the problem has not been one of "training" teachers. Teachers know that achieving innovation in schools is more complex than the simple adoption of new technologies. Technology, defined as the process of systematically solving (instructional) problems, involves more than

software and equipment. And while teachers can be trained to use hardware, they need to be involved in the technology decision-making process in order for innovation to occur.

The various technologies of instruction historically have had at least four problems preventing teacher empowerment. First, the hardware and software has been designed and developed by non-educators, and marketed for profit by distributors. Teachers have rarely been involved.

Second, technologies have been heralded as "aides" to instruction, add-ons to teaching which have not involved a re-examination of teaching/learning strategies. Teachers have not been given the tools with which to appropriately select and utilize technologies of instruction to achieve classroom or student goals.

Third, technology's use has been "encouraged" for teachers, but implementation has not been based on curricular goals nor teacher abilities. Technology has often been purchased and implementation required without the support of staff or the needs of curriculum being considered (Robinson and West, 1989).

And fourth, innovation has been hindered by the lack of teacher training. "Teachers should use technology to enhance the education of their students only after extensive training in the selection, utilization, and evaluation of appropriate" technologies of instruction (Robinson and West, 1989). The above four problems can serve as guidelines for future technological innovation.

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What do educators need in order to feel empowered through technological innovation? They need to model their use of technologies following these systematic steps:

- 1) curricular needs analysis;
- 2) student and community needs analysis;
- 3) curricular objectives;
- 4) intra-school/district planning;
- 5) cooperative training of teachers prior to initiation;
- 6) regular evaluations and feedback by students and teachers; and
- 7) careful coordination of all of the above.

Good teacher training for technology and innovation would include discussion of the above seven steps, with examples for clarity. If teachers became part of a planning team and followed the systematic steps, the integration of technology would seem neither too difficult nor too imposed. The recent literature on helping teachers to make important changes in their thinking or their practice involving technology has included some very specific recommendations for the future.

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First, these suggestions include the issues of access and availability of both hardware and software. Teachers can not learn to use technology for decision-making or for classroom practice if such material is not available in sufficient quantity and in accessible locations.

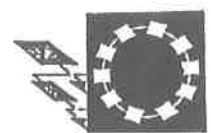
A second recommendation involves the importance of training for teachers. The training, to be effective, must be responsive to teacher-expressed needs, must be multi-level to address individual differences, and must be continuous, not one shot in-service activities.

Third, teachers must see the value of technology for themselves. The motivation for using any technology must come from the teachers' awareness of the power of technology to help them with problems they have identified. Incentives to help build motivation are important also, and can include many things such as additional pay, travel to conferences, summer employment, released time during the school day to learn, and loan of school equipment for home use. Any of these incentives could help teachers learn and plan to use computers and other technologies in ways that they have chosen, for their students needs.

When teachers have had an active, participating role in planning, selecting, and utilizing them, technologies of instruction will empower teachers. The systems, hardware and software, will allow teachers to make informed choices, to facilitate learning in new ways, and to control the forces of innovation through planned decision-making. Teachers will control technological innovation, and feel empowered to move into the next century as facilitators of learning.

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Instructional Technology, Temper, Technique, and Teacher Empowerment

by J. Mark Hunter and
James W. Garrison

If, as Sir Francis Bacon said, knowledge is power, then those who hold a monopoly on the creation and dissemination of that knowledge are indeed the powerful. The knowledge spoken of by Bacon was scientific and technological knowledge. The idea was that the power of scientific knowledge would make it possible to build a better society. In our article we discuss the power of educational technology to make it possible to build a better and more democratic school. We will concentrate especially upon the social relations surrounding the creation and dissemination of knowledge and the power it promises in public education. Our focus will emphasize educational technology and its relation to classroom teaching.

We are concerned that the creation and dissemination of scientific technical knowledge concerning education has remained primarily under the purview of the doctors; university PhD's and EdD's who create or discover knowledge and then distribute it to classroom teachers (or have it distributed for them). Teachers are usually held accountable to the "knowledge base", (including the knowledge offered by educational technology) and, indirectly, those who produce and distribute it. In this way the power that knowledge brings can become a tool of social control, and some might even say, oppression.

Our hope is to point out ways in which classroom teachers should and

perhaps could participate in the creation, discovery, design and refinement of instructional technology. We will suggest a way of describing the kind of relations that we think ought to exist within the technological temper of the classroom teachers' participation in the process and products of educational science and technology.

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We think this describes the kind of democratic social and dialogical relationship necessary in the effective design, development, and application of instructional technology in the classroom. In this article we will address the issue of teacher enablement,

particularly in the context of the creation borrowed from Bertrand Russell: they are *scientific temper* and *scientific technique*. The scientific temper is the ability to inquire-to learn and to create knowledge. The scientific technique is the end application of knowledge in specific disciplines. From an explication of the terms we will attempt to extrapolate from the scientific temper to the *technological temper* and from the scientific technique to the technological technique.

Scientific Temper & Scientific Technique

The scientific temper as Bertrand Russell (1958) described it is "cautious, tentative, and piecemeal; it does not imagine that it knows the whole truth, or, even at its best, that knowledge is wholly true. It knows that every doctrine needs emendation sooner or later, and that the necessary emendation requires freedom of investigation and freedom of discussion." This process view of scientific activity stands in stark contrast to the end-product view of scientific knowledge as found in the scientific technique: "The practical experts who employ scientific technique, and still more the government and large firms (and even schools) which employ the practical experts, acquire a quite different temper from that of men and women of science—a temper full of a sense of limitless power, of arrogant certainty, and of pleasure in manipulation of even human material" (Rus-

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sell, 1958). What is laid-out upon the table for consideration are two views of knowledge. On the one hand is knowledge as *process*, formative without assertion of finality. On the other hand is knowledge calcified and if it is not already, it is waiting to become inert, a mere *product*.

Scientific Temper

On the goal of education, Dewey said it should be to "realize that scientific method is not something purely technical, remote and apart, but it is the instrumentality of socially controlled development. As their studies move on from year to year, the subjects labeled scientific and those labeled social and historical are kept in vital unity, so that each side deepens the meaning of the other" (Dewey-in afterward of Mayhew & Edwards, 1936).

It is this holistic and interpretive approach to scientific inquiry and education that enables teachers (and students) to become democratic citizens, able to comprehend and creatively participate in the culture and the workplace. Without the kind of scientific temper that gives teachers and student citizens the understanding that formal education is only a beginning and not an ultimate end in itself, learning becomes stagnant and the knowledge learned is reduced to mere scientific technique.

Scientific Technique

For those who have the virtues of scientific inquiry and the scientific temper set firmly in mind it will not be necessary to dwell for very long on the vices of the scientific technique. The major shortcoming of the scientific technique is that it separates means from ends, the process from the product. Dewey writes (1946) that on this view:

"Science" . . . [is still seen as] something that a group of persons, called scientists do; something they do in laboratories, observatories, and places of special research . . . The

prestige of science is due for the most part not to general adoption of its temper of mind but to its material application. The inherent idealism of the scientific temper is submerged, for the mass of human beings, in the use and enjoyment of the material power and material comforts that have resulted from its technical applications.

The intellectually liberating process of inquiry, research and development, is something participated in by only a small group of persons called scientists, while the rest of humankind seems content to distribute or consume its material products.

Scientific management and hierarchial accountability tend to destroy or distort dialogue. Instead of ideas being communicated in a democratic community, they are issued as orders to be obeyed down the chain of command. The result is not critical dialogue and collaboration but dogmatic soliloquy and conformity . . .

One of the results of separating the production, distribution, and consumption of scientific knowledge is a system of distorted and disjoint social

relations that enables some and deprives many. The reign of "practical experts" who use the products of inquiry merely to manage "human material" has been accompanied by the recrudescence of dogmatic authority in government, industry, and the schools. Scientific management and hierarchial accountability tend to destroy or distort dialogue. Instead of ideas being communicated in a democratic community, they are issued as orders to be obeyed down the chain of command. The result is not critical dialogue and collaboration but dogmatic soliloquy and conformity, and in Dewey's (1946) words, "Logic in its fulfillment recurs to the primitive sense of the word: *dialogue*. Ideas which are not communicated, shared, and reborn in expression are but soliloquy, and soliloquy is but broken and imperfect thought." Elsewhere Dewey (1946) declares that "democracy is a name for a life of free and enriching communion." Such a life does not exist for many student teachers in our schools of education or in the schoolhouse. Teachers are as a rule talked down to, dialogue degenerates into soliloquy, and democracy disappears.

The noble traits of individual method and creative autonomy are twisted by scientific technique. Directness, the concentration of effort and energy, is replaced by "diverted energy . . . loss of power and confusion of ideas." Confidence in the possibilities of situations gives way to mere self-confidence and egotism. Open-mindedness, seen as hospitality extended to the ideas of others, is transformed into empty-mindedness, the illusions of detached technique, and unreflective devotion to the methodological products, but not to the process. Dewey (1916) conjectures that "the chief cause of devotion to rigidity of method is, . . . that it seems to promise speedy, accurately measurable results. The zeal for 'answers' is the explanation of much of the zeal for rigid and mechanical methods." Furthermore, single-mindedness, the unity of creative self-expression and

internal motivation, is replaced by "divided interest and evasion." Such double-mindedness results from "motivation through rewards extraneous to the activity." Pursuits are carried out merely for their products. No pleasure is taken in the process of inquiry or what Francis Bacon somewhere called "the chase of Pan." All integrity of purpose lacking. Finally, and most unfortunately, individuals lose, or worse still never acquire, a sense of responsibility. Since those who merely distribute or consume products do not identify themselves with the process by which the final outcome is obtained, they are not as likely to feel responsible for the consequences of their acts. For the nonparticipant concerned only with products there is no integrity of purpose nor, as Dewey (1916) expresses it, is there any "acceptance of responsibility for the consequence of one's activity including thought." Perhaps, this is why there are so many dire reports on the status of our students.

We could say more about the tragedy and travesty of the scientific technique, but for our purposes, that is, for the discussion of the relationship between scientific knowledge, instructional technology and the educational practitioner, we have said enough. The reader may readily infer the rest.

Instructional Technology, Temper & Technique

Instructional Technique

The instructional technique in education may be found in what Arthur Wirth (1983) called vulgar efficiency: "in which [workers'] productivity is measured as a proportion of input to output. This represents an engineer's way of defining efficiency within closed circuit mechanical systems." Wirth (1983) goes on to say that social values are systematically excluded from this model of efficiency. While this is certainly not the

only form of the scientific technique in education, it is a worthy example.

The clearest example of this mentality is embodied in the landmark *The Principles of Scientific Management*, by Frederick W. Taylor. Taylor (1911) believed that there was "one best way of doing a job and this method could be determined only

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through the scientific study of that job by experts with proper implements. . ." He saw his theory as providing an "almost equal division of the work and the responsibility between the management and workmen." For Taylor (1911) this meant that "one type of man is needed to plan ahead and an entirely different type to execute the work". Managers were to analyze, plan and control. The worker's "equal division" was to do what he was told by management. A mechanic working under Taylor reported that Mr. Taylor told him he was "not supposed to think; there are other people paid for thinking around here".

As Raymond Callahan has shown in his *Education and the Cult of Efficiency* (1962) "Taylorism" became the dominant mode of educa-

tional administration by the late 1930's and with some considerable modification has remained in that position ever since. The most important modification of Taylorism was the technocratic management by objectives (MBO) model associated most closely with Robert McNamara and the idea of the "Biggest bang for the buck." This idea was brought over from the defense department to education by Alice Rivlin in the late 1960's to assess the effectiveness of Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act as well as other federal educational legislation. The idea quickly caught on in state legislation and spread into the field of education incorporated into things like competency based education (CBE), competency based teacher education (CBTE), outcome assessment and other similar measures of productivity.

High support for the type of accountability came from appointees to the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (HEW). These appointees were from the Department of Defense, which, under Robert McNamara attempted to run the War in Vietnam via an output production model or MBO.

One of the key appointees was Alice Rivlin who worked for the Assistant Secretary for Program Evaluation. Ernest House (1978) comments that:

Rivlin's thinking was striking in its use of physical analogies. She perceived education techniques and children the same as raw materials in a manufacturing process. They could be put into various combinations to determine the most efficient single grouping which would consistently give the best output-products in factories, test scores in education. The analysis methodologies were lifted straight from manufacturing. This was the essence of the systems analysis approach. Relate input to output and determine the most efficient

combination. This would save on scarce resources. 'Biggest bang for the buck' in manufacturing, in weapons systems, and in social services.

Recall Pitt's comment that, "governments, organizations, and hierarchies represent tools just as hammers and nails do" (Pitt, 1983). When Robert McNamara attempted to apply MBO to obtain the most bang for the buck by measuring people as output, a bizarre thing happened; people became products—products that were counted, as in the nightly body count, products that had such and such an SAT, products that could be maximized. In the search for an accounting, the test became the primary focus, not what was being tested, an event reinforced by the reform movement of the 1980's. David Tyack (1990) asserted, "Policy makers came to regard tests as the chief measure of accountability" (Tyack, 1990). Once again the tail was wagging the dog.

This top-down technocratic detachment is indicative of the most strident of situations that fall under the scientific technique. House (1978) finds fault in the Tayloristic and technocratic management arguments of Rivlin:

The systems analysis approach to evaluation promises to substitute specific techniques derived from 'science' for the knowledge of craft in teaching. It is a false promise, for such simple techniques cannot substitute for full fledged professional knowledge, much of it tacit rather than explicit, which has been acquired over many years. Such a technological vision of knowledge rests on a confusion of tacit knowledge with generalizations and rules of procedure. In teaching as in speaking, if one relied on the formalized, externalized rules of procedure, one would be mute.

The emphasis in instructional temper lies not with the hardware, but in the processes of education.

Emendation or feedback is built into all instructional systems, thereby allowing the practitioner to alter the design in the context of practice .

. . . With this emendation loop, the teacher is brought into the process. This is often operationalized through teacher autonomy.

Often, maybe most, times teachers, the practitioners, are held accountable to the technocratic predetermined implementation of technology, the technique, than to any creative use of it. The problem is that teachers are rarely consulted in the process of the construction or even implementation phase, they are merely held accountable to the product for which they themselves as well as the technology are merely instruments. This situation resembles the worker on the assembly line who performs certain tasks without either thought or imagination and who has no real identification with the final product because they had no real artistic role in the process of its creation, and therefore no commitment to

the quality of the final product. In the case of technologically delivered teacher-proof curricula teachers do little more than lip sync the song, or follow the keys of the player piano. As House points out, questions of educational practice are converted into questions of efficiency by systems analysis.

The application of instructional technology in the classroom has too often followed this top-down, expert-systems, hierarchial structure exclusively. It has come, far too frequently, to resemble what we call instructional technology as technique rather than temper. The result is that instead of empowering and enabling classroom teachers and their creativity, it has often been harnessed instead as a substitute for the teacher and the teacher's work. The relation between the cognitive scientist, technology of hardware systems, the instructional technologist, and the educational practitioner is often linear and one-way.

The hierarchial, top-down and linear structure that many followers of the conventional wisdom regarding the relation between science, technology and practice prefer also illustrates the descending order of presumed purity and power of thought and, perhaps, of the thinkers as well.

Instructional Temper

The technological temper is the converse of the technique. While the tools of instructional technique and temper are similar, it is the emphasis in planning that makes a difference. The emphasis in instructional temper lies not with the hardware, but in the processes of education. Emendation or feedback is built into all instructional systems, thereby allowing the practitioner to alter the design in the context of practice; for example, the real world classroom. While the methods may be systematic, they are never without emendation. With this emendation loop, the teacher is brought into the process. This is often *operationalized* through teacher autonomy. With this paradigm the teacher becomes more than simply a mechanic who is

told not to think. She, or he, is now connected back to the beginning of the design. The character of the tools and the use to which they have been put may change as practitioners become engaged in the process of shaping them. That is, according to J.C. Pitt (1990), "it is *people* who are doing the putting for some use, for some purpose".

Instead of merely being the tuners of a player piano, the educational practitioners (teachers) can throw the instructional technology into fresh combinations that may not only be more useful to them and their students but to others in the loop as well. This illustrates the appropriate relations socially, intellectually and otherwise between the hardware specialist, scientist, and instructional technologist.

Dewey, Democracy, & Logical Thinking

The reform movement of the 1980's reinvigorated the hierarchy of power—this time for the sake of enhanced accountability. David Tyack (1990) writes that, "implicit in all this was a transfer of power to a set of experts—the testers—who . . . were not directly accountable to democratic decision making".

Knowledge is power. In education, instructional technology comprises an important part of pedagogical knowledge. This knowledge is largely the property of the expert, the doctors, who produce it; it is they who possess the virtues of the scientific temper and participate in the process of pursuing knowledge.

Instructional technology is commonly "prepackaged" and the product is then distributed to legislatures, educational administrators, school board members and others. In scientific management, knowledge, including instructional technology, is distributed from the top down. Those at the bottom, teachers, are frequently held accountable to it by those closer to the top and rather obviously, the power of that knowledge tends to reside with the accountants and not the teachers.

Rather than democratically enabling teachers, instructional technology packages can sometimes actually tyrannize them—or worse.

Educational practitioners, especially teachers, have a great deal of practitioner knowledge, but because only scientific and technological knowledge is considered legitimate knowledge, their practical knowledge is devalued to the point where it imparts little if any power to the practitioner who possesses it and none to the scientist and technologist who could benefit from it to design better systems.

In a chapter of *Democracy and Education* titled "The Democratic Conception in Education", Dewey (1916) observes:

Plato defined a slave as one who accepts from another the purposes which control his conduct. This condition ob-

tains even where there is no slavery in the legal sense. It is found wherever men are engaged in activity which is socially serviceable, but whose service they do not understand and have no personal interest in. Much is said about scientific management of work. It is a narrow view which restricts the science which secures efficiency of operation to movements of the muscles. **The chief opportunity for science is the discovery of the relations of a man to his work—including his relations to others who take part—which will enlist his intelligent interest in what he is doing** (emphasis added).

Instructional technology instituted as mere technological technique turns teachers into slaves to the degree that they do not understand it and/or are not encouraged to understand it and have no personal interest in it. This is a strong indictment; Dewey meant it to be—and so do we. Dewey (1916) did not deny that "efficiency in production often demands division of labor", what it does not demand is undemocratic social relations.

What is called for, we think, is a dialogue between the designers of instructional technology and the practitioners that must put it into practice. The pattern is that of the emendation characteristic of the technological temper.

Conclusion

Educational practitioners, especially teachers, have a great deal of practitioner knowledge, but because only scientific and technological knowledge is considered legitimate knowledge, their practical knowledge is devalued to the point where it imparts little if any power to the practitioner who possesses it and none to the scientist and technologist who could benefit from it to design better systems.

Practitioner participation in design development and emendation of instructional technology would have many happy consequences, four of which come readily to mind.

First, the participation of practitioners in research and development of instructional systems with more formally trained instructional technologies would be likely to yield results that are not only more valid and reliable, but more relevant as well.

Second, research and development involving practitioners, especially practitioner-initiated design, would help legitimate practitioner's knowledge.

Third, since knowledge, and the ability to obtain it, is power, the legitimization of practitioner-knowledge would lead to the enablement of teachers.

Fourth, and finally, the epistemological enablement of teachers would produce a reorganization of the current hierarchial social structure advocated by a technocratic scientific management approach. The current monologue, in which scientific and technological experts, along with management, talks down to teachers, may, it is hoped, be replaced by a continuing dialogue of continuous hermeneutical (re)interpretation and mutually sustained inquiry.

There is ample room for expansion of our democratic circle beyond that of the present discussion. For example, there are the essential roles played by the students and parents. Nor, for that matter, do we want to reject the roles of business, industry, and government. We would only want to place them within the dynamic of

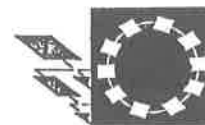
our ever evolving and ever expanding hermeneutic circle.

As it is now practiced, instructional design includes loops in the form of formative evaluation and summative evaluation. Also, included in the design team is a content expert, who may or may not be a practitioner. However, even when this is done, if the design is calcified, as we find in the technological technique, the practitioner is still cut off from any form of hermeneutical emendation-or change-to fit the particular classroom.

More democratic social relations in the development and implementation of instructional systems will yield better instructional design and practice.

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The Kingsley Quilt—"A Patchwork of Learners": Organizing a New Site-Based Management School

Lenore M. Johnson

How does one create an environment so that conditions exist where students can become self-directed learners? Can this be done through site-based management? I believe it can.

For most administrators site-based management means restructuring what we are doing. It means reform. It means change. For me, in the fall of 1990, site-based management meant starting new-creating. In order to create a new environment, I read extensively about effective schools and the role of the principal in those schools. Much has been written about the power of the principal to make school improvement happen. "A good principal can create a school where students learn and teachers develop, where openness, cooperation and harmony reign" (Marsden, 1990). If true, I wanted to create such a school.

From experience, this view doesn't always match reality. Administrators often become managers, not learners. We often are concerned about the organization, not the individuals. We often are situational in how we operate, not long-range. We often are maintainers, not innovators. I decided I wanted to be an innovator—to be a "champion of ideas." I wanted to be a visionary.

I began by looking at how to vision. According to Peter Block (1987), "Greatness demands that we eliminate our reservations and that we have hope in the face of the history of our limitations." In visioning I have looked at the three aspects of a

school—its culture, its curriculum, and its organization. In order to address the culture and the curriculum I needed to make decisions on how it would be organized. I knew I wanted to make decisions on how it would be organized. I knew I wanted teacher involvement—a collegial model. I chose a group of teacher leaders to form an initial site-based management team for Kingsley School. The group was made up of classroom and support teachers. I chose teachers I had worked with before and teachers new to the school district. I chose veterans and new teachers. I chose teachers who had been involved in leadership roles and those who had not. I chose both men and women. There were eight people on this first team.

The team met every three weeks. We targeted school culture as our number one priority. We chose a consultant to assist us with investigating the concept of 'culture.' We wanted the development of the culture to be reflective of the staff as people and how they functioned in their personal lives as well as how they functioned in their school lives. We chose the book, *The Seven Basic Habits of Highly Effective People*, by Stephen Covey (1989) as our focus for the year. We outlined the staff development calendar based on the principles of this book (Table I).

In September we began with the concept of being pro-active. We worked with an outside consultant who took us through the process of identifying how to be pro-active. We found that pro-active people make their area of influences greater than

their area of concerns. We began to put this idea into practice within the school setting. We began to look ahead and determine where we needed to act as the new school began to develop.

October and November began our exploration of visioning. We began to dialogue about where we wanted to end up. What outcomes for the year were important to us? We 'began with the end in mind.' We read Covey's chapter on prioritizing and had grade level teams set their monthly agendas based on their priority needs. This helped each team set its goals and work toward reaching them. We were able to combine being proactive with the prioritizing skill.

The focus in January was cooperation and collaboration. We introduced Don Lowry's (undated) "True Colors" program dealing with the spectrum of personalities which interact with each other in an organization. The color symbols represented the needs of self-confidence, pride, respect, and esteem. These needs were the catalyst of successful behavior interactions.

Communication continued to be the focus in March and April. We introduced a personality inventory and a conflict resolution system for team interaction. Teams were able to understand how each member perceived each other. Communication issues were opened up for discussion. This approach valued and celebrated the differences in the people in the school. Teams signed a team creed. This creed highlighted that idea of compromise versus winning.

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Table I

Staff Development Calendar				
Management Plan				
Activity	Responsibility	Date	Documentation	Dissemination
Bev Boomsma: Starting Kingsley "Quilt" Habit #1—becoming pro-active; Habit #2—start with end in mind.	Leadership team and administration	9-28-90	In-service agenda color pamphlet	Staff-whole group/small group
Introduce book, <u>Seven Basic Habits of Highly Effective People</u> , by S. Covey.	Administration	9-29-90	Books - 1 per leadership member and 1 for professional reference library	Leadership team
Habit #3—Prioritizing, traditions, Kingsley team issues.	Traditions committee leadership team	10-17-90	Charts from jigsaw groups	Cross-grade , staff groups
Bev Boomsma: Habit #4—win/win, Habit #5—communication.	Leadership team	1-30-91	In-service agenda	Staff-whole group/small group.
Begin building goal process for 1991-91.	Leadership team	4-10-91	Goal sheets	Extended in-service
Bev Boomsma: Habit #6—cooperation, Habit #7—self-renewal.	Leadership team	4-24-91	In-service agenda	Staff - whole group/small group
Writing vision statement	Leadership team	5-1-91	Vision statement	Faculty meeting - to staff
Complete first Kingsley "Quilt"	Leadership team	5-1-91	Quilt	5-1-91

The Thinking Creed

We Pledge to...

Tug at ideas, not people.

Examine all sides of an issue.

Actively listen and clarify for each other.

Modify our position when appropriate.

Seek the best decision . . . not the winning position.

The leadership team developed an Action Plan (Table II) for the year based on the principles that were introduced and practiced. Follow-up activities and modeling of the principles took place between whole-group sessions.

We chose an analogy for the development of the school culture—the Kingsley Quilt. In our view, all staff bring a different dimension to the culture—a different color; a different texture; a different expertise; a different teaching style. In order to put the quilt together we need to create a frame. The frame for us is made up of cooperation and collaboration. We use communication tools to sew the squares together.

We wanted all publics to have a part in the quilt . . . to put their squares into the frame. We involved students and parents as well as staff in this process. We created a quilt area in our learning resource center with a sewing basket and fabrics. We then put an-

other basket with the sentence stem, "Kingsley School is a place where . . ." All publics were given an opportunity to respond to this stem and add their square to the quilt. The leadership team took all of the stems and used them to create a vision/mission statement. There were over 200 responses to the stem in the basket. This mission statement reflected the belief system of the staff, students and parents.

The mission of Kingsley School is to create a community in which people care for one another, the whole child is nurtured, learning can be fun, children learn how to learn and solve problems in order to become confident, cooperative and compassionate people.

Table II

Action Plan	
Target Area	Identify the target area in which improvement is needed.
Goals	Problem Statement: The purpose of this action plan is to develop the Kingsley School culture involving all publics—staff, students and parents.
Objectives	<p>Identify specific measurable targets that will serve as indicators of goal achievement.</p> <p>The staff will study the seven basic patterns of highly effective schools. This is based on Stephen Covey's book, <u>The Seven Basic Habits of Highly Effective People</u>.</p> <p>Emphasis will be placed on being pro-active rather than re-active in all situations/decisions.</p> <p>Teachers will share responsibility for all decisions affecting school climate.</p> <p>The staff will create a vision of Kingsley School.</p>

This mission statement along with the analogy was actualized in a real quilt. The year culminated with the celebration of the school culture. We held a Community Open House where the Knigsley Quilt was unveiled and the mission statement shared. Every classroom presented a square in the quilt. The staff and parents also presented their squares. The quilt was hung in the front lobby and

serves as a symbol of the Kingsley School culture. It is a true picture of this community of learners.

As we enter our second year, we have used this mission statement to energize us as a staff as we now choose our second priority—the curriculum. We have determined a theme for each grade level as the curriculum link to integrate content areas. We have solidified our beliefs and have

developed outcomes that are a result of the initial vision. We are working from this vision. We know we are innovators as we use this given curriculum to create new connections to make our teaching more effective. We are using the principles learned through our exploration of school culture to come to consensus as a building as we create Kingsley School. We saw our vision. We said it. We believed it. Now we are living it.

The following poem describes how we view the culture of Kingsley school:

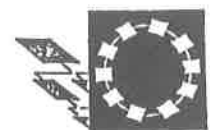
**“The Kingsley Quilt—
A Patchwork of Learners”**

**How much like a patchwork we
are.
Some of us bright and gay.
Some are quieter, more delicate
and subdued.
Yet how well we blend together.
The quieter ones set off the
colorful.
The brighter ones accentuate the
pastels.
Often the more fragile pieces hold
the sturdy ones together.
Blessed we are to be varied.
All of us stitched with love.
And tied to one another.**

Author Unknown

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Teacher Empowerment at Paul Norton Elementary School: In Progress

by Doris S. Sandvick and
Roberta W. Nauman

Background by Roberta W. Nauman

The National Education Association (NEA) established the Mastery in Learning Network in 1985 with a Department of Education grant made jointly to the NEA and IBM. Schools whose districts supported the effort to empower teachers through site-based management and to initiate research-based instruction, applied to become a network school. Paul Norton Elementary School in Bettendorf, Iowa was one of twenty-seven chosen to participate in the project.

The twenty-seven schools were linked to each other and the NEA headquarters in Washington, D.C. through an IBM computer network. The NEA supplied consultants and sponsored several conferences for staff members of network schools. A connection was also made between each participating school and a nearby junior college where ERIC searches could be conducted. Paul Norton Elementary School was linked with Blackhawk Junior College in Moline, Illinois.

The original project was funded for three years. It was extended for one additional year. In Bettendorf, the project has been continued by the community school district and has been extended to every building within the district. Consultant Larry Lezotte, Senior Vice-President of Effective Schools, Okemos, Michigan has been

guiding the Bettendorf project since the withdrawal of NEA.

In addition to getting teachers actively involved in the reform process, parents and students have had input as well. The process has been for the school to look at itself and to make changes. At Paul Norton Elementary School, an elected Steering Committee with an elected chair provided the on site leadership for the undertaking. Doris S. Sandvick, an LD resource teacher and author of the remarks which follow, serve as the second chair of the Steering Committee. The committee continues; however, leadership is now shared by committee members.

In Progress

When we began, we were going to become empowered. We had an unrealistic hope that we were going to make the perfect school and live happily ever after. We have developed into being very happy to be involved in school improvement which, we have learned, is an ever evolving process to make the school better. In search of utopia we have come to understand some things about site-based change.

- The district must come to believe that change is necessary and needs to come from the bottom up, thus giving schools the opportunity to take risks—the feeling that the school will learn from its failures as well as its successes.
- Change is a difficult process.

- Those involved need to have a realization that everything cannot be changed, but that everything can be questioned.
 - Some of the things that people want to try will take money. Teachers must be creative in getting funds for their process.
 - Change involves a partnership between community, parents, students, teachers, administrators and board members. From the group as a whole and the sub groups, missions must be formed. It is easier to put the mission in writing so that it can be revisited.
 - By far, the item which brings the most frustration is lack of time. Staffs must creatively use time. Reading, assessing, designing, implementing, evaluating, and celebrating all take time. I cannot emphasize enough the amount of time that is needed to implement change. Had you asked anyone at Paul Norton when we began what would be the main need—time wins hands down. Reading research, assessing needs and how to implement research, designing action research, and implementing programs take time. Evaluation must occur so that the cyclical process can begin again.
 - Participants must take time to celebrate successes. Celebration is the fuel that keeps the cycle turning.
- In summation, we are still forming and reforming. We do not want to go back. We realize that the road that we have taken is our road. We will continue choosing at every fork—twisting and turning, constantly moving toward the best school Paul Norton can be each day.

Doris S. Sandvick is a LD resource teacher and former Steering Committee Chairperson of the National Education Association Mastery in Learning Network at Paul Norton Elementary School, of Bettendorf, Iowa.

Roberta W. Nauman is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Educational Psychology, Counseling and Special Education, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb, Illinois.

Peer Coaching: A Process for Developing Professionalism, Achieving Instructional Excellence, and Improving Student Learning

by Carrie L. Cox,
Madeline M. Gabry, and
Lizbeth Johnson

Peer Coaching recognizes the teacher as a professional; however, peer coaching is not for every district. It is not a program that can be artificially applied because it involved a two phased commitment by teachers and administrators and a philosophical and financial commitment on the part of the school board. It requires nurturing, like a child, if it is to be successful. Districts who have made these commitments have been rewarded by instructional excellence and improved student learning.

Background Information

Following several years of political strife in the early 1980s, a new superintendent and a new school board brought forth changes in philosophy that included the need to make an already good school district better. Administrators and representatives of the teachers' association met to create a revolutionary program that would provide opportunity for achieving excellence in professional growth.

This committee, the Inservice for Excellence Committee, created the staff development program which was approved by the school board in early 1984.

The District 230 staff development program includes three phases: summer training, peer coaching, and follow-up opportunities.

Perhaps the most unique feature of this program is the fact that it offers teachers a variety of choices affecting their professional growth.

Through teachers' dialogue with their peers in a non-threatening atmosphere, peer coaching takes the skills a teacher already possesses and improves on those skills.

First of all, teachers have an equal voice with administrators in determining inservice topics. Secondly, participation in the program is voluntary. Finally, the teachers choose whether or not to participate in peer coaching during the school year based on their personal needs and time commitments.

As a result of the district wide commitment to this program, there have been outstanding changes in at-

titudes. No longer are teachers isolationists who want to be left alone. Teacher cooperation has replaced competition as the atmosphere among teachers. Teachers genuinely believe that they are good at what they do and want to get better. Furthermore, teachers are viewed and treated as professionals by the administration. Finally, the school board believes in the staff and is backing this belief with a substantial financial commitment of \$225,000 annually.

Why Peer Coaching?

Peer coaching was chosen as a topic by the Inservice for Excellence Committee because it focused on the teacher evaluation system. Traditionally, teachers were evaluated annually by their department chairperson. Traditionally, it was a day when teachers trotted out their best "dog and pony show" for their department chair's approval. This "show" bore little or no resemblance to what actually occurred in the classroom on a daily basis. At the conclusion of the lesson, the department chair would engage in polite chit-chat with the instructor, with the end result being that no instructional outcomes were effected. This evaluation process was actually of no benefit to either the teacher or the student. Because instructional excellence was the goal of the Inservice for Excellence Committee, a new system of evaluation was needed. Peer coaching was chosen to be that system because

Carrie L. Cox is a member of the Physical Education Department, Madeline M. Gabry and Lizbeth Johnson are members of the English Department, Victor J. Andrew High School, Tinley Park, Illinois. Victor J. Andrew High School is one of three high schools in Consolidated High School District 230.

it did not retrain teachers. Through teachers' dialogue with their peers in a non-threatening atmosphere, peer coaching takes the skills a teacher already possesses and improves on those skills.

How Peer Coaching Works

Atmosphere

Peer coaching will only be successful if an atmosphere of trust and respect is established first. This is not always easy. For example, administrators had a problem with teachers being responsible for their own professional growth. Therefore, in the first two years of peer coaching, administrators were assigned to each teaching group. Groups were not successful because teachers were still being evaluated by administrators and teachers believed that nothing in the evaluation process had been changed. Only when administrators were willing to relinquish the hold over staff evaluations was the climate enhanced so that an atmosphere of trust could be developed. Teachers also found it was important to be part of a team that was truly consisted of one's peers, people to whom they could relate easily and honestly, where they would receive genuine feedback. This process was also beneficial because it allowed teachers to try innovative and experimental techniques without fear of criticism or of having something negative written in a permanent evaluation. When teachers pick their own teams, whether within their discipline or outside, that team is more effective. Peer coaching will only succeed when there is trust among all participants.

Training

To successfully use the peer coaching process, all participants must be trained. District 230 uses a summer inservice program led by Dr. Robert J. Garmstrom (See Note 1) to instruct participants in the use of peer coaching strategies. The overriding peer coaching principle is collegial-

ity—it is not the responsibility of the team to "fix" the teacher. The team's only responsibility is to help the teacher reflect on his/her own behavior. This is not as simple as it sounds!

An effective team should be composed of no more than four members. From personal experience, we have found that three members is ideal, simply because class visitation and conference times are easier to schedule. Teams do not have to be composed of teachers only—guidance counselors, deans, librarians and social workers have all benefitted from the peer coaching experience. Some teachers find it more valuable to participate on teams made up of members of their own disciplines, but others have found it is more collegial to

work with members of different departments. Recently, a driver education teacher treated her peer coaching colleagues to an adventure during an on-the-road expressway driving lesson. As a result, the social studies and business education teachers gained a new appreciation of their colleague's abilities and helped her to improve on her decision making skills in the bargain.

Preconference

Peer coaching follows a three step approach involving the person who will present the lesson (the teacher) and the other participants who will observe the lesson (coaches). The first step in the process is called preconference. Garmstrom's precon-

Table I

Preconference Objectives	
Coach's Objectives	
Planning	1. Elicit and clarify statements of purpose of the lesson.
	2. Probe for specific observable student behaviors.
	3. Probe for the specific teaching strategies/behaviors to be used.
	4. Ask what led up to and what will follow this lesson.
	5. Invite teacher concerns/hopes for the lesson.
	6. Elicit a description of own role in the observation.
	7. Determine, with the teacher, how data can be collected.
Teacher's Objectives	
Planning	1. State the purpose of the lesson.
	2. Translate the purposes into descriptions of observable student behaviors desired.
	3. Describe the teaching strategies/behaviors to be employed to facilitate students' performance of desired behaviors.
	4. Describe the sequence in which this lesson occurs.
	5. Anticipate any concerns.
	6. Describe the role of the observer.
	7. Suggest forms in which observation data can be collected.

ference objectives are presented in Table I. The words "elicit", "probe", "ask", "invite" and "determine" are carefully chosen because the purpose of the preconference is for the teacher to explain thoroughly where outcomes will be achieved through the lesson.

Teachers use the coaches as a data-gathering instrument who will produce objective feedback about the lesson. This feedback will help teachers reflect on and evaluate their progress. Some data teachers might want to collect could include: pause time, checking student on task behaviors, eye contact, questioning skills, appealing to various learning styles, classroom traffic patterns, verbal interaction, interaction analysis (praise, direction, and criticism charted) or selective verbatim (recording exactly what is said in the classroom).

Observation

The coaches visit the classroom at the prearranged time and chart, record and note information only in the areas discussed in the preconference. A postconference is scheduled following the observation.

Postconference

Postconferencing is the most important step in the peer coaching process because it offers teachers the opportunity to reflect on their teaching outcomes. This reflection is accomplished through a series of probing questions that help teachers gain insight into the effectiveness of lessons. Through this process teachers actually evaluate their own skills. Trust is so important because peer coaches are not supposed to be critical or judgmental, but rather to help the teachers draw their own conclusions. When teachers, through skilled questioning, draw their own conclusions they are more likely to find self-prescriptions that will alter teaching strategies and behaviors. Garmstrom's postconference objectives are presented in Table II.

Table II

Postconference Objectives	
Coach's Objectives	
Reflecting	1. Probe for the teacher's intuition.
	2. Ask the teacher to recall the student behavior observed during the lesson to support those feelings.
	3. Ask the teacher to recall the teacher behavior/s strategies used during the lesson.
	4. Present the teacher with data collected about student behaviors and seek comparison between student behavior performed and student behavior desired.
	5. Present the teacher with data collected about teacher behaviors and see comparison between teacher behavior performed and teacher behavior planned.
	6. Probe for inferences about the achievement of the purpose of the lesson.
	7. Probe for explanation as to why the student behavior were/were not performed.
	8. Elicit and explore the teacher's decision-making processes.
Applying	9. Elicit prescriptions for alternative teaching strategies/behaviors/conditions.
	10. Elicit an evaluation of the process and coaching cadre's conferencing skills.
Teacher's Objectives	
Reflecting	1. Express feelings about the lesson.
	2. Recall student behaviors observed during the lesson that support the teacher's feelings.
	3. Recall and relate teacher decisions and behaviors to student behaviors.
	4. Compare student and teacher behavior performed with behaviors the teacher had planned.
	5. Make inferences as to the achievement of lesson objectives.
	6. Analyze why student behaviors were or were not performed.
	7. Reflect on the teacher's decision-making processes.
Applying	8. Make self-prescriptions for alternate teaching strategies or behaviors.
	9. Give the observers feedback about how they have helped the teacher in this process.

Why Peer Coaching is Effective

The benefits of adopting a peer coaching program are numerous. An independent study compiled by the District 230 Board of Education found that the exposure to and the learning of new teaching methods were the primary benefit of peer coaching. Other benefits cited were: increase in professional dialogue among teachers about instruction, a greater respect for teachers and curricula of other departments and an increased level of trust among professional staff.

Specific changes have also been apparent in teaching strategies. Teachers expressed a willingness to try new teaching methods and strategies and are using these to gain more interaction with students. Furthermore, teachers are more aware of their own behavior and are more skilled in self-evaluation. Peer coaching has also helped teachers improve class management and devote more attention to checking the understanding of students.

For these reasons, teachers are willing to participate in peer coaching and the summer inservice program.

What Teachers Say About Peer Coaching

Teachers themselves say peer coaching adds to the excitement of teaching because it promotes enthusiasm, creativity, pride and a sense of collaboration between teachers. Teachers also believe it helps improve teacher's self-esteem, provides recognition of a job well done, and relieves

feelings of isolation. Finally, teachers say peer coaching encourages and stimulates innovative ideas and provides teachers with coping strategies for solving student learning problems.

Peer coaching has also helped teachers improve class management and devote more attention to checking the understanding of students.

Criticism of Peer Coaching

The greatest criticisms of the peer coaching program are it takes too much time and money. Teachers who are in peer coaching teams spend about one hour in preconference, one hour in observation, and one hour in post-conference. If there are three teachers on a team, this often means each teacher will be out of class for a minimum of nine hours to do peer coaching. This increases costs for the program because the district must provide substitute teachers. Teachers themselves often feel frustrated because they miss so many of their own classes. One way to minimize loss of teaching time is to work in teams where teachers have common prepa-

ration periods or when they are able to meet before or after school. Some teams find it effective to peer coach all members on one entire day so they only miss classes one day as opposed to being out of class on three separate occasions. This last method is most effective if teachers work in teams of three and also it is beneficial to grade schools where teachers do not have preparation hours.

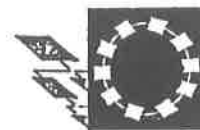
Districts should not attempt a peer coaching program unless there is a strong, solid financial commitment made by the Board of Education to finance a teacher training program. To date, District 230 has expended over one-million dollars on its program which began in 1984.

Administrative criticism of the program focuses on the loss of administrator's control over teacher's evaluations. Many administrators fail to recognize teachers as professionals who are able to assume responsibility for their own professional growth and development. However, many teachers' contracts allow for clinical supervision (traditional evaluation) to be used whenever an administrator thinks it necessary.

Is peer coaching expensive? Yes. Is peer coaching time consuming? Yes. Will anything else make as big a difference in terms of developing professionalism, achieving instructional excellence, and improving student learning? No.

Note 1:

Dr. Robert J. Garmstrom, The Institute for Intelligent Behavior, 2233 Watt Avenue, Suite 285, Sacramento, CA 95825.



Dissertation Review:

Gibson, B. (1989) 'Illinois School Administrators' Perceptions of Teacher Empowerment'

Reviewed by Lorraine McCoy

Background of the study

Barbara A. Gibson discusses the perceptions of Illinois superintendents and principals regarding teachers' empowerment, that is, teachers' involvement in the decision-making process, in her dissertation, "Illinois School Administrators' Perceptions of Teacher Empowerment."

Her study is an outgrowth of the reform agendas of the 1980's which maintained that the traditional, *centralized system of educational structure* primarily excludes teachers from the decision-making process. A centralized system regards teachers as workers needing the direction and guidance of administrators. A *decentralized system* is one in which teachers are given a voice in making decisions that affect their educational environments. A decentralized system focuses on regarding teachers as professionals who are capable of a high degree of autonomy both in decision making and in evaluating themselves as well as the decisions made.

In her review of the literature, Gibson cites a number of research studies that show that when teachers are involved in decision-making, there are higher teacher retention rates, increased staff satisfaction, increased communication, and in-

creased commitment to educational goals. Gibson's dissertation, then, is grounded in the notion that teacher empowerment has a positive effect on the educational process.

As a result of the educational reform movement of the 1980s, numerous studies were undertaken to determine teachers' views on the empowerment issue. A neglected area, however, was superintendent/principal perceptions.

Gibson asserts that the perceptions of school administrators are crucial in implementing plans for teacher empowerment. Therefore it is important not only to assess administrators' perceptions of current levels of empowerment, but also to look at their willingness to implement programs or policies that will ensure this empowerment.

Levels of decision making

Gibson's research focused on assessing school administrators' perceptions of teachers' levels of participation in twenty-four decision-making situations at the classroom, building and district levels.

The eight decision-making situations at the *classroom level* identified by Gibson were: planning and developing curriculum; choosing textbooks; selecting audio-visual equipment and/or computer equipment; determining classroom utilization;

grouping students; resolving learning problems of individual students; determining instructional methods and techniques; and determining methods of grading students.

At the *building level*, the eight decision-making situations were: determining class size; designing the master schedule; establishing student discipline policies; selecting new faculty; developing teacher evaluation criteria; evaluating teacher performance and rating; designing staff development and inservice programs; and planning parent programs.

At the *district level*, the eight decision-making situations were: determining district staffing needs; selecting the building principal/s; evaluating building administrators; deciding individual school budgets; determining faculty salaries (if they were not negotiated); managing buildings and facilities; designing public relations programs; and establishing the yearly calendar for the district (p. 218).

Research questions

In conducting her research, Gibson attempted to answer the following questions:

1. Is there a difference between superintendents' perceptions and principals' perceptions of teachers' current levels of decision-making involvement in Illinois?

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2. Is there a difference between superintendents' perceptions and principals' perceptions of the decision-making areas in which teachers in Illinois are asking for involvement?
3. Is there a difference between superintendents' perceptions and principals' perceptions of the decision-making areas in which each is willing to involve teachers in Illinois?
4. Is there a difference between superintendents' perceptions and principals' perceptions of the means through which each is willing to empower teachers in Illinois?
5. Is there a difference in the perceptions of the respondent group on the subject of teacher empowerment due to selected demographic characteristics? (p.9)

Research sample

Gibson drew her sample from all public school districts outside the city of Chicago that employed one superintendent and one to three principals, depending on whether the district included an elementary, junior high, and/or senior high school. Her sample included the superintendents of 449 public school districts which included 203 elementary schools, 168 junior high schools, and 78 senior high schools. 58.5% of these superintendents responded to the survey. Within the 449 school districts, 51.8%, or 557 principals, returned the surveys.

The study

A mail survey was used to collect data for the study. A Likert-type scale was used to determine superintendents' and principals' perceptions. Gibson asked respondents to assess teachers' current level of participation in classroom, building, and district decision making. The four levels of participation were:

- 1) administrative;

- 2) consultive;
- 3) participatory; and
- 4) delegated.

At the administrative level of participation, superordinates (superintendents and principals) make decisions without consulting with or soliciting input from subordinates (teachers).

At the consultive level, superordinates ask for information and input from subordinates, but they may or may not use this information to make decisions.

At the participatory level, administrators share decision making with teachers. Both superordinates and subordinates generate and evaluate alternatives and base their decisions on consensus.

Finally, at the delegated level administrators provide information, then give teachers total control over the decision-making process. Thus, teacher control over the decision-making process ranges from no control, at the administrative level, to total control, at the delegated level.

Gibson identified four categories of ways in which teachers can become empowered: through *mandates* such as:

- 1) United States Department of Education mandate;
- 2) Illinois State Board of Education mandate;
- 3) negotiated contract mandate; and
- 4) district board policy mandate;

through *directives*:

- 5) superintendent directive; and
- 6) principal directive;

through *participation*:

- 7) administration/faculty participation;

through *delegation*:

- 8) lead teacher/department chair-delegated responsibility; and
- 9) teacher-delegated responsibility.

Respondents indicated which of these categories represented the best means of empowering teachers.

Results

In response to the *first research question* regarding school administrators' perceptions of teachers' current level of empowerment, Gibson found that both superintendents and principals perceived teachers as being more involved in decision-making when situations focused around student concerns. In addition, more superintendents than principals perceived teachers as being involved in program development and being involved in contract negotiations.

Gibson speculates that perhaps school administrators chose not to involve teachers in decisions outside of the classroom domain because they perceived them as being less knowledgeable about concerns not directly related to students. Also, administrators might not have supported teacher empowerment beyond classroom concerns because they may have felt threatened when decisions were more closely related to traditional areas of administrative control.

More superintendents than principals may have perceived teachers as being involved in contract negotiations because the superintendents themselves were more involved in the bargaining process.

In response to the *second research question* regarding the decision-making areas in which school administrators perceived teachers as wanting empowerment, Gibson found that both superintendents and principals saw teachers as seeking involvement in all eight situations at the *classroom level*.

At the *building level*, both superintendents and principals perceived teachers as seeking involvement in all decision-making situations except "selecting new faculty" and "evaluating teacher performance and rating."

At the *district level*, superintendents and principals perceived teachers as wanting involvement only in

“determining faculty salaries” and “establishing the yearly calendar for the district.”

Superintendents’ and principals’ perceptions differed on only three of the twenty-four decision-making situations. At the *classroom level*, principals saw teachers seeking more involvement in “planning and developing curriculum” than did superintendents. At the *building level*, superintendents saw teachers wanting more involvement in “designing staff development inservice programs” and “planning parent programs.”

Regarding the perceived greater involvement desired at the classroom level, Gibson suggests that administrators’ perceptions might reflect the degree of present teacher involvement at the various levels. That is, if teachers were already involved in making decisions at the classroom level, the administration might have assumed that they wanted to continue that involvement.

As a possible explanation for the discrepancy between principals’ and superintendents’ perceptions, Gibson suggests that the difference might be the result of administrators working more closely with teachers in different areas—superintendents in negotiating, principals in evaluating. Different concerns might have been expressed by teachers to administrators based on the context of their discussions.

In response to the *third research question* regarding administrators’ willingness to respond to teachers’ desire for empowerment, both superintendents and principals expressed a willingness to involve teachers in nineteen of the twenty-four decision-making areas.

At the *classroom level*, school administrators seemed willing to involve teachers in all eight decision-making situations.

At the *building level*, administrators expressed willingness to involve teachers in all decision-making situations except “determining class size” and “selecting new faculty.”

At the *district level*, administrators showed a willingness to involve

teachers in all decision-making situations except “determining staffing needs,” “selecting the building principal/s,” and “managing buildings and facilities.”

Superintendents’ and principals’ perceptions differed on only four of the twenty-four situations, and only at the building and district levels, with superintendents less willing than principals to empower teachers. Superintendents were less willing than principals to involve teachers at the building level in “determining class size” and “developing teacher evaluation criteria,” and at the district level, when “determining district staffing needs” and “evaluating building administrators.”

The most significant finding of Gibson’s study would seem to be that superintendents and principals seem unwilling to let teachers make decisions entirely on their own; they seem unwilling to relinquish their decision-making involvement in any area.

In her analysis, Gibson observes that *administrators were unwilling to relinquish power in all areas regarding personnel decisions*, with superintendents less willing than principals. This reluctance may be due in part to administrators’ reserving hiring and firing practices as a right of manage-

ment. Gibson commented: “Knowing that superintendents faced these demands by unions yearly, to which they had learned to say, ‘No,’ repeatedly, it was no wonder that they differed significantly in their unwillingness compared to principals. Principals did not usually enter the realm of negotiations” (p. 194).

Gibson also implies that school administrators’ unwillingness to empower teachers in certain areas may be the result of fear. In California and New York, some administrators either lost some degree of administrative control or lost their jobs as a result of teacher empowerment (p. 195).

In response to *research question four* regarding the means by which school administrators were willing to empower teachers, *in fourteen of the twenty-four decision-making situations administration/faculty participation was the preferred method of involving teachers*. Superintendents’ and principals’ perceptions differed significantly in five of the twenty-four decision-making areas.

At the *classroom level*, more principals than superintendents preferred teacher-delegated responsibility when making decisions about “choosing textbooks” and “selecting audiovisual equipment and/or computer equipment.”

At the *building level*, superintendents favored mandates when empowering teachers regarding “determining class size,” whereas principals preferred principal directive when empowering teachers to make decisions on “selecting new faculty.”

At the *district level*, superintendents and principals preferred administrative/faculty participation regarding “designing public relations programs;” however, principals favored principal directive and superintendents favored mandates as possible means of teacher empowerment.

In discussing these findings, Gibson notes that *although school administrators want to remain involved in all decision-making areas, they seem willing to relinquish some control*. Their willingness to share deci-

sion-making is expressed in their choosing administration/faculty participation as the preferred means of empowering teachers in most situations, although this preference may reflect a desire to reduce their own work loads more than a committed belief in teacher empowerment.

Because administrators may have seen themselves traditionally as being in control, they may not have wanted to relinquish this control entirely, preferring to participate with teachers in decision-making rather than relinquishing control to either teachers or outside agencies.

In response to the *last research question*, Gibson found ninety-six statistically significant differences regarding demographic characteristics, including administrators' position, experience, type of school district, teachers' union affiliation, and size of the school district.

One of the interesting findings was that those *administrators with 5-12 years of experience were more often willing to empower teachers than those with either 0-4 years or 13 or more years*. Gibson suggests that administrators are most concerned with implementing their own ideas in the early years of their tenures, but then are increasingly willing, for a number of years, to listen to the concerns of teachers.

High school administrators were more willing than administrators of unit or elementary districts to discuss issues with teachers at all three levels—classroom, building, and district; because of these discussions they were more willing to empower teachers in many areas on the

classroom level. *Unit district administrators, on the other hand, seemed neither willing to discuss issues with teachers nor willing to empower them, preferring instead to have principals make the decisions.*

An interesting finding regarding union affiliation was that administrators in Illinois Education Association (IEA) districts were more concerned with educational issues, that administrators in Illinois Federation of Teachers (IFT) districts were more concerned with monetary issues, and that *administrators in districts where there was no union affiliation were less willing to empower teachers.*

Gibson concludes that the unwillingness of school administrators to empower teachers needs further investigation in order to identify specific areas of empowerment and to uncover reasons behind administration resistance. Another survey comparing teacher perceptions with administrators' perceptions could lead to a better understanding of the issues involved, as could replication of her study in other states. A study focusing on teacher responsibility and accountability, especially a study that would indicate the degree to which teachers are willing to accept decision-making responsibility and to accept accountability for their decisions, might further encourage school administrators to consider empowering teachers. Finally, school administrators might review her findings to gain a better understanding of teacher empowerment and to take a hard look at an issue that could be a powerful change agent in educational systems. Gibson writes, "...administrators need to ask them-

selves why they are unwilling to give total control to teachers in any decision-making situation, or they need to analyze and re-examine why they believe they must have input in every decision-making situation in their schools" (p. 208).

Summary

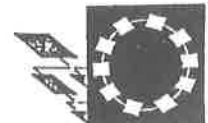
The most significant finding of Gibson's study would seem to be that superintendents and principals seem unwilling to let teachers make decisions entirely on their own; they seem unwilling to relinquish their decision-making involvement in any area. Further studies that would increase our understanding of the reasons behind administrators' reluctance to relinquish control could enhance our understanding of teacher empowerment considerably.

An equally compelling study might evaluate the success of schools where teacher empowerment has been implemented in terms of teacher satisfaction and student achievement. Armed with data supporting the effectiveness of teacher empowerment, researchers might more easily persuade school administrators that surrendering some of their power might ultimately increase their power by improving the educational system—that *by empowering teachers they might also empower themselves.*

Such additional studies might ultimately lead to programs, policies, and reforms that will have a positive impact on the educational process, not only in Illinois but also throughout the country.

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- Gibson, B. A. (1989). Illinois School Administrators' Perceptions of Teacher Empowerment. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb, Illinois.



Book Review:

Miller, J. (1990). *“Creating Spaces and Finding Voices: Teachers Collaborating for Empowerment”*. Albany: State University of New York Press.

Reviewed by Wilma Miranda

This volume is one in the SUNY series, edited by Alan R. Tom, on Teacher Preparation. In it, Professor Janet Miller sets out to tell a story, or more accurately, to provide a multi-narrative account of six teachers in collaborative inquiry for over a period of nearly three years. These teachers engaged in meetings, discussion, reflection and action. Their shared journey was an exploration in defiance of dominant “enactments of conceptualizations of teaching, curriculum, and research . . . that reward excellence in terms of quantified concepts of productivity” (p. 4). Miller weaves together the many stories emerging from each teacher’s self-discovery in the process into a group narrative of their changing interpretations and self-definitions. *Together they questioned the contexts and assumptions of their work as teachers in pursuit of more humane and democratic conditions in schools and society.* Miller took on the somewhat contradictory role of inviter and facilitator.

Since the five invited colleagues were her former graduate students, habitual classroom roles threatened to confound the integrity of the project. Continued self-criticism and self-discipline was demanded of all parties, especially Miller. The position of privileged knower and professional

expert is the form of authority granted to professors by the university. But to retreat to this position in the collaborative group would serve only to reproduce the very conditions they were to investigate. Indeed, the drive to continue meeting came in large part from the research driven need to question the assumed roles of the classroom setting.

They were also spurred by a sharp sense of loss when formal class sessions ended. Even the limited context provided by the university had provided them with the space they needed to confront the assumptions that frame and constrain educational discourse on practice. This led them to new visions constituting “strong challenges and alternatives to the dominant traditions of education . . .” (p.1).

The end of class opened a void. Now what? They were nagged by painful doubts about the power of new insights to help them change their own settings. Soon they would be returning to their formal school roles bereft even of the admittedly constrained support provided by graduate study. Their questions and challenges would be even less welcomed in their own schools. They wanted to go on with their work together—but how? Even if they continued their conversations, would this make any difference in their professional work? And again, if so, how?

All of us in teacher education, whether or not we share Miller’s epistemological or political commitments, have been faced with this conundrum usually called the theory/practice split. Her work to engage in praxis to overcome this split draws, of course, from anti-positivist literature which blames the separation on faulty conceptions of research. *Critical, feminist, and postmodernist educational theory informs the work of Miller and her colleagues. We must, on this account, understand teachers’ reflection and action not only as a form of research but as the most basic research for educational change.* To take on the role of teacher-researcher is to challenge the status quo.

. . . This approach to research attempts to be a democratized process of inquiry characterized by negotiation and reciprocity among the researcher and the researched; it places the shifting interactions, expectations, and subjectivities of both the researcher and the researched at the heart of the inquiry. Such a research orientation necessarily includes a willingness by all involved to risk and to be changed by the research process itself; (p.13).

Theory itself is developed communally and democratically. Meanings are constructed, tested and criti-

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cized by the explorers rather than externally imposed on the situations. Quoting from Elizabeth Ellsworth, Miller states the political content of such research. "What kind of educational project could define 'knowing' so that it no longer describes the activities of those in power?" Teachers as researchers, however, "enclosed in spaces of prevailing schooling structures and functions," challenge those structures when they place themselves at the center of their own research projects. Such projects clearly cannot be bounded by classrooms or other institutional barriers to communication. Through such dialogue personal questions and growth are no longer captured by the framing power of external authorities. On these premises the research group began their explorations.

In the rest of the book Miller artfully replays the processes through which the parameters, procedures, and questions exploring the emancipatory possibilities were generated by the teacher researchers. Central to the effort was uncovering the "connections between our examinations of ourselves and the often controlling forces of the social and cultural contexts in which we worked . . ." No attempt was made to gloss over the dissonances, contradictions, and frustrations inevitable in such open dialogue. The voice of each of the teachers emerges and changes as we get to know them. Their maturing grasp of their situations and the ways they engage the contradictions in their work and in themselves makes for often compelling reading.

Miller has created a text, an artifact if you will, of collaborative research that breathes with the life of action—in Arendt's terms, the life of those who have begun something new. By telling this story she has shown how efforts at self empowerment may begin within and between institutional settings. Rather than providing a roadmap she has shown us how pathmaking begins and proceeds.

What has been the "practical" outcome of all this? As Beth, one of the teachers put it:

I think that this is a process of constantly moving back and forth, in and out. As you always say, Janet, this really provides a dramatic juxtapositioning! . . . So, now we see, here's

Even the limited context provided by the university had provided them with the space they needed to confront the assumptions that frame and constrain educational discourse on practice.

the system, the organizational structure that we work in. As we come here, we can constantly pull back a bit to look at that organizational structure and to see where we can move, ask a question, make a statement. I can see now how much of that structure I wanted to move right into this space at first, because I didn't know anything else. But now I know differently (p.143).

With *Creating Spaces and Finding Voices*, Janet Miller has provided a rich and suggestive story that among other things, offers an example of the teacher educator struggling to find a new voice - not the voice of the expert, nor of the service provider, but that of the co-inquirer. While

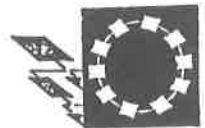
often urging this role on teachers, teacher educators have been less assertive in exploring its implications for their own work. The decidedly Freirian illumination in Beth's achieved self understanding shows how deeply she needed the modesty and disciplined self restraint of Miller, the inviter, to stand against premature closure, final solutions, and imposed authoritative interpretations.

A distinctive merit of this narrative is its demonstration of how, across our various settings, we may become colleagues and how we need each other. We need each other, not for romantic or sentimental, but for epistemological reasons. Knowledge can only be constructed in relation. Extended time with one another is the necessary condition of such relation. It is not surprising that institutions resist granting the time or space for us to be collaborative researchers as teachers. If we are to construct sites of opposition to the undemocratic conditions endemic to educational work today, we will have to claim them for ourselves in imaginative ways.

What Miller shows us here is how engaging in disciplined shared inquiry requires us to construct what Dewey called a community of inquirers. Such a community is explicitly democratic and implicitly oppositional to structures of dominance. The practical outcome of successful collaborative research will not issue into some final achievement, but will permit one to say, as Beth put it so simply, "Now I know differently." All genuine social change rests on such claims.

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