ABSTRACT

THE DEVELOPMENT OF AN ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE
IN A MIDDLE-SIZED CITY
SCHOOL DISTRICT

by Stuart L. Openlander

It is the purpose of this study to determine the need

for a change in the administrative structure of a middle-

sized city school system.

Specifically this study will attempt to find answers

to the following questions.

A. Would a change in the administrative organizational

structure:

1. lead to more effective communication between

superintendent and staff?

2. lead to more effective communication between

the school system and the community?

3. provide the opportunity to better meet the

needs of the students?

4. encourage and permit flexibility in

curriculum planning for individual school

units within the system?

5. develop more realistic and effective supervision of the school program?

6. lead to better implementation of the philosophy, goals, and objectives of the school system?

7. facilitate greater vertical articulation in the educational process?

8. encourage and permit emphasis on community-school concepts?

9. promote educational professional leadership and responsibility on the school unit level?

10. lead to more efficient use of central office personnel?

B. Can professional and lay persons work together on a study of educational significance pertaining to a school system?

Method of Investigation

The data for this study were gathered from the whole population of the administrative staff. Participants were asked to indicate their perceptions of the existing patterns of the administrative structure as they pertained to the following six areas: authority levels; degree of autonomy; responsibilities of administrators; function of specialists;

relationship to students; and degree of responsibility of line officers.

To gain further insight into situations which stimulate or impede services of an administrator, these respondents were asked to assess themselves on a continuum as to such facets of duty as authority, responsibility, communication, and staff rapport.

Respondents in each level of administration were surveyed as to their perception of the authority which accompanied this position.

In addition to the collection of data which could be statistically analyzed reactions from sixteen study groups were gathered.

Significant Findings

There is a need for an administrative structure which will encourage more adequate communication and perhaps through fewer persons.

Though there was evidence that the needs of the pupils could be better met by a more well defined area of responsibility, this does not necessarily imply the need for a change in the organizational structure.

Any change in the administrative organizational structure

would have to be such that both line and staff officers would feel that they had autonomy and flexibility in curriculum planning.

In order to develop a more realistic and effective network, roles have to be spelled out and the relationships between line and staff have to be better understood.

A change in the organizational structure would lead to better implementation of the philosophy, goals, and objectives of the school system.

Administrators overwhelmingly desire a flat type of administrative structure. It was reasonable to assume that if reorganization was to take place, a flatter type of structure would provide the administrators with the autonomy and responsibility they would like and would make the community school more a reality than it is at present.

The preference of administrators for a flatter type of organization would seem to indicate that a change in the administrative organizational structure would promote educational professional leadership and responsibility on the individual school levels.

The best combination for an educational team would be unit control with principal leadership and effective use of consultants.

Stuart L. Openlander

There is little doubt that professional lay people can work together on a study of educational significance.

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IN A MIDDLE-SIZED CITY

SCHOOL DISTRICT

By

Stuart L. Openlander

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The research for this dissertation has been done at
a time in which the functions of school administration are
under severe scrutiny and evaluation and a period in which
the scope of administrative responsibilities are rapidly
increasing.

The author hopes that the design and process involved
in this dissertation may not only be helpful to others but
may encourage new efforts in this field--all of which must
point toward the goal of improving the teaching-learning
process.

Probably the most important person to the author is
the Chairman of his graduate committee--his advisor.
Generous appreciation goes to Dr. Clyde M. Campbell whose
guidance, encouragement and patience have been constant
through the entire time. A measure of gratitude is also
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION TO THE RESEARCH

Statement of the Problem

This is a study of the process of the development of
a new administrative structure in a middle-sized city.
The administrative staff needed to be organized in such a
way as to permit democratic participation in the formation
of policies, an opportunity for the development of creative
ideas and, above all, making the teacher a creative profes-
sional worker free to operate within a framework which
would permit best possible instruction.

It was felt that such changes could be made through
a self-study which would involve a representative group
of citizens, a representative group of teachers, a repre-
sentative group of non-instructional employees, the board
of education, and all administrative and central staff
officers. Four selected consultants from outside of the
school system were used during the complete process.

It was felt that the process of evolving a plan
cooperatively was a sound basis for any changes which might

take place. It was also felt that utilizing staff representatives from all parts of the school system would facilitate communication and interpretation. It was felt that this method would assure teamwork through which the best possible gains would be made.

Educational Administration--A Challenge

The rapid growth of cities in the United States has created the need for the development of new organizational patterns of administration. This need has not only been manifested in school systems, but also in city government, in business, and in industry. School administration as a profession is still in its infancy as Wendell M. Hough noted in his unpublished doctoral dissertation:

> The professional educational administrator was non-existent in the early days of public education. Local boards of education, or comparable groups, assumed the responsibility of "unlocking the school door" in those towns and villages fortunate enough to have a school building. Gradually, however, as communities began to feel a greater need for public education and express a willingness to support the schools through taxation, the school as a public institution assumed a considerably different status. With increasing prestige and growing enrollments, the school no longer could be satisfactorily administered by lay persons whose election to a position responsible for coordinating school activities was no guarantee of professional competence in school administration. The need for full-time professional administrators became obvious; there-

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after the positions of superintendent of schools,
principal, and assistant superintendent and
assistant principal became common referents of
the citizenry.[1]

The evolution of the supertendency has brought about new

patterns of relationships between the public and the con-

trolling board as well as between the controlling board

and the employees.

Because of the continued growth of cities due to

both the population explosion and the movement from rural

to urban living, school systems are becoming larger and

more complex. Mort[2] reported that in 1880 there were only

nineteen cities with a population of more than 100,000

people. By 1900, this number had increased to thirty-eight

cities, and by 1940 the number of cities with a population

of more than 100,000 people had increased to ninety-two.

It is now estimated that there are over 140 cities and

counties in the United States having populations of over

100,000 people, and it is predicted that this number will

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[1]Wendell M. Hough, Jr., A Documentary Study of
Research on the Criteria of Educational Administrative
Success (Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Wayne State
University, 1960), p. 1.

[2]Paul R. Mort, Principles of School Administration,
(New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1946).

double within the next generation and a half.[3] This develop-

ment will be accompanied by the continued growth of larger

school systems. Any growth in pupil enrollment can be

expected to result in the enlargement of the administra-

tive staff. A study of the current practices in adminis-

trative staffing in New York State reveals that on the

average there is one administrative staff member for each

two hundred pupils. Thus, any growth in pupil enrollment

can be expected to result in the enlargement of the adminis-

trative staff.[4]

While it is recognized that the optimum size of the

administrative staff in a local school district is deter-

mined by the size of the district and the wealth of the

community, this concept must also relate to the objectives

of the school system. In order to carry out these objectives

it is necessary to have a functioning administrative organi-

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[3]John W. Polley, Strengthening Structural and Opera-
tional Patterns, (New York City: Teachers College, Columbia
University, 1958), p. 28. (Mimeographed)

[4]New York State Department of Education, "Cooperative
Development of Public School Administration," Current
Practices in Administrative Staffing in New York State
(Albany, New York: State Department of Education, 1955).

zation of adequate size. Adequate administrative staffing allows for more effective operation of a growing school system.

There is general agreement on the need for basic purposes in educational administration--purposes which must include the solving of both old and new problems. The following statement clearly points out these purposes:

> Educational administration can have but one basic purpose. That purpose is to facilitate teaching and learning. This easy generalization becomes more complex upon examination. Educational administration occurs in the school community and consists of facilitating the development of goals and policies basic to teaching and learning, stimulating the development of appropriate programs for teaching and learning, and procuring and managing personnel and material to implement teaching and learning.[5]

In meeting these and other purposes it becomes necessary to work through an administrative structure--a formal organization. This organizational pattern consists of a set of relationships which will best permit the purposes to be fulfilled. The administrative structure is designed to spell out responsibilities and privileges, relationships and functions of all participants. The importance of an organizational structure cannot be minimized. It is needed

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[5]Roald F. Campbell, John E. Corbally, Jr., and John A. Ramseyer, Introduction to Educational Administration (Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc., 1960) p. 67.

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when many people work together in the common task toward

the achievement of educational objectives. Even when our

society was less complex and our population was sparse,

there was a recognized need for a definite plan of organiza-

tion as Morphet, Johns, and Reller have pointed out:

> In any society the establishment of an educa-
> tional program calls for a plan and an organization
> for carrying out the program. In primitive groups
> the organization was usually relatively simple; but
> as society became more complex and schools were
> developed, the need for appropriate organization
> to carry out the accepted purposes became apparent.
>
> Just as the purposes of education evolved from
> the customs, beliefs, and value systems of the leaders
> or of the people, so the structure grew out of, and
> was directly related to, the social, religious, and
> governmental organization accepted by, or imposed
> on, the people.[6]

The development of a workable democratic pattern of

educational administration becomes a challenge at a time

when school systems are growing and when two ideologies--

authoritarian and democratic--are in a final race for a

test by mankind. Small school systems can be controlled

and directed by one individual. Large school systems

require the services of specialists in curriculum, facilities,

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[6]Edgar Morphet, Roe L. Johns, and Theodore L. Reller, Educational Administration Concepts, Practices, and Issues (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1959).

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finance, school law, and many other related areas. It is

virtually impossible for an administrator to possess all

segments of knowledge relating to the total school function

and by necessity must develop a system where these may be

handled by colleagues—coordinated into a solid pattern of

democratic administration. His skill in allowing his

associates to reach their potential will, in a measure,

determine the level of performance of the administrative

family. The contrast to this pattern of operation (authori-

tarian) would be the administrator who fails to recognize

his inability to understand the many facets of his adminis-

trative job and tends to give orders. Though democratic

principles seem to be much more difficult to use, how great

is the challenge to seek ways of applying their use in the

administration of a system of public education.

Background of the Study

In August, 1956, the Board of Education in Dearborn,

Michigan, charged the superintendent of schools with the

responsibility of appraising the present administrative

structure. The Board of Education recognized that, with

the tremendous growth in school enrollment, buildings, and

staff, this job of appraisal should be somewhat continuous.

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The rapid growth of the Dearborn community made it difficult to maintain an effective administrative organization. New school sites had to be located, new schools built, equipped, and staffed. Determinations included questions related to the administrative pattern. Should elementary schools be built as K-3, K-6, or K-9 as already operating in the older part of Dearborn? Students were arriving from new homes much more rapidly than schoolrooms could be completed. All of these problems focused on the need for a larger administrative staff almost overnight.

The school district, after the formation of the present city district of Dearborn, operated under a dual administrative system in which both the superintendent of schools and the business administrator reported directly to the board of education. Special areas of the curriculum such as music, vocational education, and gardening were headed by directors who operated with little regard to the other central office administrators.

In the early 1950's the pattern of organization was changed to that of unit control in which the superintendent of schools was in charge of the complete program assisted by a deputy superintendent in charge of instruction and a deputy superintendent in charge of business and finance.

These two positions were considered equal in rank and status and the persons holding these positions reported directly to the superintendent. Working in the central office with these line officers were many staff persons who were specialists in their respective fields.

Changes of superintendents with different philosophies of administration created an organizational pattern which was highly centralized, one in which the lines of communication were somewhat mixed. Within a period of ten years there were four superintendents of schools. Each had his own concept of educational administration. Each had added some staff members in the central office. Little wonder that the central office staff had become highly centralized, and one in which the lines of communication were somewhat mixed. This was inevitable as the administrative patchwork continued.

Because of this ineffectiveness staff members came to recognize the need for a study of administrative procedures. Following board direction, a committee of staff members, after reviewing problems confronting the Dearborn Public Schools, suggested that a self-study be made of the administrative structure and recommended the involvement of con-

sultants from the three major state universities in Michigan

and the Michigan Department of Public Instruction.

Purposes of the Study

The purpose of this study is to determine the need

for a change in the administrative structure of a middle-

sized city school system. Specifically, this study will

attempt to find answers to the following questions:

1. Would a change in the administrative organizational structure lead to more effective communication between superintendent and staff?

2. Would a change in the administrative organizational structure lead to more effective communication between the school system and the community?

3. Would a change in the administrative organizational structure provide the opportunity to better meet the needs of the students?

4. Would a change in the administrative organizational structure encourage and permit flexibility in curriculum planning for individual school units within the system?

5. Would a change in the administrative organizational structure develop more realistic and effective supervision of the school program?

6. Would a change in the administrative organizational structure lead to better implementation of the philosophy, goals, and objectives of the school system?

7. Would a change in the administrative organizational structure facilitate greater vertical articulation in the educational process?

8. Would a change in the administrative organiza-
tional structure encourage and permit emphasis
on community-school concepts?

9. Would a change in the administrative organiza-
tional structure promote educational professional
leadership and responsibility on the school unit
level?

10. Would a change in the administrative organiza-
tional structure lead to more efficient use of
central office personnel?

11. Can professional and lay persons work together
on a study of educational significance pertain-
ing to a school system?

Significance of the Study

Over the years the need for efficiency has been

emphasized through increased technology to the detriment

of democratic human interaction. In recent years it has

been recognized that efficiency cannot be maintained without

effective human interaction. There is a need for efficiency

in the educational structure as there is a need for effi-

ciency in corporate enterprise. But efficiency must not

be pushed aside by ignoring the element of cooperation.

Steps must be taken to set up an administrative pattern

that will encourage understanding and effectiveness in the

organization by making participation and democratic decision-

making an integral part of the structure.

The main function of educational administration is that of facilitating instruction. Thus, any change in the administrative structure will have a direct effect on all who work in the system. Not only would it affect school employees, but also the youngsters attending the schools. In fact, it is in order to provide a better education that changes in our schools are proposed. This study utilizes procedures which could lead to effective change.

Importance of the Self-Study

The democratic process, under which our country operates, implies that when changes are to be made, those who will be affected by the changes should be involved in the process and the decision. A process which could enlist the best thinking of the lay and professional people is bound to result in decisions and patterns to which these people have, or develop, a high degree of commitment. This matter of involvement makes the implementation of a new plan much easier and more effective.

Importance of Community Participation

The schools should both reflect and strive to improve the values of the community and theories of education. These theories and values should be reflected in the instructional

program and the objectives of this program. Implicit in this statement is the feeling that there must be close cooperation between the school and the community. This close cooperation becomes more imperative when one considers that the schools are mostly dependent on the community for financial support. Thus, when a major organizational change is contemplated, community involvement in the democratic tradition is the best way to maintain community support. An added advantage of community involvement is the development of closer working relationships between the school and the taxpayers.

Importance of Resources

The need to explore the literature is essential to any study. The literature can provide a wealth of background information which is related to the study. For example, a search of the literature provides some of the best thinking in educational administration today. In addition, the literature provides a wide and multi point of view.

Operational Definitions

Many of the terms used in this dissertation are commonly used in education and are generally understood. However, for purposes of clarification, the following terms are defined as they pertain to this study:

Administrative Structure or Organization--The scheme
   or plan used in the assignment of duties and
   responsibilities and the determination of staff
   relationships so that all the phases of operating
   a school system may be efficiently managed.[7]

Pyramidal Administrative Structure--A highly central-
   ized administrative structure in which all line
   administrators report to the chief school adminis-
   trator through a clearly established chain of
   command.

Flat Administrative Structure--A decentralized admin-
   istrative structure which narrows the span of
   control of the superintendent and gives the inter-
   mediate administrator more defined responsibilities.

Centralized Administration--A system in which authority
   for direction, control, and management rests pri-
   marily, if not exclusively, with the superintendent
   of schools.

Decentralized Administration--A system in which
   significant authority for direction, control, and
   management is delegated to subordinates.

Line Administrator--A person who is in the chain of
   command in a school system.

Staff Administrator--A person not in the chain of
   command in a school system whose major function
   is primarily one of service.

Consultant--An expert not permanently employed by the
   local school district.

The Staff--As used representative of all professional
   employees.

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[7]Carter V. Good, Editor, Dictionary of Education (New
York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1945) p. 12.

To increase the depth of any study outside personnel, who are experts in their field, can be effectively used. These outside consultants bring with them a degree of objectivity that is probably not found in the local district. New ideas and a variety of experiences can also be provided by outside sources.

Thus, the major significance of this study is not only the outcome of the study, but the process by which the study is accomplished. To change an administrative structure in a school district is not a difficult task and can be done through the single efforts of a board of education. However, to design a study that will provide the opportunity to use all available resources, professional staff, lay citizens, and outside consultants is a true expression of the American democratic process.

Limitations of the Study

There are certain limitations of this study. First, while the general principles underlying this study might be universally applicable, the specific findings will pertain only to the Dearborn Public Schools.

Another limitation is that of representativeness of the participants in this study. It is difficult to say to

what extent the participants represent the professional
staff and the community. Strictly speaking, to be a repre-
sentative sample, the participants should have been sta-
tistically selected at random.

A further limitation is that the participants represent-
ing the community are probably those individuals who are
interested in school affairs. These people were nominated
by the officers of the many civic clubs in Dearborn. When
names from all these civic groups were submitted, a selection
was made of those people whose names appeared most frequently
on these lists.

Respondent error is another limitation. Whenever
opinionaires are used, there is a danger that the respond-
ents may give answers that reflect professional concepts
and accepted practices in education rather than their own
opinions. However, this is common to any study of this
type. Since there is no way of checking the veracity of
the responses elicited, the responses given were accepted
as true.

An additional limitation is in the structure of the
opinionaire. While every effort was made to build an instru-
ment that would encompass the many dimensions necessary for
a study such as this, there were practical limitations as to

size and scope of the opinionaire. Thus, the extent of
this study is limited to the available data.

Analysis of the Data

The data used in this study were collected from the
entire administrative staff through the use of an opinion-
aire. Since the data were collected from the whole popula-
tion of the administrative staff, the analysis of these data
will be handled by the use of descriptive statistics. This
method was chosen because the use of statistical inference
is not necessary when an entire population is utilized in
the study.

Organization of the Dissertation

This dissertation is organized in the following manner:
Following this introductory chapter, Chapter II will present
a review of the literature. Chapter III will be concerned
with the methodology of this study. Chapter IV will present
an analysis of the data. Chapter V contains the reactions
of study groups. Chapter VI will deal with the summary,
conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purpose of this chapter is to establish the context

of ideas in which this research was undertaken. Part of

this context is the history of research in the author's

field and the reports of other researchers who have proposed

explanations and perhaps tested their theories.

Published material on educational administration is

voluminous. The author will not attempt to provide a com-

prehensive review of all related literature. Rather, a

number of studies which seem to be central to the disserta-

tion will be discussed.

Many studies in educational administration can be

characterized largely as status studies.[1] That is, much of

the research is an attempt to find out whether certain con-

ditions exist, to determine the average size of the adminis-

trative staff, or the relationship between finances and

providing for instructional purposes. While it is necessary

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[1]Russell P. Gregg, "Administration," Encyclopedia of
Educational Research, Ed. Chester W. Harris (New York:
McMillan Company, 1960), p. 20.

to have status studies, it is equally important to have empirical studies which test various theories of educational administration. It is only recently that studies of this nature have been undertaken.

Cooper's statement is an indication of the extent of concentration and research in the area of administrative organization and management:

> Studies of hierarchical organization have dealt intensively with the top of the administrative hierarchy in such investigations as Count's examination of school board opposition, Smittle's Research on Boards of Control for Higher Educational Institutions, and Smith's Study of Unit vs. Multi-Administrative Organization. Numerous studies have been reported on the city superintendent of schools, especially in relation to the board of education, and on the principalship. Studies of middle-management in school systems have been numerous only in recent years; reports on business and government organizations in this area remaining more pertinent than reports on education.[2]

The importance of empirical studies in school administration has been recognized; and, in recent years we have seen the rapid growth of such studies. In fact, several regional organizations such as Midwest Administration (Chicago) and Cooperative Program in Educational Administration have been established to meet this need.

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[2] Dan H. Cooper, "School Administration," Review of Educational Research, XXVI (June 1956), pp. 214-215.

Importance of Administrative Organization

Even in primitive society organizational structure has

been an important factor as the survival of that society.

As societies became more complex, it was imperative that the

organizational structure be flexibly patterned to adapt to

the human and environmental needs and limitations. Thus,

history has demonstrated that one essential characteristic

of good organization is the ability to change the structure

to fit new demands.

Before reviewing the literature, it might be well to

begin with the definition of the term "organization." Sears'

definition is brief but comprehensive:

> An organization is a collection of persons,
> materials, procedures, ideas, and facts so arranged
> so as to make a meaningful unit, and at the same
> time designed to function so that the combined effort
> of all the components may be directed to the accom-
> plishment of a specific objective.[3]

This means that administrative organization is a means

to an end, rather than an end unto itself. It further implies

that the objectives are known, and this administrative organi-

zation facilitates the attainment of those objectives.

Another implication of administrative organization is

efficiency. The existence of an administrative structure

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[3]Jesse B. Sears, Nature of the Administrative Process,
(New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1950), p. 33.

should make the attainment of the objectives more efficient than would be possible without such a structure.

Some of the concerns of administrative organization are planning, evaluation, and reorganization. Dale[4] discusses organization planning as the process of defining activities, grouping activities, assigning activities logically, and effectively executing the activities. More specifically, the assignment of functions, the assignment of responsibilities, the delegation of authority, and the allotment of personnel within an organization are referred to as components to the structure of an organization. Moehlman[5] ascribes four functional activities to administration. One of these functional activities is planning. He says:

> Lack of emphasis on planning may omit or underemphasize fundamental needs, produce slovenly execution, and make appraisal difficult.[6]

Continuous organizational evaluation and reorganization is a necessary part of administration. Several authorities

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[4]Ernest Dale, _Planning and Developing the Company Organization Structure_, (New York: American Management Assn., 1952), p. 14.

[5]Arthur B. Moehlman, _School Administration_, (New York: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1959).

[6]Moehlman, _op. cit._, p. 73.

recognize that continuous organizational evaluation and

reorganization is an intricate part of the administrative

function. Dale sees it as a process of growth:

> Organization must be studied as a process of
> growth. Since companies' size and their problems
> are continuously changing, we must learn how to
> adapt the organization to these changes. This may
> be done by analyzing the organization problems that
> arise at various stages of company growth--problems
> having to do with formulation of basic objectives,
> the delegation of responsibility, the span of control,
> the role of the staff assistant and specialist, com-
> mittee work and coordination, decentralization and
> reorganization.[7]

To underscore the importance of evaluation, Holden,

Fish, and Smith, drawing from industry, recommend complete

organizational evaluation for the purpose of attaining

greater effectiveness. They say:

> Every phase of a company's organization plan
> should be questioned and tested from a wholly
> objective viewpoint, without being influenced by
> present pattern or personnel, precedent or tradi-
> tion. From such an analysis a plan of organization
> can be developed which will best meet the current
> and future requirements of the business.[8]

One implication of evaluation is the possibility of

reorganization. In essence what Dale, and others are

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[7]Dale, op. cit., p. 165.

[8]Paul E. Holden, Lounsbury S. Fish, and Hubert L. Smith,
Top Management Organization and Control, (Palo Alto, Calif-
ornia: Stanford University Press, 1941), p. 5.

indicating is that evaluation must be a continuous process

in the administrative function. This process can reveal

the need for a change in the organizational structure.

However, in order to insure successful organizational changes

certain factors should be given consideration. Dale lists

these factors as

A. Active participation of all concerned at all
   stages of change.
B. Utilization of talent competent in the various
   engineering and human relations aspects of
   organization planning.
C. Thorough analysis of the functions and relation-
   ships of significant jobs.
D. Study of the existing organization structure.
E. Construction of the ideal organization on the
   basis of specific organization criteria.
F. Modification of the ideal structure in the light
   of personality influences, existing structural
   needs and individual economic circumstances.
G. Setting up the basic functions and matching of
   incumbents against job requirements.
H. Winning acceptance of the plan.
I. Constant review and modification to make the
   organization structure more closely conformed
   to the ideal plan.[9]

In education the problem of organizational administration

has been a tremendous one. Rapid growth of communities and

consequently school districts have in many cases caused edu-

cators to work with an administrative organization that was

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[9]Dale, op. cit., p. 168.

not fully efficient. Lepawsky[10] maintains that it is

essential for administrators to experiment with tools of

modern organization if the ultimate in efficiency is to

be achieved. John Guy Fowlkes stated:

> While the tasks assumed by public education
> have multiplied in number and magnified in social
> significance in our time, the provisions for their
> achievement have not been enlarged or improved in
> like degree. It may be observed that the school
> organization itself has not been modified basically
> toward more efficient and effective accomplishment
> of its reason for its existence. Instead, school
> organization has been altered by the addition of
> patch upon patch on a structure designed more for
> a program of limited education in a few academic
> areas than for a program of broad fields of activity
> in a modern school.[11]

Recognizing the marked similarity between educational

administration and other forms of administration, some

educators have begun to look at other disciplines for

ideas which might be applied to education. Fowlkes, in

his introduction to Administration in Profile for School

Executives, said:

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[10]Albert Lepawski, Administration, (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1949), p. 321.

[11]John Guy Fowlkes, Introduction to Harlan L. Hagman and Alfred Schwartz, Administration in Profile for School Executives, (New York: Harper & Bros., 1955), pp. 1-2.

The administrator of public schools may learn
from his counterparts and activities far removed in
nature from public education. There is a kinship
between the tasks of education and the tasks of
related fields, though the problems of the former
may seem often to be peculiar to it and answerable
only in the language of the professional educator.[12]

Fowlkes reveals the need to examine administrative con-

cepts, policies, and practices in areas other than education.

He implies that administrative practices in education can

be improved by examining administrative practices in other

situations.

A book by Likert[13] reveals that some management prac-

tices (administration) in industry and business are under-

going radical changes. These changes are constantly being

evaluated for their effects on the industry or business.

Some of these changes that are new to industry have existed,

at least in principle, in education for some time. This

is not to imply that people in education have nothing to

learn from industry. Rather, it implies that people in

education should not accept a practice simply because it

exists in industry.

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[12] Ibid.

[13] Rensis Likert, New Patterns of Management, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1961).

Elements in Administration

The previous portion of this chapter examined the importance and need for an administrative organization. This portion will examine the components of administration. The elements discussed below can be found, in some form, in every administrative structure.

Unit Type of Control

The relationship of the administrative organization to the board of education is extremely important. Thus, one of the first considerations in an administrative structure is to determine whether a unit type, or a multiple type of control is to be adopted. The unit type of organization places the authority and responsibility for the operation of the school system in the hands of the superintendent of schools. The multiple type places responsibility for the operation of certain aspects of the school system in the hands of departmental heads who report directly to the board of education. (On this subject, Sears[14] considers that principle by which authority exists and operates within an

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[14] Sears, op. cit., p. 120.

organization as a major segment of the force that unifies

the system.) Simon[15] maintains that the strength of the

school system lies in its unity and the speed and consistency

with which it operates. On the question of the effectiveness

of unit control or multiple control, Hunt and Pierce state:

> On the whole, the unit type is regarded as
> more effective and coordinating control, eliminating
> frictions, and preventing waste. The trend is, there-
> fore, definitely toward change from multiple to unit
> control as a means of improving administration.[16]

This type of unity of control, or command, according to

Chruden and Sherman requires that each subordinate be respon-

sible directly to only one superior and each superior has

undivided authority over the persons reporting to him.[17]

Communication

Communication is essential to the functioning of any

organization, and it is widely held as the most important

single process in management. Yet communication, as it

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[15]Herbert A. Simon, Administrative Behavior, (New York:
The MacMillan Company, 1947).

[16]Herold C. Hunt and Paul R. Pierce, The Practice of
School Administration, (Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Company,
1958), p. 334.

[17]Herbert A. Chruden and Arthur W. Sherman, Jr., Per-
sonnel Management, (Cincinnati: Southwestern Publishing
Company, 1959), p. 46.

exists in many organizations, places primary emphasis on
control, chain of command, and the downward flow of orders.
There is no corresponding emphasis placed on more adequate
and accurate communication flowing upward. Likert[18] reports
on a survey by the New York State Department of Labor which
was interested in finding out about the communication process.
This study found that the companies surveyed were interested
in getting management's viewpoints across to the workers,
but all companies were less interested in discovering the
worker's viewpoints. Likert states:

> Upward communication, therefore, is at least
> as inadequate as downward communication and probably
> is less accurate because of the selective filtering
> of information which subordinates feed to their
> superiors. In view of the influence of upward com-
> munication on management's awareness of problems
> existing in the organization and on the information
> or misinformation used in making decisions, the
> inadequacy in upward communication is probably more
> serious than the deficiencies in downward communica-
> tion.[19]

Span of Control

Span of control refers to the number of people who can
be effectively supervised by one person. This concept

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[18] Likert, op. cit.

[19] Ibid., p. 47.

recognizes that there is a limit to the number of subordi-

nates. There is no general agreement as to what this

number is or should be. There appears to be consensus

that the number is dependent on the role of the supervisor

and his place in the organizational structure. Chruden and

Sherman say:

> Three or four vice-presidents, for example,
> might constitute a maximum span of control for a
> chief executive, whereas twenty or thirty laborers
> on a road gang might be managed effectively by one
> foreman.[20]

Generally the more specific the task the greater the span

of control.

Campbell, Corbally, and Ramseyer[21] maintain that a

superintendent should not delegate authority to more than

three to six subordinates. The rationale to this restriction

is to allow the superintendent to be effective in his rela-

tionships with his subordinates. In other words, a complicated

chain of command may over-tax the top executive's mental and

physical capacities in such a manner as to reduce his effi-

ciency. Thus, the disadvantages of an increased span of

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[20]Herbert J. Chruden and Arthur W. Sherman, Jr., Per-
sonnel Management, (Cincinnati: Southwestern Publishing
Company, 1959), p. 46.

[21]Campbell, et al., op. cit., p. 122.

control must be viewed in terms of the disadvantages of

increased delegation of responsibility. Dale[22] notes this

and feels that it might be possible to strike a satisfactory

balance between these two. No clear-cut answer can be given

to the question of span of control and it is obvious that

this question must be answered by the situation existing in

each school district.

Size
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One of the factors that must be considered when dis-

cussing the administrative unit is size. Terrien and Mills,[23]

in a study of 264 school districts of various sizes in

California, found that the larger the school district, the

greater the number of administrators. This finding held

for elementary, high school, unified, and city school dis-

tricts.

Although it is not a new concept that the administrative

unit increases as the school district increases, it is implied

that an optimum size for an administrative unit exists. Per-

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[22]
Dale, op. cit., p. 166.
[23]
Frederick W. Terrien and Donald L. Mills, "The Effect
of Changing Size Upon the Internal Structure of Organizations,"
American Sociological Review, (February, 1955).

haps it is at this point that span of control becomes important.

That size is an important factor cannot be denied. Talacchi[24] conducted a research project relating to this factor. He attempted to investigate the impact of organizational size on employee attitudes, behaviors, and levels of satisfaction. He assumed that organizational size affects employee modes of interaction. He assumed, in turn, that these modes of interaction affect attitudes and, consequently, behavior at work. Furthermore, he theorized that the larger the organization, the greater the division of labor. The greater the division of labor, the greater the competition and conflict of interests. Thus, he theorized that there would be a reduction in informal interaction and communication which would increase the potential for personal and group conflict and, thus, lead to a lower level of satisfaction.

The hypotheses for this study were: The general level of employee satisfaction is inversely related to the size

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[24] Sergio Talacchi, "Organization Size, Individual Attitudes, and Behavior: An Empirical Study," Administrative Science Quarterly, (December, 1960), p. 398-420.

of the organization; as the size of the organization increases, the level of satisfaction in areas of inter-personal relation between employee and management, employee and supervisor, and employee and employee decreases; and, as the size of the organization increases, the level of satisfaction in the area of non-material rewards on the job decreases.

The procedure used to test these hypotheses was an instrument which would provide a general index of employee satisfactions. This instrument was then used in ninety-three selected industrial organizations of various sizes from all regions of the United States.

The findings by Talacchi as previously cited indicated that a significant negative relationship existed between the size of the organizations and the level of satisfaction. The larger the organization the lower the level of employee satisfaction. As the size of the organization increased, the level of satisfaction in each area of inter-personal relations decreased. As the size of the organization increased, satisfaction in non-material rewards on the job decreased. Thus, the size of the organization had a definite impact on the level of employee satisfaction.

Supervision

An important factor in administration is that of supervision. The research evidence[25] suggests that supervision is a relative process. In order to be effective, a leader must adapt his behavior to those with whom he is working. There can be no "cookbook" methods of supervision. Rather, general principles of supervision must be applied as they fit the situation.

Implications from research which indicate that supervision is a relative process have relevance for the problem of decentralization. The argument that a line and staff organization, because of its inherent delegation of responsibility, as an effective mode of operation leaves much to be desired when supervision is recognized as a relative process. The strength of this form of organization rests with the individual supervisor. Thus, the strength of a line and staff organized unit is solely dependent upon the abilities of each supervisor to adjust his behavior to a specified group. The most difficult factor to explain, and

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[25] Rensis Likert, "Effective Supervision: An Adaptive and Relative Process," Personnel Psychology, (Autumn, 1958).

what often confuses the situation, is that supervisors who
threaten and bring pressure on their subordinates can achieve
impressive short-run results, particularly when this super-
vision is coupled with high technical competence. There is
some evidence, as pointed out in the following reference,
however, that supervision which decreases direct pressure
can achieve significant increases in production.

Likert[26] describes an experiment in which the effects
of increased supervisory pressures were studied. This study
covered five hundred clerical employees in four parallel
divisions. Each division was organized in the same way,
used the same technology, did exactly the same kind of work,
and had employees of comparable aptitudes.

The experiment with these clerical divisions lasted for
one year. Before the experiment started, several months
were devoted to planning. There was also a training period
of supervisory and managerial staffs lasting approximately
six months. Productivity was measured continuously and
computed weekly throughout the year. Employee and super-
visory attitudes, perceptions, motivations, and related
variables were measured just before and just after the

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[26]Likert, op. cit., p. 62.

experimental year. Observations of supervisory behavior
and employee responses were also made throughout the experiment.

In two of the four divisions, an attempt was made to
change the supervision so that opportunities for decision-
making were allowed to the lower levels of the hierarchy.
At each hierarchical level supervisors had freedom of
action within stated policy. In addition, the managers,
assistant managers, supervisors, and assistant supervisors
of these two divisions were given training in leadership
and membership skills, group processes, and also partici-
pation in experiences designed to increase their sensitivity
to the reaction of others. During the experimental year,
the managers and supervisors endeavored to involve sub-
ordinates in decisions related to the work and to achieve
a relatively high level of participation in all activities
and decisions except those having to do with compensation
and matters related to it. Experimental changes in these
two divisions were labeled "the participative program."

In the other two divisions, by contrast, an increase
in the closeness of supervision was made. For example, one
of the major changes was to have the jobs timed by the
methods department and to have the standard times computed.

This showed that these divisions were overstaffed, except for peak loads, by about 30 per cent. The general manager then ordered the managers of these two divisions to cut staff by 25 per cent. As a check on how effectively the experimental changes were carried out in the two programs, measurements were obtained for each division as to where decisions were made.

In this experiment, the levels at which decisions were made were manipulated. With the control groups all decisions were made at the highest supervisory level. In the experimental group, decisions were made by cooperative effort of all supervisory levels. Also, in the experimental groups there was an increase in the extent to which the employees were involved in decisions affecting them.

The results of this experiment revealed that although productivity was high in both the experimental and control groups, the attitudes, loyalties, and motivations were greatly improved in the experimental groups and had deteriorated in the control groups. Implied in the findings was an assumption that if the experiment were to be continued, the production of the control group would decrease.

Line and Staff Concept

Many school districts have an organizational structure which sometimes appears to be authoritarian. This is due to the fact that school organization tends to emulate the military structure. Under this type of structure, the line of authority is very clear. It extends from the board of education to the superintendent, to the assistant superintendent, to the principals, to each teacher, and therefore, to each pupil. If there are any supervisors, they are likely to be known as staff. This is because they can advise, and do not have any authority to enforce. This type of organization is known as a pyramidal administrative structure.

Some theorists in educational administration have pointed out some of the weaknesses of the line and staff organization. These theorists note that some other organizational structure can accomplish the school objectives more effectively. Among the critics of the line and staff organization are Barr, Burton, and Brueckner who note these weaknesses of line and staff organization:

> We have already noted: first, that administrative and supervisory functions cannot actually be separated; second, we believe as the result

of evidence that the imposition of authority
will not accomplish as much or as well as
the exercise of leadership; third, truly demo-
cratic cooperation is likely to be more efficient
in the long run than contact through strictly
defined channels; and fourth, machinery and
rules made on the spot, by those intimately
concerned and who will have to operate within
the given situations, are superior to rules and
machinery made by a central staff further removed
from the learning situation which the machinery
is to serve.[27]

Moehlman[28] implies that the change from an authoritarian

administrative structure to one that is more democratic is

coming. He indicates that the superintendent determines if

the office will be democratic or autocratic.

Thus, some educational theorists feel the line and staff

structure to be autocratic. This line of thought is mislead-

ing because it attributes the weakness to organizational

structure rather than to the personalities involved.

The direction of change is as important as the rate of

change. Koopman, Miel, and Misner say:

...aspect of the process is to discover a demo-
cratic form of organization for the school that
will promote the efficient solution of educational

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[27]A. S. Barr, William H. Burton, and Leo J. Brueckner,
Supervision, (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1947),
p. 85.

[28]Moehlman, op. cit., p. 161.

problems. It is essential that the organization
provide for the most effective possible partici-
pation of all persons concerned.[29]

Centralization and Decentralization

One value of the local school district is that it

attempts to provide a satisfactory administrative unit. It

renders the schools quickly responsive to sudden changes of

the citizenry who support them. It identifies the schools

closely with the community. By placing control in the hands

of lay boards, the local district system theoretically insures

immediate and lasting interest in school affairs on the part

of the general public from whose ranks board members are

selected.

No one principle of organization or administration can

be set down as a hard and fast rule. Within our country

there are many patterns and many systems. In several cases

these various patterns are working effectively. Such factors

as money, size, and personnel are important variables in the

administrative structure.

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[29]G. Robert Koopman, Alice Miel, and Paul J. Misner,
Democracy in School Administration, (New York: D. Appleton-
Century Company, Inc., 1943), p. 318.

In order to clarify the situation with which this study

is concerned, it is necessary to describe the centralized

and decentralized mode of operation as it pertains to a

middle-sized school district. This is not to imply that

the following description describes the Dearborn operation.

However, it is probably not atypical in a middle-sized school

district.

The Pyramidal Organization

One pattern of school organization is known as pyramidal.

Likert[30] explains how this organizational structure functions.

The assistant superintendent in charge of curriculum, for

example, may go to the superintendent with a problem and a

recommendation. Because it involves an expenditure of

money, the assistant superintendent for business is called

in. On the basis of the discussion with two assistant super-

intendents and the recommendations they make, the superin-

tendent arrives at a decision. However, in any organization

larger than a few hundred employees, that decision will

usually effect subordinates whose interests were not repre-

sented. Under the circumstances, they are not likely to

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[30] Likert, op. cit., p. 97-118.

accept this decision wholeheartedly nor strive hard to implement it. What happened to the communication process? The superintendent, it will be recalled, holds meetings for the primary purpose of sharing information. If the assistant superintendent for curriculum has some important facts bearing on the action which he wants the superintendent to approve, he does not reveal them at these meetings. He waits until he is alone with the superintendent and can use the information to obtain the decision he seeks. Each assistant superintendent is careful to share in these communication meetings only trivial information. The motivational pressures are against sharing anything of importance. The man to man pattern of operation enables an assistant superintendent, or a principal, to benefit by keeping as much information as possible to himself. Not only can he obtain decisions from his superior beneficial to himself, but he can use his knowledge secretly to connive with peers or subordinates, or to pit one peer or subordinate against the other. In these ways he is often able to increase his own power and influence. He does this, however, at the expense of the total organization. The distress and fear created by his behavior adversely affect the amount of influence which the organization can exert in coordinating the activities of its members. Measures of the amount of

influence an organization can exert on its members show that
distrust of superiors, colleagues, and subordinates adversely
affect the amount of influence that can be exercised.

Another serious weakness in the communication process
in the man to man method of operation is that communications
upward are highly filtered and correspondingly inaccurate.
Orders and instructions float down through the organization,
at times, with some distortion. When the superintendent asks
for information on the execution of orders and on difficul-
ties encountered, incomplete and partially inaccurate informa-
tion is often forthcoming. With these items and other kinds
of communication as well, those below the boss study them
carefully and discover what he is interested in, what he
approves and disapproves of, and what he wants to hear and
what he does not want to hear. Then they tend to feed him
the material he wants. It is difficult and often hazardous
for an individual subordinate, in man to man discussion, to
tell the boss something which he needs to know, but which
runs counter to the boss's desires, convictions, or preju-
dices. A subordinate's future in an organization is often
influenced appreciably by how well he senses and communicates
to his boss material which fits the latter's orientation.

Another characteristic of the man to man pattern concerns the point of view from which problems are solved. When a problem is brought to the superintendent, each assistant superintendent usually states and discusses the problem from a departmental orientation, despite efforts by the superintendent to deal with it from a system-wide point of view. This operates to the disadvantage of the entire school system. Problems tend to be solved in terms of what is best for a department, not of what is best for the school district as a whole.

In the man to man situation it is clear that sharply defined lines of responsibility are necessary because of the nature of the promotion process and because the men involved are able people who want promotion. What are the chances of having one's competence so visible that one moves up in a school system or receives offers elsewhere? Two factors are important: The magnitude of one's responsibility and the definition of one's functions so as to assure successful performance. There is often tremendous competition between the subordinates at the top level, and each man is trying to enlarge his area of responsibility, thereby encroaching on the other's territory. He is also trying to get decisions

from the superintendent which set easily attained goals for
him and enable him to achieve excellent performance.

One consequence of this struggle for power is that each
department has to have job responsibilities and boundaries
precisely defined. No one dares let anyone else take over
any part of his activity, even temporarily, for fear that
the line of responsibility will be moved over permanently.

The tighter the hierarchical control in an organization,
in the sense that the decisions are made at the top and
orders flow down, the greater tends to be the hostility
among subordinates. In this situation, subordinates bow
down to superiors and fight among themselves for power and
status. Consequently, the greater the extent which the super-
intendent makes the decisions, the greater is the probability
that the competition, hostility, and conflict will exist
between his assistant superintendents and staff members.

The Decentralized System

A decentralized organization with an effective super-
visory council can solve many problems found in the pyramidal
structure. Here the superintendent holds meetings with his
top staff regularly to solve problems and make decisions.
Any member of his staff can propose problems for considera-

tion, but each problem is viewed from a district-wide point of view. It is virtually impossible for one department to force a decision beneficial to it, but detrimental to other departments if the group as a whole makes the decision.

An effectively functioning work group pressing for solutions in the best interests of all the members and refusing to accept solutions which unduly favor a particular member or segment of the group is an important characteristic of the group pattern of organization. It also provides the superintendent with a powerful managerial tool for dealing with specific requests or favors from subordinates. Often the subordinates may feel that their request is legitimate even though it may not be in the best interest of the organization. In the man to man operation, the superintendent sometimes finds it difficult to turn down such requests. With the group pattern of operation, however, the superintendent can suggest that the subordinate submit his proposal to the group at the next staff meeting. If the request is legitimate and in the best interests of the organization, the group will grant the request. If the request is unreasonable, an effectively functioning group can skillfully turn it down by analyzing it in relation to what is best for the entire

organization. Subordinates in this situation soon find they cannot get special favors or preferred treatment from the superintendent. This leads to a tradition that one does not ask for any treatment or decision which is recognized as unfair to his colleagues.

There are other advantages to this kind of group action. The motivation is high to communicate accurately all relevant and important information. If any one of these men holds back important ˌfacts affecting the school district so that he can take it to the superintendent later, the superintendent is likely to ask him why he withheld the information and request him to report it to the group at the next session. The group also is apt to be hard on any member who withholds important information from them. Moreover, the group can get ideas across to the superintendent that no subordinate dares tell him. As a consequence, there is better communication which brings a better awareness of the problem and better decision-making than with the man-to-man system.

Another important advantage of effective group action is the high degree of motivation on the part of each member to do his best to implement decisions and to achieve group goals. Since the goals of the group are arrived through group decision, each individual member tends to have a high

level of equal identification with goals because of his involvement in the decisions.

The superintendent in a school system must be fully aware of the situational requirements which apply to the operation of his system. In making decisions, he and his organization should never lose sight of them. If the group is so divided in opinion that there is no time to reach decisions by consensus which adequately meets these requirements, the superintendent has the responsibility of making a decision which does meet them. In this event, the superintendent may be wise to accept the solution preferred by the individuals in the organization who will have the major responsibility for implementing the decision, provided, of course, that the superintendent himself feels that the solution is reasonably sound.

Sometimes differences of opinion exist not between members of the organization but between the superintendent and his subordinates. In this event, the superintendent should fully participate in the discussion and present clearly the evidence which makes him hold another point of view. If, after further discussion, the organization still prefers another course of action, the superintendent faces a tough decision. He can overrule his subordinates and take the

action he favors. This is likely to have some effect on group loyalties. However, the superintendent may feel that he has no choice but to do what his own experience indicates is best, but whatever course of action is taken, he is responsible and must accept full responsibility for what occurs.

Comparing the pyramidal with the decentralized administrative structure several differences can be noted. Under the pyramidal structure the authority and responsibility for the operation of the school system are lodged in the superintendent. He delegates to his immediate subordinates some of his responsibility and authority and holds them accountable for specific performance. They, in turn, delegate part of their authority and responsibility to their immediate subordinates and so the delegation proceeds down through the organization. All the authority or influence is seen as coming from the top downward.

Under the decentralized administrative structure, influences upward and sideward are as much a part of the organizational processes as influence downward. Consequently, different levels in the organization should not be thought of in terms of more or less authority, but rather as coordinating or linking larger or smaller staff numbers.

What does this concept of structure in authority imply

for line-staff relationships in schools operating under

present theories of administration? The traditional concept

that the line has authority and the staff is only advisory

is breaking down increasingly as technical instructional

processes and other problems become more complex. In some

schools today, parts of the staff are exercising more influ-

ence than the line because of the great complexity of the

technical instructional processes and of the expertness of

the staff. This often can cause serious friction and con-

flict. The decentralized or unit structure would provide

the mechanism to enable the school district to arrive at

sound decisions by allowing all members to contribute their

specialized knowledge and skills. The contributions of

line and staff would vary with the problems and with the

resources each possess. Under this concept of line-staff

relationships, the line would not have sole responsibility

and authority to make decisions without staff advice. The

line would have authority and responsibility for building

a highly effective system through which the best decisions

would be made with both line and staff contributing.

That there are various forms of administration and that

these forms can function effectively in certain situations

cannot be denied. However, the functioning of the organiza-

tion and the form that it takes is dependent upon many

factors in the school and in the community. In middle-sized

and large city school districts the type of organization

needed varies considerably from the kind of structure found

in a small school district. Mort says:

> Studies of the relation of adaptability...
> to local operating units began early to raise
> questions concerning the adequacy of the organi-
> zation of large city school districts. It is
> now apparent that large city school districts
> are not highly adaptable. They were built upon
> the pattern of the small school district on
> which America has operated schools for three
> hundred years. The evidence is cumulative that
> this pattern, with all its modifications to date,
> is not adequate to cope with the situation.[31]

What Mort is saying is simply that the city school or large

school district demands a different administrative structure

than the small school district. Mort emphasizes this in his

foreward to the Metropolitan School Study Council's Publica-

tion:

> A new period in the history of school adminis-
> tration is ahead. The duties, functions, and op-
> portunities of educational leadership have been

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[31] Paul R. Mort, _Administrative Operational Patterns_,
Metropolitan School Study Council, (New York: Bureau of
Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1950),
p. 5V.

widened by greater technical knowledge and a
much more enlightened view of the power of
education. Schools can no longer be administered
in toto by a single person, regardless of his
ability or devotion. There is merging now a
pattern of operation drawing upon all involved
as contributors to the performance of the adminis-
trative function.[32]

This is in keeping with the idea of democratic adminis-

tration. However good these theories may be, there are

many obstacles to be overcome before they can be instituted

McGregor says:

Before we are overwhelmed by the obstacles,
let us remember that the application of theory
is always slow.[33]

Thus, change in educational administration should not

be expected to occur rapidly. That change is inevitable is

an accepted assumption. It is the rate of change that should

be considered.

This chapter has attempted to provide a brief review

of the literature related to the administrative function.

In addition, theoretical models of centralized and decentral-

ized administrative patterns were presented. Throughout the

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[32] Ibid., p. 5.

[33] Douglas McGregor, The Human Side of Enterprise, (New
York: McGraw Hill Book Company, 1960).

literature it is difficult to ignore the emphasis attached
to evaluation. The role of evaluation, as indicated by so
many educational theorists, can most effectively be used to
assess existing practices and to pave the way for changes.
Where these changes have occurred, they have generally
resulted in more democratic organizational patterns. Thus,
these changes, as a result of the evaluative process, may
be leading toward a more effective system of supervision.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter will be concerned with two integral parts

of the research. The first portion of this chapter will

describe the community setting in which the research took place.

The second portion will deal with the early developments

leading up to the initiation of the project and the

methodology used in the study project.

Research Site

The city of Dearborn is adjacent to the city of Detroit.

It has a population of 112,007[1] and encompasses an area of

25.3 square miles. Located within the city limits are 200

industries, three newspapers, one radio station, three

hospitals, and five public libraries.

Essentially the city of Dearborn is physically divided

into two communities.[2] The section known as "West Dearborn"

is largely residential with few businesses and industrial

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[1] 1960 Federal Census.

[2] See Figure 1, p. 54.

Figure 1

LOCATION OF SCHOOLS

School	Location	School	Location
ADAMS	MORLEY & MONROE	HAIGH	COBURN & SILVERY LANE
ADMIN. BLDG.	REAR OF FORDSON HIGH	HOWARD	YORK & LAWRENCE
BRYANT	CHERRY HILL & TELEGRAPH	HOWE	OAKWOOD NEAR SOUTHFIELD
CLARK	LAWRENCE & SILVERY LANE	LAPHAM	UNION & WESTWOOD
COMMUNITY COLLEGE		LINDBERGH	LOOSE LANE & WAVERLY
LOU AVE. CAMPUS	MICH. & LOIS	LONG	BOSTON & WESTWOOD
EVERGREEN CAMPUS	FORD & EVERGREEN	LOWREY	JONATHON & HAGGERTY
DEARBORN HIGH	OUTER DR. NEAR MICH.	McDONALD	DIVERSEY & FREDA
DUVALL	MILITARY & BEECH	MAPLES	ARTHUR & MEAD
EDISON	ELMDALE & EDISON	MARTIN	EASTHAM & LONGMEADOW
EDSEL FORD	ROTUNDA DR. & PELHAM	MILLER	MICHIGAN & LOIS
HENRY FORD	DRISCOLL AT KORTE	NOWLIN	MADISON & PENN
WILLIAM FORD	FORD & CHASE	OAKMAN	FORD & MECKEL
FORDSON HIGH	FORD & MECKEL		

School	Location	School	Location
OXFORD	COBURN & SILVERY LANE	CORNELL & OXFORD	
SALINA	WYOMING & LOWREY		
SALISBURY	MORLEY & MONROE		
SERVICE BLDG.	HAGGERTY BY MILLER RD.		
SMITH	NOTRE DAME & CORNELL		
SNOW	SNOW & CULVER		
STOUT	OAKWOOD & ROTUNDA		
TEN EYCK	CARLYLE & EDGEWOOD		
WHITMORE-BOLLES	WHITMORE & ALICE		
WOODWORTH	TERNES & GILDOW		

PUBLIC SCHOOLS
DEARBORN MICHIGAN

SCALE

0   1/4   1/2   3/4   1
MILES

Figure 1. Map — Location of Schools, Dearborn, Michigan Public Schools

NO. 1859   REV. 7-2   K. WALDCHEN

sites. The other community, known as "East Dearborn,"
includes most of the industrial plants found in the city,
the largest being the Ford Motor Company's Rouge plant.
The Ford Motor Company owns a large area of land which
separates the two communities. The city of Dearborn can
best be called a residential-industrial community. Almost
70 per cent of the more than 25 square miles of land encom-
passing the city can be classified as residential; approxi-
mately 25 per cent can be allotted to industrial sites, and
the remaining 5 per cent can be apportioned to small business
enterprises.

The two communities are each represented by a different
socio-economic structure which is even more apparent because
of the physical separation. East Dearborn is the largest
section of the community in terms of population and can best
be described as a lower income community. West Dearborn
which is largely residential houses a high income group.

Mainly, because of the existence of the Ford Motor
Company, Dearborn can be categorized economically as an
employing city. Most of the people who work in Dearborn live
outside of the city. Approximately 50 per cent of the employ-
ees in Dearborn work for manufacturing industries, and less
than 30 per cent are employed in trade and service occupations.

The Dearborn school district, as it appears today, is due to a consolidation that occurred in 1944. At the present time there are two elementary schools K-3, seventeen elementary schools K-6, four elementary schools K-9, one school K-12, one school 6-9, three junior high schools 7-9, and three senior high schools 10-12. These thirty-one school buildings house slightly over 21,000 youngsters. In addition, the school district operates a community college.

The Administrative Organization of the Dearborn Public Schools

In order to have a better understanding of the study, it is necessary to describe in some detail the administrative pattern of the school district. In 1944, the Fordson school district and the Dearborn school district merged to form the present school district. Up to this time each district functioned independently of the other. Prior to the consolidation of the two districts, the Dearborn school district operated nineteen schools. Following the act of consolidation, the district then operated thirty-three schools. Two small elementary schools were closed in 1960, and the students were absorbed in neighboring elementary buildings.

Shortly after the act of consolidation, many of the public

schools were faced with the problem of population increase.

Dearborn was no exception. The "war babies" were growing up

and ready to enter school. It became necessary to add facili-

ties, staff personnel, and administrative personnel in order

to keep pace with the increasing enrollment.

Under conditions of increasing enrollment and consolida-

tion, the administrative organization represented a patch-

work structure. This structure appeared to lack the logic

and philosophy consistent with a functional organization

pattern. Administrative personnel were added when the per-

sonnel charged with administrative responsibilities felt

their duties were becoming too burdensome. Perhaps the major

criticism was that administrative growth was disorganized

and haphazard.

The administrative structure could probably best be

described as pyramidal in appearance and centralized in opera-

tion.[3] The many specialists made it difficult to determine

clear lines of authority and advisory roles. Division of

line authority existed on four levels: elementary, junior

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[3]See Figure 2, page 58.

Figure 2

ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION
DEARBORN PUBLIC SCHOOLS

58
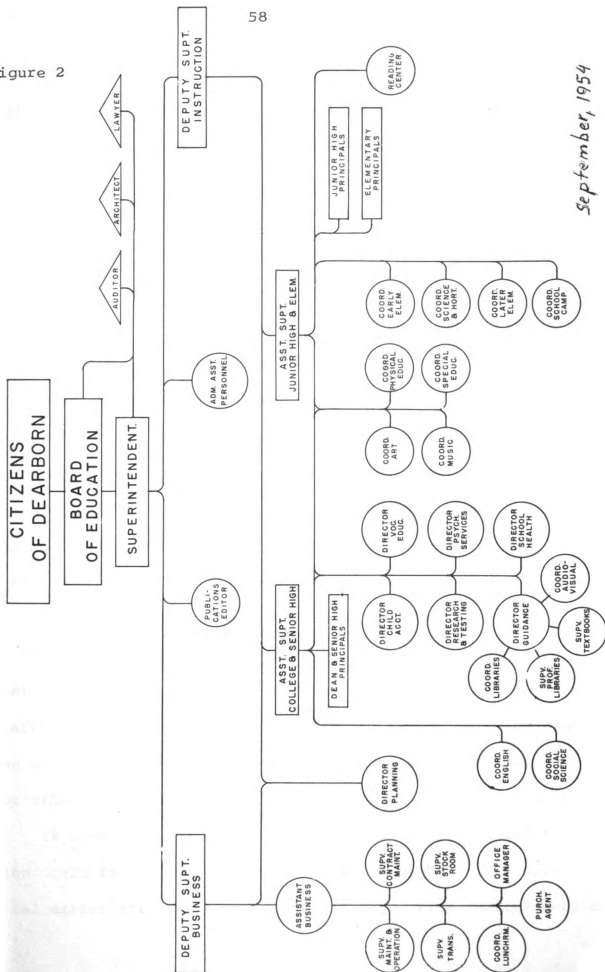
September, 1954

high school, senior high school, and community college. On
the other hand the staff positions had various relationships
and responsibilities with these administrative levels.
Vertical articulation was difficult with such an arrangement,
and occasionally difficulties arose between line and staff
functions.

The structure led to poor communications between build-
ing principals and the central office personnel. It was
not uncommon for the administrative staff to be faced with
frequent delays after decisions were made, nor was it unusual
for staff members to make conflicting statements. Perhaps
the most important factor was the lack of available time for
the administrative staff members to engage in long-range
planning.

The board of education, in viewing the total situation,
as the legislative body of the school district had proposed
that two new persons be added to the central administrative
staff, both responsible to the deputy in charge of curriculum.
One was to be assistant in charge of elementary education,
the other assistant in charge of junior high school education.

It seemed to the author that this pattern of administra-
tion could be improved by a pattern which might insure ver-
tical articulation in curriculum planning. From the curriculum

viewpoint, Dr. Chas. R. Keller spoke to this point recently:

> We must check the segmentation of educa-
> tion which is too much with us. It did all
> Gaul no good to be divided into three parts;
> it does education no good to be divided into
> five parts--elementary schools, junior high
> schools, senior high schools, colleges, and
> graduate schools, with the quintet meeting--not
> never but hardly ever. A school system has
> control over twelve grades and should exercise
> this control in an intelligent way. Since more
> than 50 per cent of our high school graduates--
> considerably more in some places--continue their
> education, many of them in four-year colleges,
> college people should become involved in over-
> all, vertical planning which will wring much
> water out of "watered education." Empire build-
> ing and vested interests must give way to intelli-
> gent communication and cooperation all up and
> down the academic line, if we really mean it
> when we say that we want to give our young people
> the best possible education.[4]

The Initiation and Methodology of the Self-Study

It was at this point, at the arrival of the author as

Superintendent of the Dearborn Public Schools, that the

Board of Education indicated that they felt the need for a

study to be made of job descriptions, salary relationships,

and working arrangements among the administrative staff.

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[4]From an address given by Chas. R. Keller at a meeting
of the Kentucky Council for the Social Studies, Louisville,
Kentucky, October 27, 1962. Mr. Keller is director of the
John Hays Fellows Program.

This proposed study was given as a mandate to the author.

Without delay the Superintendent and his deputies began the

process for initiating a study. The first step in this

process was to select four authorities in educational adminis-

tration. These educators were: Clyde Campbell, Michigan

State University; Howard Jones, University of Michigan;

G. Robert Koopman, Associate Superintendent, Department of

Public Instruction; and Ray Smittle, Wayne State University.

The four experts were invited to attend a meeting which

included the superintendent and his two deputies. The central

purpose of this meeting was to explore the possible approaches

to a study of the administrative structure in a medium-sized

school district. During the course of the meeting, three

approaches to an administrative study were suggested. These

approaches were: (1) to secure copies and descriptions of

the administrative structure of other medium-sized school

districts in the United States and adopt a plan that best

suited the needs of the Dearborn school district; (2) employ

a group of experts to study the situation in Dearborn and

make recommendations for changes; (3) to organize a self-

study involving the school staff, lay citizens, and a group

of experts to be used as consultants.

There was consensus that a self-study would be more important and significant than either of the other two suggested approaches. The reasoning behind this decision was that a self-study would involve the cooperation of the staff and the community. Since the staff and the community would be involved in the design and the procedures for carrying out the study, it was expected that there would be a high level of commitment. It was felt that the elements of involvement and commitment were lacking in the other two approaches.

In an effort to initiate the self-study a committee of sixteen members was established by the superintendent. This committee was composed of the Superintendent; Deputy Superintendent, Instruction; Deputy Superintendent, Business Affairs; Assistant Superintendent, Secondary Education; Administrative Assistant, Personnel; Personnel Director, Dean, Henry Ford Community College; Principal, Dearborn High School; Principal, Woodworth Junior High School; Principal, Howe Elementary School; Director, Health Services; Coordinator, Social Studies; and the four consultants.

This committee of sixteen engaged itself in two activities. The first activity was to compile a reading list of periodicals, pamphlets, and books related to educational

administration. The second activity was to discuss the roles of the teacher, the specialists, the board member, the elementary principal, the junior high school principal, the senior high school principal, the lay citizen, non-instructional personnel, and the superintendent. These discussions provided a framework for examining the various roles and their relationship to the administrative structure.

Recognizing the need and value of other points of view, the committee of sixteen decided to increase its membership. The new members on the committee were selected to represent opinions other than those of the administrative staff. Thus, the additional members included an elementary teacher, a junior high school teacher, a senior high school teacher, a community college teacher, one board member, one building engineer, one school secretary, and a member of the Citizens' Educational Advisory Committee. Since the addition of these new members the committee was more representative of the school system. Consequently, this committee of twenty-four began to function as the steering committee for the self-study.

A self-study appeared to make the best provision for the participation of representatives of all who would be affected by possible changes in the administrative structure.

This is in keeping with the best procedures of the demo-

cratic process. Miller and Spalding validate this point

of view:

> Within the field of educational adminis-
> tration there is general acceptance of the
> tenant that those who are to be affected by
> policy should share in the establishing of
> policy. Democratic school administration or
> democratic educational leadership is judged
> largely by the degree to which it has been
> successful in getting many persons to have a
> part in deciding what ought to be done in a
> school system.[5]

Thus, the need for the fullest possible participation both

from the standpoint of the gain which would be made in shar-

ing ideas and in the implementation of these ideas dictated

the establishment of the self-study.

In developing a plan for the initiation of a self-study,

the steering committee set down six policies. These were:

1. The school system and city were too large to
   permit total involvement; consequently, a
   representative group would have to be selected.

2. As far as possible, all major interests in
   and out of the school system were to be
   representative in the study.

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[5] Van Miller and Willard B. Spalding, "The Public
Administration of American Schools," (New York: World Book
Company, 1952), p. 489.

3. There should be opportunities for the sharing of ideas among groups of different interests.

4. Records should be kept of all formal meetings.

5. Groups already in existence, inside and outside the school system, should nominate their own representatives.

6. A final workshop would be held to coordinate the ideas of the various work groups.

In addition, the steering committee provided opportunities for several kinds of activities. The various work groups would be involved in some of the following activities: They would listen to papers presented by experts in the field of educational administration; they would have the opportunity of responding to questionnaires dealing with administrative practices; they would have an opportunity to select a small group working on topics related to educational administration; each work group would be comprised of members of various levels in the school system; and they would have the opportunity of reacting to a proposed new administrative organization if the study deemed it necessary to change the administrative structure.

This phase is perhaps most significant to the development of the project. It was at this point that the professional staff and the community were brought together to work cooperatively. The primary reason for engaging in this type

of project was to utilize all available resources rather
than to rely solely on the recommendations of experts. The
professional staff and the community were not brought in to
be told what was going to be done, but were to be given the
opportunity to actively participate in a cooperative venture.

Although the procedures used in the study had a definite
sequential development, no attempt will be made here to
delineate the process. Rather, the purpose of this portion
of the dissertation is to convey what appears to the author
to be the most significant element of the process--the
cooperative effort of the professional staff, the community,
and the consultants. The cooperative effort and what is
derived from this process is the strength of the study.

The participants represented three functioning groups
in the local school district. These groups were: the
administrative staff of eighty-three persons which included
principals, assistant principals, deans, assistant deans,
directors, curriculum coordinators, and five members of the
central office; the certificated and non-certificated school
staff of seventy-three persons which included teachers,
secretaries, and building engineers; and a total of fifty-
eight interested citizens of the community selected by school
principals.

Each of the participating groups, although not meeting simultaneously, were involved in similar activities. The sessions began with introductory remarks by the superintendent and the consultants. To establish a climate for the study, the keynote addresses covered such concepts as: "Controversial Issues in Administration," "This I Believe About Basic Purposes of Administration," and "Why We Are Engaged in a Self-Study." In addition, each group was given materials dealing with various administrative structures and proceedings of the steering committee, an opportunity to be involved in small group discussions, and the chance to eat together.

Each of the three representative groups handled different topics during the discussion sessions. The administrative group explored these issues: What are the main weaknesses in our administrative structure that generally hinder the promotion of the best interests of children? What are the conditions or hurdles that hinder my effectiveness in promoting the best interests of children? What administrative changes should be considered in order to improve our effectiveness in promoting the best interests of children? The certificated and non-certificated group examined these questions: What kinds of services are rendered by the school

district? What are the purposes of these services? What is the role of the teacher in using these services? What is the administrative role in supplying these services? What are the chief problems of the administrative organization in making these services available? What suggestions do you have to offer for the remainder of the self-study? The group of citizens had an opportunity to express their opinions on such matters as school policies, school philosophy, and administrative problems in Dearborn.

A task which the administrative group had to perform that the other groups did not participate in was the completion of two questionnaires (see appendix). The data from these questionnaires will be reported in Chapter IV.

During the study, an unexpected opportunity presented itself for the administrative staff. Columbia University was offering a one-week workshop devoted to the theme "Strengthening Structural and Operational Patterns in Large School Systems." The Dearborn delegation had a chance to discuss with representatives of other school districts the following topics: "A Look at the Future of School Administration in Large Cities," "Development of More Effective Relationships Between the Central Office and the Field,"

"Proposals for Lessening the Remoteness of Popular Control,"
"Stimulating Community Consciousness Educational Needs,"
"Fostering Creativeness and Curriculum Development," "New
Patterns of Staff Organization and Compensation," "Guides
for Identifying Administrative Personnel," "Advantages of
Decentralization in Achieving the Objectives of Large
Organizations," "Regional Planning in Metropolitan Areas,"
and "An Appraisal of Problems Faced by a School Administrator
Over the Past Four Decades."

As an outcome of the workshop at Columbia University,
the delegation from Dearborn brought back a list of questions
given out by Willard Elsbree which focused on symptoms of
organizational difficulties. Since these questions were
directly relevant to the self-study, the steering committee
presented the questions to the three functioning groups.
The questions were: Does the administration spend a large
amount of time on emergencies? Do different members of the
staff make conflicting statements? Do frequent delays
occur in execution after decisions are made? Do you hear
frequent complaints that "no one told me"? Do some of the
administrative staff members work too many hours without
vacation? Does the system fail to have time for long-range

planning? Are there frequent personality clashes on the
administrative staff?

The reports, submitted by each of the three representa-
tive groups, were reviewed by the steering committee and
presented for discussion to the committee-at-large which
consisted of the three representative groups, the consultants,
and members of the board of education. Following the dis-
cussion session, the committee-at-large was broken down into
small subgroups. Each subgroup consisted of representatives
from the three functioning groups and members of the board
of education. The questions asked of these subgroups were:
What are your reactions to the philosophy, objectives, and
program of the Dearborn Public Schools? What roles do you
feel should be played by the citizens, board of education,
superintendents and line associates, staff specialists,
building or unit administrators, teacher, non-instructional
supervisory staff, and non-instructional personnel? The
group responses were then submitted to the steering committee
for consideration.

After formal consideration of the subgroup reports, the
committee-at-large was once again assembled. At this meet-
ing, the steering committee reported on the findings of
the self-study and presented a set of recommendations. The

committee-at-large was given an opportunity to determine if the recommendations accurately reflected the findings. On the basis of these recommendations a plan was to be formulated for restructuring the administrative organizational pattern. The length of time it took from the initiation of the self-study to the formulation of the recommendations was eighteen months.

One factor of the process that might not be readily evident was the tapping of various motives. There is recognition in education of such motives as security, curiosity, creativity, self-worth, and economic. The process just described allowed for the utilization of these motivations. The participants were recognized as playing an important part in the organizational operation. It was realized that they had a "stake" in the organization, that they would be willing to examine the issues, and that they could come up with a plan which would meet their needs.

The channels of communication were really open. The group work fostered an attitude of trust between superiors and subordinates. The attitude permitted effective participation in decisions on common problems. Participation in the decisions allowed for a satisfactory integration of individual and organizational needs. Thus, the groups were

able to come to a decision which reflected their own needs thereby insuring that the organizational objectives encompassed their individual needs.

One principle that demands explanation is that of time. In this study, each group met periodically over a period of four years. This afforded sufficient time to get acquainted and to establish a climate that allowed for cooperation and participation. It must be understood that an underlying assumption was the necessity for groups to work together over a period of time before such a climate can be developed. Too often it is assumed that merely working in groups can accomplish the same thing. The principle that is stated here is: The process of the organization must be such as to insure a maximum probability that in all relationships with the organization each member will view the experience as supportive, one that builds and maintains his sense of personal worth and importance.

The ability of group members to influence each other should not be overlooked. The flexibility and adaptability of a group is dependent on this factor. Ideas, goals, and attitudes do not become frozen when members are free to influence each other. This is not to imply that the group

is easily swayed. The stability of the group is due to the steadying influence of common values and goals held by the members.

These are some of the factors which were in operation while the study was in progress. To some they represent common place knowledge, to others they represent the bases of cooperative group action. Perhaps the greatest contribution of this study will not be what resulted, but the process that was employed. It would be impossible to separate the process from the results, yet there are many who would overlook the process. The point that must be made, and which cannot be made too strongly, is that the strength of the study is the process because the process made possible the results.

Summary

This chapter describes the research site and the process used in carrying out the study. Essentially, the study was carried out in several phases. Phase one was conducted at the steering committee level and was exploratory in nature. The members of this committee met to review the literature and research pertinent to the study.

Phase two included individual meetings with administrators, certificated and non-certificated personnel, and the

citizens. This part of the process attempted to get the various members heavily committed and involved in the study.

The next phase was to set up groups that were as heterogeneous as possible. Thus, each group consisted of administrators, teachers, custodians, citizens, and consultants.

The final phase consisted of presentation of the plan to the community. This phase included articles in local newspapers, discussion groups, and presentation to various groups in the community. This activity of constant interpretation must be continuous.

The process cannot be separated from the results of the study. Whatever the results, they stem from the process. However, the principle employed here is that those who are to be affected by the results of the study should have the opportunity to help in the decision-making process.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

The purpose of this chapter is to present data from administrators regarding their perceptions of the existing pattern of the administrative structure. This chapter will include data on the number of authority levels, the areas of administrative responsibility, the areas of centralization or decentralization, and the autonomy of school units.

A total of seventy-six administrators participated in the survey; the large majority of whom replied to all assignments described in the questionnaire (see Appendix A). The slight variation in the number of responses was due to the nature of an administrator's background in relation to the purposes of the question. For example, several respondents were assigned part-time duties; consequently, they could not relate themselves to the full authority levels identified in this study under the pyramidal or flat administrative structure.

The Administrative Patterns Under Study

An attempt was made throughout the self-study to insure maximum involvement of the participants in order that the results of the study might represent the best efforts of the group. The questionnaire was designed to obtain perceptions of the administrative family in regard to the existing pattern of administrative structure. Specifically, it sought responses regarding pyramidal or flat organization as it applied to six related areas of administration.

The pyramidal and the flat administrative organizations are each defined through six contrasting illustrations of practices. The purpose of these contrasting illustrations was an attempt to differentiate between a pyramidal organizational structure and a flat organizational structure. The pyramidal organizational structure places administrative emphasis within line authority vested in many staff personnel who carry out specific tasks as arms of the superintendent. The pyramidal organization provides for the administration of the elementary schools, the junior high schools, the senior high schools, and the community college through larger numbers of authority levels along with adjutant line officers or central staff personnel. The essence of the

pyramidal organization centers upon line authority and its associate personnel who represent an administrative function rather than a service function.

The flat organization structure places emphasis on the inter-relationships of line and staff personnel. The flat organization would provide for the administration of the elementary schools, the junior high schools, the senior high schools, and the community college through use of greater autonomy at the individual building level. This means that the building administrator is directly responsible to the superintendent instead of having to account to a series of line officers. The essence of the flat structure centers upon the use of central office personnel in a service function rather than in an administrative function.

Analysis of Data

Since the replies of the administrators were inter-preted through percentages of choice made to characteristics of the pyramidal and of the flat organizational patterns, it was possible to discriminate statistically the signifi-cance of the differences among the percentages of replies. The formula for this computation is referred to as the

significance of a difference between two percentages.[1] The

application of the formula delimits subjective judgment by

attempting to establish the incidence of chance upon the

occurrence of responses as they have been obtained from

the population, namely, from the responses of administrators,

as to their perceptions about the complexity of the organiza-

tional pattern. In addition to the objectivity gained in

interpreting the data, the formula for significance of

difference between percentages permits an approach through

a null-hypothesis or an assumption that the differences

between the percentages compared as nil or non-existent.

The statistical procedure then evaluates the respective

percentages under comparison as to whether or not the null

hypothesis can be accepted or rejected. The steps in the

computations come after a percentage of responses have been

computed for a variable.

1. Establish for each percentage a standard
    error, p, which will serve as a basis for
    computing a relevant value of probability:

    $p = \dfrac{Pq}{N}$ in which

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p = percentage of replies made to a question

q = 1.00 p (100 per cent of responses)

N = number of individuals in the sample

2. Compute next the standard error of the difference for the two percentages under comparison which considers that the difference between the two percentages will contain some sampling error and hence should be considered in establishing true differences between the possible fluctuations of percentage values.

$$P - P_2 = \frac{2}{p1} \quad \frac{2}{p2}$$

3. The significance of differences, or the lack of it, enters in through Fisher's t-test in which the difference between two percentages is divided by the standard error of the difference shown under (2) above. Often this difference is called a critical ratio.

$$\frac{p1}{t} = \frac{p1 - p2}{P_1 - p2}$$

4. The value of t establishes whether or not the null hypothesis is accepted or rejected. The following values of t represent degrees of rejection of the assumption.

   t = 2.58 statistically significant upset by chance once in 100

   t = 2.33 upset by chance twice in a 100

   t = 1.96 upset by chance five times in a 100.

5. For purposes of this study t values less than 1.96 will imply acceptance of null hypothesis or of the assumption that no critical difference was found between percentages of responses to a certain question.

Administrative Pattern

One area of investigation was the number of authority levels and the line officers at each level. Table 1 presents data for this area.

From this table it can be seen that slightly less than 50 per cent of the administrators responding to this item indicated that they felt that the existing administrative structure was more flat than pyramidal. In addition, slightly less than 25 per cent of the administrators felt that the existing administrative structure was largely flat. Thus, a total of 70 per cent of the administrators felt that the existing administrative structure was more flat than pyramidal. This is in conflict with the structure which is in fact more pyramidal than flat. One possible explanation for this is that the central office does, in fact, provide the service function and thus, the administrators conceive the organization to be more flat than pyramidal. On the other hand, it is entirely possible that many of the administrators responding to this item have not had the opportunity to work under a flat administrative structure and really do not have any basis for comparison.

TABLE 1

Perceptions of Administrators Regarding Authority Levels

	Frequency	Percentage	Percentage of Difference	Standard Error of Difference	t*
Largely Pyramidal	7	9.2			
More Pyramidal Than Flat	16	21.1			
More Flat Than Pyramidal	35	46.1	25	.09	2.84
Largely Flat	18	23.7			

*t = 1.96 - p = .05

Another area of examination, in order to determine whether the administrators perceive the organization as being flat or pyramidal, had to do with the degree of autonomy given to schools. Thus, administrators were asked to indicate whether they perceived the school units as having greater or lesser autonomy. Table 2 presents the data on this factor.

The overwhelming majority of administrators (81 per cent) saw the structure as being more flat than pyramidal. That is they perceived the school principals to have almost complete autonomy over their buildings. It is interesting to note the relatively large proportion of administrators who perceived the structure to be largely flat rather than selecting the intermediate category of "more flat than pyramidal." Perhaps one reason for this can be related to the data in Table 1. Table 1 revealed a relatively large proportion of administrators who perceived the administrative structure to be flat. Thus, it is not unusual that they would also perceive the schools as having a great deal of autonomy. In fact, a comparison of Tables 1 and 2 reveals that 70 per cent of the administrators saw the levels of authority as being more flat than pyramidal,

TABLE 2

Perceptions of Administrators Regarding the Degree of
Autonomy Given to Schools

	Frequency	Percentage	Percentage of Difference	Standard Error of Difference	t
Largely Pyramidal	5	6.7			
More Pyramidal Than Flat	9	12.0	38.7	.07	5.60*
More Flat Than Pyramidal	38	50.7	20	.08	2.56**
Largely Flat	23	30.7			
TOTAL	75	100.1			

*Significant at .01 level
**Significant at .02 level

whereas in Table 2 80 per cent of the administrators per-
ceived the degree of autonomy similarly. Table 3 presents
data on the perceptions of administrators regarding the
role of the building principal as related to the education
of students.

The data in this table appear to lend support to the
data in Table 2 where the administrators perceived themselves
as having a great degree of autonomy. It is not surprising
then that they would perceive themselves as having more
control over the education of students. It might be noted
that the percentage of administrators who saw their relation-
ship to the educational program of students as being largely
flat was somewhat greater than the percentage of administra-
tors who saw the degree of autonomy given to the schools as
being largely flat. This is probably indicative of the per-
ceptions of administrators regarding the educational goals
of the school, which is the education of students. Although
there is no breakdown of the various levels of administra-
tion in this table, it can probably be assumed that the
difference in percentage between Tables 2 and 3 in the
category of largely flat is due to the responses of building
principals who reacted more positively to the area of the
relationship to the educational program.

TABLE 3

Perceptions of Administrators Regarding the Relationship of
Administrators to Students

	Frequency	Percentage	Percentage of Difference	Standard Error of Difference	t
Largely Pyramidal	4	5.3			
More Pyramidal Than Flat	11	14.4			
More Flat Than Pyramidal	32	42.1	27.7	.07	4.01*
More Flat	29	38.2	3.9	.08	0.49
TOTAL	75	100.0			

*Significant at .01

Another dimension of this problem revolves around the perceptions of administrators regarding the distribution of responsibilities. Table 4 contains information on this factor.

In the three areas previously examined, it was noted that over 50 per cent of the administrators perceived the structure to be more flat than pyramidal or largely flat. For the first time, this table reveals that administrators perceive the structure to be more pyramidal than flat on this dimension. Although the reasons for this are not readily apparent, it is probable that building principals perceive themselves as having a great degree of autonomy when this autonomy pertains to the administration of their individual schools and to their responsibilities to the students. This was demonstrated by Tables 2 and 3. However, it is possible that when decision-making relates to the higher school system, the building principal does not perceive himself as having the same degree of responsibility for school-wide decisions. Another possible explanation for the data in this table may be related to the perceptions of assistant principals. When there is a principal and an assistant principal, the assistant principal may perceive himself as having less responsibility for decision-making.

TABLE 4

Perceptions of Administrators Regarding
Responsibilities of Administrators

	Frequency	Percentage	Percentage of Difference	Standard Error of Difference	t
Largely Pyramidal	8	10.5			
More Pyramidal Than Flat	31	40.8	13.2	.08	1.65
More Flat Than Pyramidal	21	27.6			
Largely Flat	16	21.1	6.5	.08	0.94
TOTAL	76	100.0			

Note might be taken at this point of the four areas
that have been analyzed. The first area, regarding the
levels of authority, and the fourth area, regarding adminis-
trative responsibilities, seem to be related to school-wide
decision-making. Whereas areas two and three, autonomy
within the school building and responsibility of the prin-
cipal for the educational program, relate almost entirely
to individual school buildings. Thus, when principals and
assistant principals discuss their perceptions of individual
schools, they perceive themselves as having great autonomy
and responsibility; but, when they discuss system-wide
decisions, they do not perceive themselves in a similar
position.

When administrators were asked to discuss the function
of central office personnel (curriculum specialists), they
overwhelmingly perceived these people as performing a service
function rather than an administrative function. Table 5
clearly indicates this.

In analyzing the table, it can be seen that 84 per cent
of the administrators indicated that the function of special-
ists was more flat than pyramidal or largely flat. There
is little reason to be surprised at this response since it

TABLE 5

Perceptions of Administrators Regarding the
Function of Specialists

	Frequency	Percentage	Percentage of Difference	Standard Error of Difference	t
Largely Pyramidal	4	5.3			
More Pyramidal Than Flat	8	10.5			
More Flat Than Pyramidal	27	35.5	25.0	.07	3.85*
Largely Flat	37	48.7	13.2	.08	1.67
TOTAL	76	100.0			

is generally agreed that function of the specialist is in
the area of service.

The final area for analysis of the perceptions of
administrators about the existing administrative pattern
deals with the line administrative officers. Table 6 con-
tains these data.

Almost 75 per cent of the administrators perceived line
officers as being generalists with broad responsibilities
rather than having narrow spheres of responsibility. It is
not improbable that this result is related to the perceptions
and concepts of building administrators regarding their own
functions. That is building principals, as line administra-
tive officers, conceive themselves to be generalists rather
than specialists. The building principals recognize their
function as the administrative officer of an individual
building. In addition to their administrative function,
they would like to perceive themselves as having the ability
to provide leadership in other educational areas, such as
curriculum development, evaluation, handling of discipline,
teaching methods, and in-service training.

TABLE 6

Responses of Administrators Regarding the Degree of
Responsibility of Line Officers

	Frequency	Percentage	Percentage of Difference	Standard Error of Difference	t
Largely Pyramidal	5	6.6	1		
More Pyramidal Than Flat	15	19.7			
More Flat Than Pyramidal	28	36.8	17.1	.07	2.38**
Largely Flat	28	36.8			
TOTAL	76	99.9			

**Significant at .02

Summary

Of the six related areas of administration analyzed as to pyramidal or flat dominance in the present administrative pattern, significant differences were found in five of the six comparisons. A differential of 25 per cent identified the present structure as being characterized by a minimum of line officers and of authority levels. The t value of 2.84 in this instance placed the differential even beyond the 1 per cent level of confidence. Hence, null hypothesis must be rejected and the difference of 25 per cent in the replies accepted as being significant in the identity of this trait, namely, minimum line-authority. In this respect, the organization was perceived as being more flat than pyramidal.

An unusually high number of responses, 38.7 per cent, identified school autonomy as a practice under the existing administrative pattern. This percentage set the pattern as more flat rather than pyramidal in this respect. The t value for the differences among the percentages was 5.60 which is highly significant in the acceptance of the more flat over the more pyramidal structure. The definiteness of the more flat type of pattern is also asserted over the largely flat counterpart with a t value of 2.56, which

bordered on a confidence limit of 1 per cent.

The responses, also significantly identified the prin-
cipal as the person in direct charge of carrying out the
educational program at the building level as contrasted to
a pattern where numerous individuals might carry out the
educational program under a largely pyramidal plan. The
t value in the latter comparison was 4.01 for a more flat
rather than for a more pyramidal practice. The t value of
4.01 places the significance well beyond the 1 per cent
level of confidence. In reply to a related question bear-
ing upon the function of specialists, a significant differ-
ence among the percentages defined the role of the special-
ist as a service function rather than as a line officer
administering and executing fixed administrative functions.
The t value between these variables was 3.85 or well beyond
the one per cent level for critical acceptance of the differ-
ence. The t of 3.85 placed the difference as flat rather
than pyramidal.

The percentage of replies to the question of respon-
sibility of line officers indicates a predominately flat
type of administrative procedure. Administrators perceive
themselves as generalists who can offer educational leader-

ship in other areas than the narrow administrative function.

The t value for these variables was 2.38 or beyond the

2 per cent level of significance.

Only in one comparison (Table 4) did the percentage

difference favor a pyramidal over a flat practice. The

respondents felt that responsibilities were centered in the

hands of a few rather than being diffused among many individu-

als. The difference, 13.2 per cent, was on the side of the

pyramidal type of organization. However, the t ratio of

1.65 designated the difference as one of chance and thereby

forced an acceptance of the no difference tenet.

The present administrative structure, as documented in

Tables 1 through 6, indicate that administrators perceive

the existing administrative pattern to be flat. These per-

ceptions do not coincide with the theoretical administrative

structure of the Dearborn schools, which is pyramidal. The

significance of the differences between the percentages

indicates the perceptions that the total structure is more

flat than pyramidal rather than as being largely flat. In

addition, these perceptions veer away from the pyramidal

effect where in central office personnel and line deputies

limit the functions of the principals and teachers. In

general, the function of staff people is projected upon the

autonomy and the need of the classrooms through a broad

diffusion of specialist services and a minimum of line

authority.

Analysis of Responses to Characteristics of the Organizational Pattern Preferred by Administrators

In a consecutive question, administrators were asked

to identify those pyramidal or flat characteristics which

they preferred for local administrative practice. These

characteristics are presented in Tables 7 through 12 and are

identical to those compiled in Tables 1 through 6. A

standard error of percentage was also applied to the null

hypothesis to determine the significance of difference for

the traits under consideration.

Administrators were asked to indicate their choice for

flat or pyramidal pattern as it related to authority levels.

Table 7 contains this information.

If the number of line officers is to be kept at a mini-

mum, a preference exists for a largely flat over a more flat

type of administrative model. The definiteness of choice is

shown by the large proportion of administrators who preferred

the structure to be more flat than pyramidal or largely flat.

TABLE 7

Preferences of Administrators Regarding Authority Levels

	Frequency	Percentage	Percentage of Difference	Standard Error of Difference	t
Largely Pyramidal					
More Pyramidal Than Flat	4	5.5			
More Flat Than Pyramidal	26	35.6			
Largely Flat	43	58.9	23.3	.08	2.91*
TOTAL	73	100.0			

*Significant at .01

In per cent this difference was 23.3 per cent for the largely

flat consideration of line personnel.

A comparison of this table with Table 1 reveals a strik-

ing difference. In Table 1 it can be seen that 46 per cent

of the administrators perceived their present structure to

be more flat than pyramidal, whereas in this table only 35

per cent of the administrators indicated that they preferred

this pattern over the largely flat pattern. Almost 60 per

cent of the administrators indicated that they would like

an even flatter administrative structure as this relates

to authority levels. When asked to indicate their prefer-

ence with the autonomy of the individual schools, adminis-

trators indicated that they would prefer a more flat than

pyramidal pattern. The data for this are contained in

Table 8.

In reply to this item the administrators felt that

individual schools have sufficient autonomy at this time.

The existing practices summarized in Table 2 as well as

preferences for autonomous status as shown in Table 8

indicate a wish to continue such a pattern under the flat

type of organization. The replies for a somewhat flat

organization in this respect were 57.5 per cent as compared

TABLE 8

Preferences of Administrators Regarding the Degree of
Autonomy Given to Schools

	Frequency	Percentage	Percentage of Difference	Standard Error of Difference	t
Largely Pyramidal	1	1.4			
More Pyramidal Than Flat	1	1.4			
More Flat Than Pyramidal	42	57.5	17.8	.08	2.22***
Largely Flat	29	39.7			
TOTAL	73	100.0			

***Significant at .05

to 39.7 per cent for a largely flat approach. School
autonomy appears to be well carried out and locally appre-
ciated. Tables 2 and 8 attest to this condition.

Closely allied with the preference for autonomy is the
practice of administering a building through its leader, the
school principal. School administrators when asked about
direct multi-person responsibility for educating the child
under a pyramidal plan as compared to one of fixed respon-
sibility of the principal under the flat type, preferred
the latter. Table 9 contains this information.

The replies failed to discern, however, whether the
operational plan should be a largely flat one, 44.6 per
cent, or a more flat type, 43.2 per cent.

A comparison of Table 9 with Table 3 indicates a
slight shift between the perceptions of administrators and
their preferences on this factor. These two tables indicate
the preference for administrators for a more flat and largely
flat pattern when compared with Table 3 which contained their
perceptions of the current administrative pattern.

Should administration be centered in the hands of the
few or should such responsibilities be diffused under the
many? The former describes a pyramidal practice, the latter

TABLE 9

Preferences of Administrators Regarding the Relationship
of Administrators to Students

	Frequency	Percentage	Percentage of Difference	Standard Error of Difference	t
Largely Pyramidal	3	4.1			
More Pyramidal Than Flat	6	8.1			
More Flat Than Pyramidal	32	43.2			
Largely Flat	33	44.6	1.4	.08	.17
TOTAL	74	100.0			

a flat type of operation. Table 10 contains this information.

An examination of Table 4 in relation to this table is quite revealing. Whereas in Table 4 almost 49 per cent of the administrators indicated that they perceived the current structure to be more flat or largely flat, in Table 10 almost 84 per cent of the administrators indicated a preference for this type of structure.

Under a flat type of organization, specialists are a service arm of the classroom. The preferences of administrators regarding this function are related in Table 11.

The preference of administrators is to retain specialists in this capacity under a largely flat type of organization. In this particular case, a large proportion of administrators would place the specialists under service to classrooms through a largely flat structure. A comparison of Table 4 with this table shows a slight shift in preference for the largely flat structure for this factor.

Should line officers have various spheres of responsibility as set under the pyramidal practice or should such officers be generalists to buildings and to other staff persons as fixed under a flat type of operation? This

TABLE 10

Preferences of Administrators Regarding Responsibility
of Administrators

	Frequency	Percentage	Percentage of Difference	Standard Error of Difference	t
Largely Pyramidal	1	1.4			
More Pyramidal Than Flat	11	14.9	13.5	.08	1.67
More Flat Than Pyramidal	36	48.6	20.2	.07	2.93*
Largely Flat	26	35.1			
TOTAL	74	100.0			

*Significant at .01

TABLE 11

Preferences of Administrators Regarding the Function of Specialists

	Frequency	Percentage	Percentage of Difference	Standard Error of Difference	t
Largely Pyramidal	5	6.8			
More Pyramidal Than Flat	4	5.5			
More Flat Than Pyramidal	23	31.5			
Largely Flat	41	56.2	24.7	.08	3.09*
TOTAL	73	100.0			

*Significant at .01

information is contained in Table 12.

Ninety-six per cent of the administrators expressed their choice for a flat type of practice with slight majority preferring a largely flat one. Note should be taken at this point of the data in Table 6. In Table 6 about 74 per cent of the administrators perceived the responsibility of the line officer as falling under a flat type of structure. Their overwhelming preference was for this type of structure as indicated by the 96 per cent of the administrators who answered this way. It is entirely possible that the reason for this preference is the fact that under the flat administrative structure the individual building principal would have more responsibility than he would have under the pyramidal structure. Consequently, the degree of responsibility of the line officer is directly related to the degree of responsibility of the individual building principal as a result of the administrators' pattern.

Summary

Of the six related areas of administration in which administrators were asked to indicate a preference as to a pyramidal or flat structure in the administrative pattern,

TABLE 12

Preferences of Administrators Regarding the Degree of
Responsibility of Line Officers

	Frequency	Percentage	Percentage of Difference	Standard Error of Difference	t
Largely Pyramidal	1	1.4			
More Pyramidal Than Flat	2	2.7			
More Flat Than Pyramidal	34	45.9			
Largely Flat	37	50.0	4.1	.08	0.50
TOTAL	74	100.0			

significant differences were found in four of the six comparisons. A differential of 23 per cent preferred the administrative pattern as it relates to authority to be largely flat. The t value of 2.91 placed the differential even beyond the 1 per cent level of confidence. Therefore, it must be accepted that the administrators prefer a flat structure insofar as this structure relates to authority levels.

A t value of 2.22 was significant at the 5 per cent level of confidence. This means that the administrators in the Dearborn Public Schools prefer the greater autonomy that is related to a flat administrative structure.

Many administrators indicated a preference for a flat structure as it relates to direct responsibility for carrying out the educational program at the building level. However, the difference between the categories "more flat than pyramidal" and "largely flat" is not statistically significant. In this instance, administrators appear to lean toward a flat structure.

The replies to the question of responsibilities of line officers indicate a preference for a predominantly flat administrative structure. A t value of 2.93 was beyond the 1 per cent level of significance.

In reply to a question bearing on the function of specialists, a significant percentage of administrators preferred the role of the specialist to be service rather than to serve as line officers. This was demonstrated by the large portion of administrators who preferred a "largely flat" structure. The t value of 3.09 was well beyond the 1 per cent level for critical acceptance of the difference.

Although a majority of administrators preferred the flat type of structure or "more flat than pyramidal" in relation to the responsibility of line officers, the difference in percentage resulted in a t value of .50 which is not statistically significant.

As documented in Tables 7 through 12, administrators in the Dearborn Public Schools prefer a flat administrative structure. The choices were especially significant in two areas of responsibility, namely, line officers shall be kept at a minimum and specialists shall be service arms of the classroom. In the remaining four areas of responsibility, more flat types of responsibility were preferred.

Self-Evaluation of Administrators in
Regard to Own Line Function

Administrators were asked to assess themselves as
individuals endowed with some degree of authority to carry
out various functions of their title. The purpose of this
evaluation was to gain insight into situations which stimu-
late or impede services of an administrator. Such conditions
are a part of any administrative pattern, hence have to be
evaluated on an inter-personal basis as well as upon an
organizational plan within which various services are
functionally integrated with departments, schools, and roles
in the two-way exchange of line-administrative plan of the
Dearborn Public Schools.

A self-evaluation of administrators was requested pur-
suant to line relationships as assigned each person. The
evaluation consisted of a five-point continuum of the role
of the self in assuming a task through line function about
such facets of duty as authority, responsibility, communica-
tion, and staff rapport. The scale of responses permitted
an index through degrees of assimilation of the above factors
helping to define the line function of an administrator. One
factor that was examined in this self-evaluation was authority.
These data are contained in Table 13.

TABLE 13

Self-Evaluation of Administrators in Regard to the
Line Function as It Relates to Authority

	Number	Per Cent
Well Defined	8	10.5
Definitive	19	25.0
Partially Defined	30	39.5
Vague	13	17.1
Undefined	6	7.9
TOTAL	76	100.0

Only 25 per cent of the responses indicate that the
nature of authority in the Dearborn Public Schools was
vague or undefined. A slightly larger majority, 39.5 per
cent, states that it was partially defined when compared
to 35.5 per cent who said authority was definitive or
well defined. The implications of the latter two per-
centages presupposes an understanding and an acceptance
of authority within the combined obligations and varied
duties of the administrative family. A more complete
definition of authority might well be in order for some
types of administrative positions and should not be over-

looked as conditions leading to better coordination of staff authority.

It is possible to interpret these data in another manner. If the categories "partially defined" and "vague" are combined, it will be noted that 47 per cent of the administrators fall into these categories. On the other hand, a combination of "well defined" and "definitive" reveals only 36 per cent of the administrators fall into these categories. Thus, it is possible to assume that the administrators see the present administrative pattern as not clearly spelled out in the area of authority.

Another factor that was examined was responsibility. The data on this factor are contained in Table 14.

Line responsibility seems to be well fixed within the administrative procedure of the Dearborn Public Schools. Fifty-one per cent of the administrators perceived their line authority as well defined or definitive for the obligations assumed by individuals. Responsibility appears partially defined in approximately 37 per cent of the administrators, suggesting thereby a need to clarify and review line service in this respect.

Perhaps at this point the authority-responsibility factors should be combined as mutually supportive conditions

TABLE 14

Self-Evaluation of Administrators in Regard to the
Line Function as It Relates to Responsibility

	Number	Per Cent
Well Defined	15	19.7
Definitive	24	31.6
Partially Defined	28	36.8
Vague	7	9.2
Undefined	2	2.6
TOTAL	76	99.9

for the direction of line obligation of any administrator.
The replies in combination tend to raise the status of
authority and in so doing increase the efficiency of the
administrator's role for providing those services most
conducive to effective planning and programming among the
involved personnel.

While the area of authority and the area of responsi-
bility are closely related and perhaps can be viewed as
mutually supported conditions, it is difficult to understand
the difference in the responses of the administrators to
these two areas. When discussing the area of authority

only 11 per cent of the administrators felt that this was well defined, whereas, when discussing responsibility almost 20 per cent saw this as being well defined. In fact, when the categories of well defined and definitive are taken together, it will be noted that almost 36 per cent of the administrators felt that the authority was well defined or definitive and that 51 per cent of the administrators felt that responsibility was also well defined. If authority and responsibility are seen as two sides of the same coin, it is difficult to understand why there is such a great difference in the responses to these two areas.

Table 15 presents the appraisal of communication as it may relate to the discharge of services of administrators. Communication as referred to in this self-evaluation was not disassociated from any one individual nor any one department, hence educational and non-educational exchanges and routes of information were presumed to be appraised. As evaluated, communication was examined in service as continuous, select, intermittent, limited, or non-existent. The large majority, about 54 per cent, considered communications as intermittent without qualification as to what conditioned the response to fall into this category. A

TABLE 15

Self-Evaluation of Administrators in Regard to the
Line Function as It Relates to Communication

	Number	Per Cent
Continuous	7	9.2
Select	16	21.1
Intermittent	41	53.9
Limited	10	13.2
Non-existent	2	2.6
TOTAL	76	100.0

separate study perhaps would evolve as a consequence which

would explore the area of pertinent directive and non-

directive communication as it relates to the administrative

population. Sources and media need to be identified, and

their importance known. In addition to the above, 30 per

cent of administrators considered the communication select

and continuous as against a negative 16 per cent who con-

sidered communication limited or non-existent. In general,

the total picture of communications within the Dearborn

Public Schools appears to be somewhat vague and in need of

improvement.

Rapport as an environment enriching staff services
was likewise appraised by the individual administrator from
within his own experience. Team play may well be the essence
of administrative quality and rapport. These data are con-
tained in Table 16.

TABLE 16

Self-Evaluation of Administrators in Regard to the
Line Function as It Relates to Rapport

	Number	Per Cent
Abundant	20	26.4
Manifest	22	28.9
Present	23	30.3
Variable	9	11.8
Lacking	2	2.6
TOTAL	76	100.0

As an essential of professional regard, rapport was
appraised as being abundant, 26.4 per cent; manifest, 28.9
per cent; present, 30.3 per cent; variable, 11.8 per cent,
and lacking, 2.6 per cent. The summary of the percentages
of the first three categories indicates an exceptional high
degree of professional acceptance and approach to ongoing

activity. The percentage establishing this high degree of mutual understanding of services and of individuals was approximately 86 per cent.

The line activity of administrators translates itself rather well into the fulfillment of pupil needs. The data on this factor are contained in Table 17.

TABLE 17

Self-Evaluation of Administrators in Regard to the
Line Function as It Relates to Pupil Needs

	Number	Per Cent
Well Met	11	14.7
Usually Met	30	40.0
Partially Met	32	42.7
Moderately Met	2	2.7
Unmet	0	0
TOTAL	75	100.1

Approximately 55 per cent of the administrators replied that pupil needs were consistently met or well met. Approximately 43 per cent replied that pupil needs were partially met. Utilizing the 43 per cent as a means of improving specific details of line service, the attention to pupil

needs could perhaps be readily improved. Because of the diversity of administrative assignment, the latter point appears to be individually analyzed perhaps more so than generally. Of the 75 respondents, only 2.7 per cent felt inadequate in dealing with pupil needs.

Summary

In summarizing the data of the self-evaluation of administrators in regard to the line function, a large majority of administrators reported that authority lacked clear definition. In terms of responsibility, administrators felt it was better defined than levels of authority. When considering the factor of communication, a majority of the administrators felt that communications could be improved. Administrators perceived that a high degree of rapport exists. Pupil needs, as viewed by administrators, generally appear to be met.

Self-Evaluation of Administrators in Regard to Own Staff Function

A self-evaluation of administrators was desired in conjunction with total staff detail as it pertains to service with teachers, principals, superintendents, and consultants. Staff function was also related to specific

person to person obligations in educational programming,
curriculum, budget, personnel situations, teacher coopera-
tion, and committee assignments. Self-evaluation of staff
function was concerned with authority, responsibility,
communication within staff organization, rapport or rela-
tionship with staff personnel, and the contributions of
the services to pupil needs. Staff positions were appraised
more so through contributions of members to joint problem
solving than to line obligation or the carrying out of
orders. Table 18 provides the breakdown of responses to
the continuum of events which identify feelings about staff
experiences in the total structure.

In the total staff function of administrators, authority
appears to be more defined than it was under the line func-
tion (Table 13). A comparison of this table with Table 13
indicates that there is an increase of almost 9 per cent
in the category labeled "well defined." Whereas in
Table 13, 10.5 per cent of the administrators indicated
that the nature of authority was well defined, in Table 18,
19.4 per cent of the administrators indicated that authority
was well defined. The 9 per cent difference between these
two tables appeared to come from the group of respondents
who saw the line function as being partially defined. In

TABLE 18

Self-Evaluation of Administrators in Regard to the
Staff Function as It Relates to Authority

	Number	Per Cent
Well Defined	13	19.4
Definitive	17	25.4
Partially Defined	21	31.3
Vague	11	16.4
Undefined	5	7.5
TOTAL	67	100.0

Table 13, these respondents accounted for 39.5 per cent of

the total group whereas in Table 18 the respondents who

saw the authority as being partially defined accounted for

only 31.3 per cent. The administrators who expressed a

feeling that authority was vague and undefined in Table 13

appeared to hold this same position in Table 18.

It is possible to explain the difference between

Table 13 and Table 18 in terms of administrative theory.

In a line relationship where two authority figures are each

charged with the responsibility for decision-making, it is

probable that a decision made on a specific issue by each

of these authorities would differ slightly and thus, there

is a likelihood of conflict between these two authorities.

However, in a staff relationship where one administrator

perceives himself in a staff function to a line officer,

he does not have the responsibility for the decision-making

process and thus leaves the decision-making up to the line

officer. In this instance then, the concept of authority

is more clearly defined because all of the decision-making

rests with the line officer, whereas with two line officers

the decision-making function is intertwined and interrelated

with other functions and thus, the concept of authority

might appear to be less well defined to the subordinate

line officer.

The administrators were asked to evaluate their staff

function as it relates to the function of responsibility.

These data are presented in Table 19.

From this table it can be seen that slightly over 43

per cent of the administrators saw responsibility of the

staff function being definitive or well defined while 17.5

per cent saw responsibility as being vague or undefined.

A comparison of this table with Table 14 reveals a shift

in the evaluation of administrators as it relates to respon-

sibility. Whereas in Table 14 over 51 per cent of the

administrators saw responsibility as being well defined or

TABLE 19

Self-Evaluation of Administrators in Regard to the
Staff Function as It Relates to Responsibility

	Number	Per Cent
Well Defined	15	20.3
Definitive	17	23.0
Partially Defined	29	39.2
Vague	10	13.5
Undefined	3	4.0
TOTAL	74	100.0

definitive. In this table, only slightly more than 43 per
cent of the administrators perceived responsibility in the
same way. The greatest change between these tables appears
in the definitive category where almost 9 per cent more
of the administrators was responsibility as being defini-
tive under the line function. On the other hand, in
Table 14, almost 12 per cent of the administrators saw
responsibility as being vague or undefined. In this table,
almost 18 per cent of the administrators perceived respon-
sibility similarly. Thus there is a shift of approximately
6 per cent between these two tables in this category.

Following the same line of reasoning as illustrated

by the last table, it is possible to explain the discrepancy

between these two tables in the following way. The theory

behind the function of the line officer vested with author-

ity demands that he carry out certain responsibilities.

Therefore, it is clearly defined that a line officer with

authority has a built-in responsibility. This explains why

administrators, when looking at themselves in a line func-

tion, perceive responsibility to be definitive or well

defined. However, when administrators function in a staff

relationship, which is advisory, they do not perceive

themselves to have decision-making responsibilities. There-

fore, when administrators function in a staff position which

does not have a built in decision-making power, they do not

perceive responsibility in the same way. Part of the func-

tion of the line officer is to make certain that his respon-

sibilities are carried out. Therefore, he clearly sees his

responsibility in this relationship. On the other hand,

the administrator in a staff function serves in advisory

capacity and perceives the responsibility to carry out

decisions as resting with a line officer. Therefore, the

responsibility appears to be less well defined to the staff

officers.

An examination of communication in the staff function is presented in Table 20.

TABLE 20

Self-Evaluation of Administrators in Regard to the
Staff Function as It Relates to Communication

	Number	Per Cent
Continuous	9	12.5
Select	16	22.2
Intermittent	37	51.4
Limited	8	11.1
Non-Existent	2	2.8
TOTAL	72	100.0

From this table it can be seen that communication appears to be more open than closed insofar as almost 35 per cent of the administrators saw communication as being "continuous" and "select" with almost 52 per cent saying it was "intermittent," while relatively few administrators saw communication being "limited" or "non-existent." A comparison of this table with Table 15 revealed no significant changes. Therefore, it appears that communication under the line function or the staff function appear to be quite similar.

Table 21 presents information regarding the concept of rapport in a staff function.

TABLE 21

Self-Evaluation of Administrators in Regard to the
Staff Function as It Relates to Rapport

	Number	Per Cent
Abundant	24	32.4
Manifest	26	35.1
Present	22	29.7
Variable	--	--
Lacking	2	2.7
TOTAL	74	100.0

In the staff function, rapport seems to be quite high with almost 60 per cent of the administrators indicating that rapport was "abundant" or "manifest." A comparison of this table with Table 16, which explores rapport as it relates to the line function, indicates a significant difference between the tables. Under the staff function, it appears that there is a greater rapport than exists under the line function. The apparent difference between these tables might lie in the fact that when functioning

as a line officer one tends to function somewhat individu-
ally, whereas in a staff relationship one is a member of
a team rather than functioning as an individual.

Data on the fulfillment of pupil need are presented
in Table 22.

TABLE 22

Self-Evaluation of Administrators in Regard to the
Staff Function as It Relates to Pupil Needs

	Number	Per Cent
Well Met	10	13.9
Usually Met	33	45.8
Partially Met	26	36.1
Moderately Met	2	2.8
Unmet	1	1.4
TOTAL	72	100.0

Approximately 63 per cent of the administrators replied
that pupil needs were "usually met" or "well met," whereas
4.2 per cent felt that the pupil needs were "moderately
met" or "unmet." A comparison of this table with Table 17
reveals only a slight difference in the responses of admin-
istrators. In a staff relationship administrators perceive

pupil needs to be more frequently met than they did under
a line relationship. One possible explanation for this is
that as a line officer administrators must be concerned
with a diversity of educational problems which include cur-
riculum, teacher selection, discipline, in-service train-
ing, and other functions, whereas in a staff capacity
administrators are more directly faced with meeting pupil
needs.

Summary

A summary of the total reaction of administrators
indicates a general improvement of their staff status over
line status in respect to such functions as authority,
responsibility, communication, rapport, and attention to
pupil needs. Perhaps in the positive gain of staff status,
over line status is the recognition of greater concern of
principals, assistant principals, and consultants about
their duties which are predominantly staff rather than line
oriented. However, combining the feelings expressed about
staff positions, a high degree of effective function asserts
itself. As a service entity, perhaps the line and staff
functions should not be separated, but considered as service
arms of the classroom. The consistency of replies of the
administrative group appear to affirm this thinking.

The Role of Principals

The destination of all personnel services is to ful-
fill obligations to students about situations which demand
some type of special study. With the source of problems
centered about any school building, the principal is the
key person to initiate such services as being within his
sphere of responsibility. Locally, we subscribe to the
philosophy that the principal is the educational leader in
his building with freedom to initiate such action as might
provide external aid toward the solution of a situation. The
role of the principal, therefore, should be interpreted in
terms of its leadership. Two conditions of function need be
considered, namely, what is the actual or participating role
by which a principal expresses his leadership role and
secondly, what should the desired role be when viewed by
his peers.

By means of a questionnaire, the role of the prin-
cipal as the educational leader in his building was
appraised by fellow administrators upon a five point scale
of cooperativeness experienced over a period of time in pro-
viding staff service through principal and/or faculty par-
ticipation about continuing details of the curriculum. Table
23 portrays the distribution of responses compiled for the five

degrees of cooperativeness as understood by peers for the

principal under existing practices.

TABLE 23

Perceptions of Actual and Desired Functions of
Principals as Viewed by Administrators

	Actual		Desired	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Cooperation Unlimited	17	29.3	53	94.6
Cooperation Selective (or Partial Cooperation)	18	31.0	2	3.6
Permits Limited Access to Faculty	21	36.2	1	1.8
Minimal Cooperation	2	3.4	--	--
Cooperation Lacking	--	--	--	--
NUMBER	58	100.0	56	100.0

From this table, it can be seen that principals see

themselves as being fairly cooperative in working with

their staff, with only 3 per cent indicating minimal

cooperation. On the other hand, 29 per cent indicated that

they cooperated in an unlimited fashion with their staff

and another 31 per cent indicated that they had partial

cooperation with their staff. None of the administrators

indicated that cooperation was lacking between themselves

and their staff. Perhaps it is not surprising to find

that 60 per cent of the administrators graded themselves

relatively high in the area of cooperation. It might be

worth noting, however, that 36 per cent of the principals

saw themselves limiting their access to the faculty. The

reason this condition exists is purely speculative, but

it is possible that principals perceive the heavy burden

of other activities as being so pressing that they feel

they must limit their interaction with the staff and there-

fore, this results in less cooperation. On the other hand,

upon examination of the principals' perception of a desired

relationship in cooperation with the staff indicates over-

whelmingly that almost 95 per cent of the principals would

like to be fully cooperative with their staff. Apparently

principals have a strong desire to be fully cooperative

in their interactions with the staff.

The Role of Assistant Principals

While the role of the assistant principal may vary

within a particular building, it was necessary to qualify

his position in regards to responsibility in making decisions

on his own particularly in the absence of the senior prin-

cipal. Staff people often on call may work directly with

the assistant principal or will require decisions in the

absence of the senior principal. The role of the assistant

principal was appraised by fellow administrators as it

projected responsibility at the building level, especially

in assuming leadership for the guidance of staff services

under call to the building. Actual and desired roles of

the assistant principal are analyzed in Table 24.

TABLE 24

An Evaluation of Actual and Desired Responsibilities
of Assistant Principals

	Actual		Desired	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Responsibility Defined, Assumed	5	8.3	49	77.8
Partial Responsibility	15	25.0	9	14.3
Role Varied	28	46.7	5	7.9
Minimal Responsibility	3	5.0	--	--
Responsibility Unidentified; Limited Aid	9	15.0	--	--
NUMBER	60	100.0	63	100.0

An examination of this table indicates that almost

47 per cent of the respondents perceived the role of the

assistant principal as it related to central staff services

as being varied. However, this is not too surprising in

view of the fact that the responsibility of the assistant

principal is usually delegated by the principal. There-

fore, it is possible that the assistant principal not

only has some responsibility for curriculum but might

also be involved in such areas as attendance, discipline,

programming, and other such service. Unlike the principal,

who has defined responsibility within the administrative

structure, the assistant principal is usually faced with

performing tasks which were delegated to him by the prin-

cipal at times when the principal cannot perform these

tasks, thus providing for the varied role of the assistant

principal. On the other hand, almost 78 per cent of the

respondents indicated that it would be desirable to have

the responsibilities of the assistant principal well defined.

Perhaps this is a reflection on the part of the respondent

to the effect that some of the responsibility delegated to

the assistant principal might be performed as well by other

building personnel.

The responses of fellow administrators to the problem

of adequacy of stand-in for the senior principal indicated

much more concern for and fixation about the responsibility

to the title, assistant principal. It appears as if the

nature of the duties of the assistant principal should be

written at each building along with the interpretation of

the scope of the role as intended by the superintendent's

division at the central office.

The Role of Directors

The title of director in the Dearborn Public Schools

represents a two-fold purpose in the staff functions of

services correlating responsibility between the superin-

tendent's office and the individual school building. The

director supervises a department and a staff which provide

service usually through a system-wide activity that may

span a range of grades, kindergarten through junior college,

or a system-wide function stratified in one area of speciali-

zation but spanning several grades. The role of director

is of a system-wide function or of a vertical function

directing specialization at several grades. In some cases,

the director bears a line relationship to teachers or to

principals responsible for curricular activities. Direc-

torships exist within the Department of Psychological

Services, Department of Testing and Instructional Research

Department of Pupil Personnel and the Department of

Vocational Education. The director of a department is

available for services associated about his jurisdiction

as are individuals on his staff.

TABLE 25

An Evaluation of Responsibility and of Authority
of Directors as Viewed by Administrators

	Actual		Desired	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Responsibility Defined	3	4.5	64	92.8
Responsibility Partial	11	16.4	5	7.2
Responsibility Varied	39	58.2	--	--
Responsibility Vague	9	13.4	--	--
Responsibility Undefined	5	7.5	--	--
NUMBER	67	100.0	69	100.0

Table 25 presents the evaluation of fellow adminis-

trators to functions of the departmental services under

supervision of the directors. Due to the on-call nature

of the service and to the specialization within the service,

responsibility and authority are examined in the continuum

of work originating at the central office and terminating

within an individual building. Fifty-eight per cent of

the replies of fellow administrators indicate the actual

responsibility of the director to be partially defined in

roles of system-wide function of vertical function or of

line-staff relationships. In only 20 per cent of cases

was their responsibility defined. Through these data,

one may assume a need exists for description of positions

in relation to performance of duty beyond the confines of

the central office. When asked about clarification,

approximately 93 per cent of the respondents indicated a

desire for defined responsibility for directors. Apparently

a major gap exists between the actual function of the serv-

ices of a director and of the interpretation assumed by

other administrators. Such a description of the title

should clarify relationships to teachers, principals, and

other staff people. The basic difference between actual

responsibility and the desired suggests a lack of knowledge

of the scope of assignments as they merge a service within

a division of labor about which other staff people or

principals may inadequately fix a course of action. Often

times, a team of individuals organized about a problem may

fail to appreciate or recognize the guiding role of the

administrator in case.

A reaction to qualities of authority possessed by

directors indicates in Table 26 a much more negative inter-

pretation of that role.

TABLE 26

Perceptions of Authority of Directors
as Viewed by Administrators

	Actual		Desired	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Authority Defined	2	3.4	60	92.3
Authority Partial	8	13.8	5	7.7
Authority Varied	25	43.1	--	--
Authority Vague	14	24.1	--	--
Authority Undefined	9	15.5	--	--
NUMBER	58	100.0	65	100.0

Only 17 per cent of the replies of fellow administrators

specified the actual role of the director to be defined.

The majority, 43 per cent, say it is only partially defined,

while about 40 per cent of administrators indicate the

authority of the directors is vague or undefined. When

asked about desired function, 92 per cent expressed a wish

for clarity of definition.

Authority in this instance would mean the right to initiate, move, follow through, or assume responsibility for one's duty beyond the central office particularly in relation to operational procedures within a building. Authority would tend to delimit on-call service obligations and instead would permit leadership in the role assigned. Access to a building would be on an informal basis with initiative resting upon the director.

The Role of Coordinators

A coordinator is assigned a specialist role in the team of individuals comprising the central staff. Assignments often follow a grade sequence, hence a person may function within a level as the primary school but may be a resource person or consultant at other levels of staff function. Coordinators are specialists in the curriculum procedures of reading, English, arithmetic, social studies, art, music, physical education, special education and other areas. Their role is related to ongoing activities of the classroom and as such, requires building and classroom obligations to outcomes of the curriculum, particularly where development is assigned to various individuals either

in a building or system-wide. Coordinators are usually on
call and maintain a vertical function in their duties.
Separate coordinators often have fixed responsibilities
within the primary schools, the elementary schools, the
junior high schools, or within the senior high schools.
Their responsibility focuses directly upon the needs of
teachers.

The reactions of fellow administrators to the actual
and to the desired responsibility role of coordinators is
given in Table 27.

The actual services of coordinators as they relate
to the responsibility of other administrators likewise
responsible for system-wide function of service indicates
indecision about the overlap or consideration of leadership
which should enter into problem solving. As practiced at
present, 49 per cent of the respondents expressed feelings
that the responsibility of coordinators is partially defined.
About 30 per cent of fellow administrators stated that the
responsibility of coordinators was vague or undefined. Of
the replies to desired function, 85 per cent wished a
clarification of responsibility in the relation of coor-
dinators to themselves or their office.

TABLE 27

Perceptions of Responsibility of Coordinators
as Viewed by Administrators

	Actual		Desired	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Responsibility Defined	3	5.1	52	85.2
Responsibility Partial	9	15.2	8	13.1
Responsibility Varied	29	49.2	1	1.6
Responsibility Vague	13	22.0	--	--
Responsibility Undefined	5	8.5	--	--
NUMBER	59	100.0	61	100.0

The reactions of fellow administrators to situations of authority of coordinators is contained in Table 28.

Only 2 per cent of the administrators accepted the role of the coordinator as being defined, with another 14 per cent seeing the role as being partially defined. Of the remainder of the reactions, 41 per cent placed the actual authority of coordinators as being varied, 26 per cent indicated that the authority was vague, and 17 per cent responded that authority was undefined. It is apparent

TABLE 28

Perceptions of Authority of Coordinators
as Viewed by Administrators

	Actual		Desired	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Authority Defined	1	1.7	52	85.2
Authority Partial	8	13.8	8	13.1
Authority Varied	24	41.4	1	1.6
Authority Vague	15	25.9	--	--
Authority Undefined	10	17.2	--	--
NUMBER	58	100.0	61	100.0

from this table that the coordinators function in a con-
sultant relationship. This is evident by the responses

of the administrators that the authority is not clearly

defined. In this relationship, one would hope that the

function is devoid of authority and that the consultant

is working on a cooperative basis with a school staff.

These data apparently reflect this position accurately.

When asked to indicate the desired authority level

of the coordinator, 85 per cent of the respondents noted

that the authority level should be more clearly defined.

It is difficult to understand this position in view of the

professional literature in the area, which indicates that consultants should not be vested with authority. However, it is possible that the administrators could see the consultant as possessing a high degree of specialization and knowledge in a specific area and assume that the role should carry with it more authority. Another possible explanation is that in some school systems, central office personnel are vested with a great deal of authority and knowing this might have influenced the responses of these administrators.

Here again the inter-relationship of services to the organizational pattern of administration needs to be amplified through the functional role of the staff persons involved. Since recommendations have to be made in the course of responsibility, an understanding of the potential role of each administrator must be known. This is particularly true of central staff people relating themselves to teachers and to principals already under leadership and under organization within a building which staff people service.

CHAPTER V

REACTIONS OF STUDY GROUPS

In the total plan of evaluating the administrative

structure of the Dearborn Public Schools, citizens were

given the opportunity to react to problems and practices

of education and supervision in the Dearborn Public

Schools. Representatives of various civic and educational

groups in the city were selected by their constituents and

were appointed as members of committees to discuss problems

relating to the objectives of the evaluation. To maintain

a balance of experience and thinking, parents, teachers,

principals, and central staff personnel were organized

into sixteen committees. An attempt was made to organize

each committee in such a way so that it was representative

of the community. It was for this reason that citizens

as well as educators were a part of each functioning group.

Furthermore, the variety of members on each committee pro-

vided an opportunity for a high degree of interaction.

The study groups were each composed of twelve to fifteen members. In addition, resource people were placed on call and also on a visitation schedule. Among the resource people were the superintendent of schools; a specialist in educational administration from the State Department of Education; two professors of educational administration at State Universities; the Deputy Superintendent of Instruction; and the Supervisor of the Department of Public Relations. The recorder and chairman of each committee reviewed and summarized the discussions which were later compiled with others and then circulated among the participants.

The steering committee, in proposing problems for study by citizens, considered the roles which lay participants contribute to the educational problems under study. Certainly, one of the roles of a citizen is that of an interested observer. This interest may take a variety of forms. For one thing, this observer may be a parent with children in school. As a citizen, he may be called upon to make a place in society for the products of the school. For another, this observer may be required to make intelligent choices for his representatives on the school board.

In addition, a layman serving on the committee may also
be confronted with his role as a taxpayer since he has to
recognize the diversity of services needed to effectively
promote the realization of student purposes within the
classroom. With these considerations in mind and a
desire to tap the thinking of the citizenry, questions
were structured which involved implications for the evalua-
tion of the curriculum, for the maintenance of instructional
specialists, for the recognition of administrative procedure,
and for intelligent decision making.

The nature of this chapter is to present the essence
of the discussions of the study groups. Unlike Chapter IV,
the data in this chapter were not collected systematically.
That is, the responses, herein reported, were not derived
from structured instruments and thus do not lend themselves
to quantitative analysis. The value of this chapter is
that it represents the feelings of a variety of people who
have had the opportunity to react to vital educational
issues as these relate to the local public schools.

Issues for Discussion

The issues which were discussed by the study groups,
to be related in this portion of the chapter, will not be

treated in any sequential order. It is assumed that the
ideas presented here represent the feelings of the public
rather than those of the profession.

Instructional Program

One of the questions asked was: "Do you believe all
Dearborn schools should basically have the same instruc-
tional program, recognizing the necessity for tailoring
such a program to a given school area?" The responses of
the study groups indicated an acceptance of the philosophy
that instructional materials need to be fitted to student
needs characteristic of a given school area. The basic
subject matter should form the common medium for satis-
fying the needs of youngsters within our contemporary,
technological culture. This appears to be an endorsement
of the current programs in English, reading, general
mathematics, general science, and social studies. These
areas are viewed as a cultural heritage essential to the
functional and preliminary requisites of good citizenship.

Along with the affirmative responses, recommendations
were also made for variations and extensions of curricular
practices to meet student differences as they would occur
at the junior and at the senior high school levels about
factors of interest, mental ability, social environment,

occupational choices, and elective subjects. Such considerations would be reflected in the program through permanent provisions and objectives. Some specific suggestions for planning about these needs were made. According to the study groups, the secondary level apparently requires considerable differentiation of its program to meet the socio-economic and the aspirational levels of the students within a school and between areas of the city. Such planning requires a broad range of subject matter, particularly vested with vocational preparation and with occupational placement at the termination of the twelfth grade of schooling. Such preparation should be available to both boys and girls. Vocational guidance, school-work experience, and job placement appear to be ongoing needs for the non-college bound students.

The committee members, when challenged about the nature of the curriculum for the community, indicated a responsibility to improve the philosophy and the objectives on a system-wide bases. The citizens were knowledgeable of the characteristics of the community and in their discussions indicated an obligation to be fully informed concerning the operation of the public schools. They expressed a desire for reciprocal school-home communication

with special attention being given to information about

education and a knowledge of pupil needs. The key role

of the parent in this cooperative effort is that of being

informed and of being a participant in the ongoing processes

of education.

Some committees offered suggestions about maintaining

continuity of communications particularly about the cur-

ricular practices underway. The study groups revealed an

awareness of the impracticality of obtaining citizen sup-

port on all educational issues. Some positive approaches

to citizen participation were suggested by the groups.

These were: a preference for specific information over

general information given by school officials; the prin-

cipal is in the best position to answer many questions;

the PTA is an effective agency for communication; educators

should welcome, rather than resent, the aid which citizens

can give about many issues; the citizen should help main-

tain high morale among school personnel while the schools

should place trust in the citizens; school study groups

be organized around a school area or PTA advisory groups;

school study groups can carry responsibility around a

school for major issues as school needs, millage, and

bond; school study groups can assume public relations chores.

Staff Specialists

Another question that the committees reacted to was:
"Should the Dearborn schools maintain a staff of instruc-
tional specialists for the following purposes: improvement
of the program, improvement of teaching, coordination of
the program?" As a layman assumes the challenge of under-
standing and improving education through the qualities of
the program, he encounters many facets of service which
involve personnel with sundry duties of administration or
of instructional specialization. Instructional personnel
function as a team assuming a division of tasks or of
specialization about the problems of teachers and of teach-
ing, about the nature and the end purposes of the programs,
and about the coordination of personnel who relate to
problems in varying degrees of responsibility. For example,
the revision of the arithmetic program within grades 4-6
involved teachers, principals, central office personnel
such as: the coordinator for primary instruction, the
coordinator for elementary instruction, the director of
testing and research, and the supervisor of textbooks.
It was apparent that the lay people in the committees were
handicapped by a lack of knowledge of the training and
abilities of a curriculum person and a clear understanding

of the role this person plays in the instructional program.

Some qualifications to the affirmative responses were made by seven of the eight committees reporting. Three committees accepted the need to maintain a staff of instructional specialists but could not distinguish between the roles of specialists and of generalists without additional study. This viewpoint was merely a finer appraisal rather than a criticism and projected the need for both generalists and specialists as service personnel of the classroom. One committee member commented on this issue--"The superintendent is in the best position to determine the nature of the staff."

Five additional committees endorsed the services of the central staff as requisite to improving and coordinating the educational program. With an enrollment of 21,000 students in grades K-12, half of whom are in the elementary schools and half of whom are in the secondary schools, the coordination of the curriculum in 31 schools becomes a major challenge to professional efficiency. Endorsement of the staff services were of several sorts and degrees of function. One group, for example, recommended some line responsibility for the specialists. Another committee emphasized staff service as a medium for improving instruction. Several others recommended a planned approach to

the responsibilities of staff personnel coordinated about needs of the central office.

The responses of all committees were in agreement about the staff plan for promoting education within the specialized and generalized areas of experiences vested in personnel. The immensity of the task suggests a central office program about which divisions of the curriculum are attached to a representative who can either assume responsibility or who can initiate and bring to bear resources for the solution of a problem. Such a staff member must represent himself and his service on committees or may have to, at times, represent other authority in committee roles.

One committee, while accepting the principle of individualizing instruction as necessary within a grade level, expressed dissatisfaction with the junior high school in the 6-3-3 plan and suggested instead an 8-4 organization. While this is an individual response, it suggests perhaps an exploration of problems which may be inherent in the 6-3-3 program with intent of ascertaining scope and weakness, if any, of the grades 7, 8, and 9 grouping of students.

"Should the schools maintain a staff of instructional specialists?" The general reaction of the citizens was: "Yes, with an endorsement of present staff or organization with some degree of line function added."

Principle, Research, and Practice

To what degree should decisions in educational matters be based upon principle and research, as opposed to opinion and pressure? This question was put to the committees. Two dimensions of the above question must be considered, since the responses of the committees were based on the objective principle of research methods as a desirable requisite to sound educational practice as opposed to pressure groups influencing the decision-making process. Seven of eight groups replied that all decisions should be established upon principle, research, and practice as opposed to opinion and pressure.

Two committees concerned themselves with the influence of pressure upon members of the Board of Education as well as upon other school officials. While recognizing a place and outlet for honest and intelligent opinion, these two groups expressed resentment of pressure tactics and feel-ings about Board members or administrators who are unable

to resist minority group pressures. Their solution to
this recurring problem is to invest in the school super-
intendent authority to administer his office without
improper interference from the Board of Education or from
minority pressure groups.

Decision-making based upon techniques and sources of
research such as experimentation, reviews of professional
literature, committee assignments, in-service preparation,
and national needs and trends provide the citizens with
information of obligations assumed by a school system if
it is to maintain status and leadership in education. The
citizen, if he is to be informed, must first associate
himself with educational programs in the area wherein he
resides and secondly, he must orient himself with the
educational program of the entire community. Often in
thinking and participating about school issues, involvement
is limited to activities in a local PTA. However, the
general objectives of programs are structured for students
in the entire community and obligations to the realization
of these must be pre-planned on an area and city-wide basis.
Communications, as requested by citizens, should disclose
the nature and approaches to the scope of educational
programs within the city. The citizen must assume an

obligation to know about educational activities in the
entire school system, rather than to be only acquainted
with the instructional program of one school. Communica-
tions between the school and the home should involve the
breadth of service associated with the development of
programs. As requested, communications should be specific
as well as general; they should be continuous and sequential.

The citizens again reiterated their position for a
strong executive office entrusted to the superintendent
through a structure and chain of command deemed most
necessary to the promotion of efficient administration of
programs and of personnel. The competition to this office
by persons of groups, internal and external to the school
system, desiring independent decisions by circumventing
central authority, introduces violations of policy and of
communication and planning to the degree that goals of
education often become displaced by secondary issues. One
study group reported its stand in the following committee
report:

> It is the unanimous and strong conviction of our
> discussion group that the Dearborn Board of
> Education and school system are failing in their
> duties to all because of lack of courage and
> judgment in bowing to minority pressure groups.
> The school superintendent, as chief executive
> officer, should have adequate authority to

administer without improper interference from
the Board of Education or minority pressure
groups.

Philosophy and Objectives

"What are your reactions to philosophy and objectives

of education as developed by the Dearborn staff and citizens

as well as to conclusions of the White House Conference?"

The committee members prior to the meeting were furnished

with copies of the philosophy and objectives of education

as developed by the local staff. In addition, conclusions

of the recent White House Conference on Education and

Child Welfare were made available to all participants as

evidence of national issues influencing local education.

The exposure of citizens to the details of curriculum

development was deemed essential for appraising the ultimate

purposes of classroom programs. The philosophy of educa-

tion for the Dearborn Public Schools provided an orientation

for the citizens to the outcomes of the curriculum as pro-

posed through the:

1. Importance of the fundamental skills in the
   entire program of classwork.

2. Development of physical and mental health of
   pupils.

3. Cultivation of the ideals of democracy.

4. Needs of students as identified by differences.

5. Vocational planning and preparation.

6. Avocational interests and activities of the school program.

7. Problem solving and critical thinking opportunities of the classroom.

8. Citizenship practices of the school.

9. Knowledge of humanities and cultures as they enriched our lives.

The challenge of curriculum analysis on behalf of citizens indicated a lack of readiness for such an assignment on the basis of time and previous knowledge of curriculum. It is doubtful whether a citizen can interpret the meaning of education by himself or to others unless he can identify himself with the end results and the process of education. In view of these factors, the schools apparently must assume the responsibility to illustrate, and define the nature of programs at different levels of education for various areas of the city.

Three study groups lacked time to study the philosophies and objectives of the Dearborn Public Schools and therefore made no comments. Three of the five remaining groups subscribed to the principles of philosophy and of the inherent objectives defined for the local curriculum. One of these

groups praised the democratic principle stressed in the statements of philosophy. The two remaining groups agreed that the objectives were excellent. However, the groups were a little concerned about the attainment and the implementation of them. This viewpoint relates to the organization of the entire program through the identification and understanding of the objectives by the central office staff and by the individual building facilities. Through teams and committees the procedure involves the formulatory experiences which are directly related to the control of teaching aids which enrich the learning processes, and the evaluation of outcomes which are the end purposes of our philosophy.

Problems of Administrative Organization

"As a citizen what are the chief problems of administrative organization in the Dearborn schools?" Opinions related to this question were solicited. The scope of the question naturally introduces a variety of experiences and thinking about the problem of education in a city of more than 100,000 population. As validation of responses, a question arose, "Can some common ideas be obtained which provide assurance that issues are basic to the administra-

tion of the schools?" Three committees did reveal a
common problem. These groups agreed that the superin-
tendent should be given more freedom in the administration
and authority of his position in dealing with problems con-
sidered to be under his jurisdiction which too often appear
elsewhere. This comment recognized the effect upon educa-
tion and upon administration locally of pressure groups,
the position of the Board of Education in its obligation
to all citizens, and the position of educational groups
in presenting their problems to the Board. Apparently,
these groups felt that the superintendent and perhaps
other staff personnel were being pressured or limited in
the function of their office.

Three additional study groups revealed, in part or
in total, the need for clarification of the duties, func-
tions, and responsibilities of administrative personnel.
This clarification would concentrate upon title, specific
duties, range of service, extent of authority, and type
of authority. Here, again, the line-staff service rela-
tionships between all administrators was considered by
the group. Initiative, specialization, and time allotment
are inherent the function and duties of the administrator.
Apparently these groups felt that further clarification

of the administrative function would alleviate the problem.

Several individual problems were also discovered in
the reports of the groups aside from those already sum-
marized in this section. One group criticized the frequency
of staff meetings as detracting from carrying out the duties
assigned. This same group also felt that principals dis-
couraged citizen participation within their attendance
areas.

The public relations program for the citizen was
emphasized as a must in the community. A desire was voiced
by one group for information about the ongoing programs and
services of the staff and of the schools. Such a suggestion
would be considered as an educational plan and would allow
for participation by the layman. The request of citizens
for specific knowledge and illustrations of curricular
practices appears to set a new format for the public rela-
tions function in the city as a whole. The informational
and publishing aspect can be centrally located. The
special problem, however, of interpreting objectives, devis-
ing subject matter content, evaluating effectiveness, revis-
ing and adjusting subjects in sequence demands on-the-spot
illustration of procedures. The success of promoting a
broad concept of professional activity would place the

individual school in the critical responsibility for plan-

ning and reaching its citizens. This would mean that all

administrative levels would be involved in presenting to

the citizens an understanding of on-going scheme of planned

events. Techniques for structuring such an in-service

program for citizens also need exploration.

Request for Further Suggestions

The last question posed to the committees was: "What

suggestion do you have to offer for the remainder of the

self-study and for the next meeting of school personnel

and of citizens?" All groups desired more study time to

acquaint themselves with problems of educational procedure.

The time consideration would involve a discussion of issues

in committee prior to recommending them as concerns to the

administration. The request for additional time did, how-

ever, disclose the interests of several groups about pro-

blems already discussed in this chapter. One group wished

to know the thinking of other groups. Another wished to

study the delegation of authority and responsibility for

carrying through a service. Some members raised the ques-

tion of whether or not the curricular offerings in grades

9-12 were adequate to meet the needs of the community.

In addition, a group desired information from teachers and from parents about the problems summarized herein.

Summary

The order of questions as presented in this chapter is random rather than preferential. Perhaps it might be well to examine the results as being indicative of the attention which must be given to the organization affecting the superintendent's position in dealing directly with problems under his authority rather than with sundry persons who independently usurp the role of school authority. Research and objective evidence should give direction to problem solving rather than to independent action, pressure organization, or circumvention of authority. It is believed that the morale of the school system is directly attributable to rapport with and respect for authority.

There is respect on behalf of citizens for the philosophy and objectives of education as cooperatively developed by the entire staff of the Dearborn Public Schools. The citizens desired to know much more directly about objectives of the Dearborn Public Schools as they pertain to needs of children. The citizens likewise accept and recognize the necessity for adjusting education to the differences among students as

they assert themselves by area, home, culture, and aspiration. Accepted as a natural principle of individual differences, professional staffs will have to assume the responsibility for continual evaluation and revision of objectives particularly as designated by subject matter content as vested in the nature of the community. In this respect, an ongoing program of information to the public is essential.

The responsibility for improvement and coordination of the educational program is fixed in the central staff office. Specialists roles and board responsibilities permit access to varied problems within levels of function. Involved in these services are programs of reading, arithmetic, social science, English, library needs, audio-visual aids, music, art, psychological services, visiting teachers, mentally and physically limited children, testing, health education, nursing, evaluation and research. In a school population of 21,000 students, specialist duties can be absorbed with demands for more service than is made available. The background of citizens about roles of central staff members is vague as to the nature of service ascribed to specialized personnel. The individual PTA groups might well include an orientation meeting about the roles of staff members.

There is a readiness among the citizens to maintain
communication with the schools about diverse problems of
financing, curriculum, philosophy, and community needs.
Programs of information about such issues should be pre-
planned and continuous.

On the following pages, the responses of citizens are
summarized to permit insight separately into administrative
and curricular concepts of responsibility as discussed
during the committee sessions. Broad categories of problems
and of discussions are outlined in order to plan an educator-
citizen approach to them beyond the limits of this admin-
istrative study. The majority of reports present recommenda-
tions to educators, to members of the Board of Education,
and to fellow citizens. The school will have to stimulate
citizen activity for the solution of such problems.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to determine the need

for a change in the administrative structure of a middle-

sized city school system. More specifically this study was

an attempt to find answers to the following questions:

1. Would a change in the administrative organizational
   structure lead to more effective communication
   between superintendent and staff?

2. Would a change in the administrative organizational
   structure lead to more effective communication
   between the school system and the community?

3. Would a change in the administrative organizational
   structure provide the opportunity to better meet
   the needs of the students?

4. Would a change in the administrative organizational
   structure encourage and permit flexibility in cur-
   riculum planning for individual school units within
   the system?

5. Would a change in the administrative organizational
   structure develop more realistic and effective super-
   vision of the school program?

6. Would a change in the administrative organizational
   structure lead to better implementation of the
   philosophy, goals, and objectives of the school system?

7. Would a change in the administrative organizational structure facilitate greater vertical articulation in the educational process?

8. Would a change in the administrative organizational structure encourage and permit emphasis on community school concepts?

9. Would a change in the administrative organizational structure promote educational professional leadership and responsibility on the school unit level?

10. Can professional and lay persons work together on a study of educational significance pertaining to a local school system?

Procedure

The data for this study were obtained from administrative officers and selected members of the following groups: teachers, non-instructional employees, and citizens. The project was designed as a self-study in the hope that if the staff and community were to be involved in the design and procedures for carrying out the study, then it could be expected that there would be a high level of commitment and that the process itself would be a beginning in whatever changes would eventuate from this study.

To initiate the self-study a committee of 16 members was established by the superintendent. This committee was composed of the superintendent and other administrative officers in addition to four consultants from universities

and the State Department of Education. This committee

engaged itself in two major activities. First, compiling

a reading list or periodicals, books, and pamphlets related

to educational administration and second, to discuss the

roles of the teacher, specialists, board member, elementary

principal, junior high school principal, senior high school

principal, lay citizen, non-instructional personnel and the

superintendent.

In time this committee recognized the need and value

of other points of view and so the committee was increased.

New members on the committee were selected to represent

opinions other than those of the administrative staff.

Thus, additional members included an elementary teacher,

a junior high school teacher, senior high school teacher,

community college teacher, board member, building engineer,

school secretary, and a member of the Citizens Educational

Advisory Committee. This committee began to function as

the steering committee for the self-study.

The steering committee, thus composed, began the hard

work of conducting the self-study. The agreement to engage

in small work groups representing diverse elements of a

community is one of the more significant developments of

the project. It was at this point that the professional

staff and the community were brought together to work cooperatively. The professional staff and the community were not brought in to be told what was to be done, but were given the opportunity to actively participate in a cooperative venture.

Each of the work groups, although not meeting simultaneously, were involved in similar activities. Following a series of introductory remarks by the superintendent and the consultants, the work groups had the opportunity to hear a keynote speaker covering several issues in administration. Each of the representative groups handled topics such as: What are the main weaknesses of our administrative structure that generally hinder the promotion of the best interests of children? What are the conditions or hurdles that hinder my effectiveness in promoting the best interests of children? What administrative changes should be considered in order to improve our effectiveness in promoting the best interests of children? Another work group examines such questions as: What are the purposes of these services? What is the role of the teacher in using these services? What are the chief problems of the administrative organization in making these services available?

Following this activity the reports of the work groups
were submitted to the steering committee for review. The
steering committee presented for discussion to the committee-
at-large, which consisted of all the members of the work
groups, the topics which were discussed by the work groups.
Following the discussion session, the committee-at-large
was again broken down into working groups. Each work group
consisted of representatives from the Board of Education,
the community, the administration and the teaching staff.
Each of these work groups were then asked to discuss such
questions as: What are your reactions to the philosophy,
objectives and program of the Dearborn Public Schools?
What roles do you feel should be played by citizens, Board
of Education, superintendent, and line associates, staff
specialists, building or administrators, teachers, non-
instructional supervisory staff, and non-instructional per-
sonnel?

The data obtained from the self-study and the basis
for this dissertation were obtained from two sources. First,
the entire population of the administrative staff were asked
to complete a questionnaire. These questionnaires were
tabulated and analyzed by the use of descriptive statistics.
This second type of data represented herein are the reactions

of study groups to educational issues which were posed to
them in a series of work group meetings. Their responses,
not derived from structured instruments, do not lend them-
selves to quantitative analysis. Both types of data,
however, had a part in answering the following questions.

Perhaps the greatest contribution of this study is
not what resulted in the form of concrete and specific
evidence, but rather the process that was employed. It
would be impossible to separate the process from the product,
yet there are many who would overlook the process. The
point which cannot be made too strongly is that the strength
of the study lies in the process, because the process made
possible the results.

Summary and Conclusions

1. Would a change in the administrative organizational
   structure lead to more effective communication
   between superintendent and staff?

Administrators indicated that under the present
pyramidal structure, communication was not very effective.
This can be seen in Table 15 where administrators evaluated
themselves in regard to the line function as it relates to
communication. Here it can be seen that 30 per cent of
the administrators replied that communication was continu-

ous or select. However, the large majority, about 54 per cent, considered communications as intermittent without indication as to why they answered this way. An additional 13 per cent indicated that communication was limited. Thus 67 per cent of the administrators indicated that communication was intermittent or limited while almost 3 per cent indicated that communication did not exist at all. This finding is supported in Table 20 which examines the self-evaluation of administrators in regard to the staff function as it relates to administration. Here it can be noted that there is almost no change from the evidence contained in Table 15. As documented in Table 7 through 12, administrators in the Dearborn Public Schools prefer a flat administrative structure to one that is pyramidal in shape. Although communication, as referred to in this study, was not associated with any one individual or any one department, there seems to be a need for a structure which will encourage more adequate communication and perhaps through fewer persons.

2. Would a change in the administrative organizational structure lead to more effective communication between the school system and the community?

It was pointed out in relation to the preceding question, the reactions of administrators as presented in

Tables 15 and 20 indicate that in general the total picture

as it relates to the communications within the Dearborn

Schools appears to be somewhat vague and in need of improve-

ment. Citizens response indicated that currently a lag

exists in communication and the need to intensify the

channels of communication and to perhaps add a person to

the staff who would have this as his primary function.

It is clearly indicated that both professional staff

and citizens feel a need for better communication. Any

change in the administrative structure must be cognizant

of the need for understandable, direct, effective communi-

cation. The citizens expressed desire for reciprocal

school-home communication with special attention being

given to information about education and the knowledge of

the pupils' needs would seem to point in the direction of

a perceived change in this particular area.

3. Would a change in the administrative structure
   provide the opportunity to better meet the needs
   of the students?

In Table 17, administrators evaluated themselves in

regard to the line function as it relates to pupil needs.

It was noted in that table that approximately 55 per cent

of the administrators felt that the pupils' needs were

consistently met or well met while approximately 43 per

cent replied that pupil needs were partially met. Table 22

presents information of student needs as evaluated by the

administrators in regard to the staff function. There are

no significant differences between this table and Table 17.

This information coupled with the information in Table 24

relating to the actual and desired responsibilities of the

assistant principals indicate that although the needs of

the pupils are being at least partially met, many adminis-

trators feel that the responsibility of the assistant prin-

cipal should be more sharply defined. If the assistant

principal is responsible for the curriculum, then certainly

some definition of his responsibility could result in the

needs of the pupils being better met. Almost the same

kind of data appear in Table 27 which relates to the respon-

sibility of the coordinator or coordinators. Here again

almost 85 per cent of the administrators felt that the

responsibility of the coordinators should be better defined.

Once again the coordinator functions in a staff relation-

ship in the area of curriculum which could have a bearing

on how well the needs of the pupils are met.

It appears from the evidence that the needs of the

pupils could be better met by a more well defined area of

responsibility. This does not necessarily imply the need

for a change of the organizational structure.

4. Would a change in the administrative organizational
   structure encourage and permit flexibility in cur-
   riculum planning for individual school units within
   the system?

Tables 1 through 6 analyze six related areas of ad-

ministration in terms of whether they are pyramidal or flat

in the present administrative pattern. Evidence presented

in these tables leads one to conclude that the organization

was perceived as being more flat than pyramidal when in

fact this was not the case.

The present administrative structure as documented

in Tables 1 through 6 indicate that administrators perceive

the existing administrative pattern to be flat. These per-

ceptions do not coincide with the administrative structure

of the Dearborn Schools which is pyramidal. The signifi-

cance of the differences between the percentages indicates

the perceptions that the total structure is more flat than

pyramidal rather than is being largely flat. In addition,

these perceptions veer away from the pyramidal effect

wherein central office personnel and line deputies limit

the functions of the principals and teachers. In general,

the function of staff people is projected upon the autonomy

and the need of the classrooms through a broad diffusion of

specialist services and a minimum of line authority.

Tables 7 through 12 explore the preferences of administration regarding the structure of the school system in the administrative pattern. Here it was found that administrators indicate a preference for the flat structure in opposition to the pyramidal. Table 8 in particular examines the preferences of administrators regarding the degree of autonomy given to schools. It can be seen in this table that 97 per cent of the administrators desire the flat rather than the pyramidal type of structure. However, Tables 13 through 22, which ask the administrators to evaluate themselves in regard to line and staff functions as it relates to various dimensions of the administrative organization, indicate that a less adequate job is being done than they would desire, as indicated by Tables 7 through 12.

Although the reasons for this feeling were not readily apparent, it is probable that building principals perceive themselves as having a great degree of autonomy when administering the individual school and functioning in their responsibility to students. It is evident, however, that a change in administrative organizational structure, if one is to occur, would have to be such that the remaining

<u>49 per cent of the administrators would have the same feeling</u>

<u>regarding their autonomy and flexibility in curriculum plan-</u>

<u>ning.</u>

5. Would a change in the administrative organizational
   structure develop more realistic and effective super-
   vision of the school program?

In the area of administrative cooperation in supervision

several situations were evident. Principals saw themselves

as being fairly cooperative with their staffs, with only 3

per cent indicating minimal cooperation. Sixty per cent of

the administrators graded themselves relatively high in the

area of cooperation. However, it is worth noting that 36 per

cent of the principals saw themselves limiting their access

to the faculty. At the same time it was noted that 95 per

cent of the principals indicated that they would like to be

fully cooperative in their interactions with their staff.

(Table 24--an evaluation of the role of the assistant prin-

cipal--indicated that only 8 per cent felt that the role was

defined.) Another 25 per cent felt that it was partially

defined and an even larger group of 47 per cent felt that

the assistant principalship had a varied role.

Another group of central office administrators were

evaluated in relationship to supervision. Other responses,

only 4.5 per cent, found the responsibility and authority

well defined. The next two groups representing 16 and 58

per cent of the respondents found the description partially

defined or with varied responsibility respectively. When

asked about clarification, approximately 93 per cent of the

respondents indicated a desire for defined responsibility

for directors (Table 25). Apparently a major gap exists

between the actual function of the services of a director

and the interpretation assumed by other administrators. Such

a description of the title should clarify relationships to

teachers, principals and other staff people.

A final group of central office administrators having

responsibility for curriculum and supervision were the

coordinators. Perceptions of respondents indicated that

49 per cent felt that the responsibility of the coordinator

was varied. Another 30 per cent felt that the responsibility

of the coordinator was either vague or undefined. When asked

what was desired in this instance, 85 per cent of the respond-

ents indicated that the responsibility should be more clearly

defined.

It is clear that in order to develop a more realistic

and effective supervision network, <u>roles have to be spelled

out and the relationships between line and staff have to be

better understood</u>. It is also evident that authority and

responsibility for these areas need to be more specifically

defined and noted.

6. Would a change in the administrative organizational
   structure lead to better implementation of the
   philosophy, goals, and objectives of the school
   system?

Administrators in a preference rating of authority

levels indicate that 94 per cent of them desire a largely

flat type of organizational structure. Almost 97 per cent

of the administrators indicated that they would prefer more

flat or largely flat type of structure as it relates to the

autonomy given to the schools (Table 8). In fact, in most

of the areas covered by Tables 7 through 12, where adminis-

trators were asked their preference in terms of the type of

structure, the flat or more flat than pyramidal categories

were given by 80 to 90 per cent of the respondents in every

single instance.

It would not be unrealistic to assume that the philosophy,

goals and objectives of the school system are shared by

administrators at all levels as well as teachers. It is

also realistic to expect that people who feel that they are

given more responsibility or authority and autonomy can do

a better job in carrying out the objectives of the school.

Therefore, it would appear that a change in the administrative

organizational structure would lead to better implementation

of the philosophy, goals, and objectives of the school

system.

7. Would a change in the administrative organizational
   structure facilitate greater vertical articulation
   in the educational process?

Responses from administrators were consistent in indicating the need for more clarity in both the line and staff positions. There seemed to be recognition of the responsibility which went along with the decision-making process of the principal. There also seemed to be general agreement that staff personnel were specialists and as such could function best in a staff relationship. Directors were understood to provide service in the area of curriculum vertically. It was felt that while line officers must be concerned with the diversity of educational problems which include curriculum teacher selection, discipline, in-service training and other functions, the staff administrators are more directly faced with meeting pupil needs.

The lack of definition of responsibility and authority perceived by the administrators and the desire for these responsibilities to be defined more clearly indicate the need for administrative reorganization.

8. Would a change in the administrative organizational
   structure encourage and permit emphasis on community
   school concepts?

Community school concepts can become a reality in a situation where the principal is the instructional leader and is given the authority and permission to make his school program fit the needs of both the pupils and the adults within that community.

Tables 7 through 10 indicate the preferences of administrators regarding the type of organization as it relates to authority levels, autonomy, relationship of administrators to students, and the responsibility of administrators. In these tables it can be seen that the administrators overwhelmingly desire a flat type of administrative structure in order to carry out their responsibilities, obligations. It would be reasonable to assume that if reorganization were to take place, <u>a flatter type of structure would provide the administrators with the autonomy and responsibility they would like and would make the community school more a reality than it is at present.</u>

9. Would a change in the administrative organizational structure promote educational, professional leadership, or responsibility on the school unit level?

In reference to two of the four areas which were analyzed --autonomy within the school building and responsibility of the principal to the educational program--these relate almost entirely to individual school buildings. The data indicate

that when principals and assistant principals discuss their

perceptions of individual schools, they perceive themselves

as having a modicum of autonomy in responsibility. However,

when they discuss systemwide decisions, they do not perceive

themselves in a similar position.

The purpose of the flat organization would be to provide

for the administration of elementary schools, junior high

schools, secondary schools, and the community college through

greater use at the individual building level. The principal

would have the responsibility to utilize all the resources

and services available to him to operate a successful educa-

tional program within a geographically defined area. Thus,

the preference of administrators for a flatter type of

organization would seem to indicate that a change in the

administrative organizational structure would promote educa-

tional professional leadership and responsibility on the

individual school level.

10. Would a change in the administrative organizational
    structure lead to more efficient use of central
    office personnel?

The system under study was still under the effects of

a strong systemwide department head organization. It was

revealing then to note that principals overwhelmingly perceive

the curriculum specialist (central office personnel) as

people performing a service rather than an administrative

function. In Table 6 almost 75 per cent of the administra-

tors perceive line officers as being generalists with broad

responsibility. Building principals as line administrators

perceived themselves to be generalists rather than specialists.

In addition to their administrative function, they would like

to see themselves as having the ability to provide leadership

in other educational areas, such as curriculum development,

evaluation, handling of discipline, teaching methods, and

in-service training. With this in mind, the best combination

for an educational team would be a unit control with principal

leadership and the effective use of consultants (specialists).

Thus it appears that <u>an administrative organizational change</u>

<u>would provide the type of educational team desired by adminis-</u>

<u>trators</u>.

11. Can professional and lay persons work together on a
    study of educational significance pertaining to a
    school system?

This study permitted the participation of nearly 200

professional and lay persons in varying degrees in capacities

as was pointed out earlier. In addition to the statistical

data gathered from the professional respondents, the reports

from the study groups indicate that:

1. Citizens indicated a responsibility to improve
   the philosophy and objectives on the schoolwide
   basis.

2. They were knowledgeable of the characteristics
   of the community and in their discussions
   indicated an obligation to be fully informed
   concerning the operation of the public schools.

3. They expressed a desire for school-home com-
   munication, with special attention being given
   to information about education and a knowledge
   of pupil needs.

4. They endorsed the services of a central staff
   as requisite to improving and coordinating the
   educational program.

5. Seven of the eight groups replying to a question
   relating to principle research and practice
   indicated that all decisions must be based on
   these factors as opposed to opinion and pressure.

6. They indicated that the citizen, if he is to be
   informed, must first associate himself with the
   educational program in the area in which he
   resides and secondly, he must orient himself with
   the educational program of the entire community.

It was evident throughout the study that although lay
people lacked a specific knowledge of the kinds of organiza-
tion and lacked depth in specific areas, there was little
conflict between administrators and teachers and lay people
regarding the over-all objectives and the implementation
of these objectives. Thus it would seem that there is little
doubt that professional and lay people can work together on
a study of educational significance.

Recommendations to the Board of Education

This study was carried out in an actual operating

situation with the purpose of meeting a need.

Therefore, it is logical that the outcome of the study

be translated into recommendations which should be acted

upon by the Board of Education and implemented by the adminis-

trative team. These recommendations follow in brief form.

1. The School District of the City of Dearborn shall be
   divided into three geographical areas for the purpose
   of the proposed administrative organization. Each
   area shall have elementary schools, junior high schools
   and at least one senior high school.

2. A line officer, known as Area Administrator, shall be
   appointed to head each area. The Area Administrator
   shall be directly responsible to the Superintendent.

3. The two current deputy positions shall be changed to
   staff positions with a service philosophy.

4. The current positions of directors and coordinators
   shall be reconstituted as consultants in their
   respective positions. They shall become service
   personnel, retaining line responsibility over their
   own staffs.

5. The position of principal as instructional leader
   in his school community shall be reaffirmed and
   he shall be responsible directly to the Area Adminis-
   trator.

6. The Superintendent shall establish a cabinet consist-
   ing of the Associate Superintendent for Business, the
   Associate Superintendent for Curriculum, and the four
   Area Administrators--calling in other central office
   personnel when and as needed. This group shall con-
   sider matters as referred by any of its members, but
   shall not be a voting body. Discussion shall provide

the basis for the Superintendent's decisions.

7. Each Area Administrator shall establish an Instructional Council in his own area with membership from the staff, administrators, and citizens of his community, as a means of implementing effective program changes.

8. A plan for presenting these administrative structure plans directly to the citizens of the school district shall be established.

9. A plan for an evaluation shall be provided for at the instituting of this plan.

Recommendations for Further Study

This study was undertaken for the purpose of analyzing the administrative procedures in a middle-sized city district and as a result of the findings to institute changes in the administrative pattern and procedures.

After this new pattern is set in motion, it would seem appropriate to initiate further studies which would answer the following questions:

1. A study of communications shall be made which would indicate the effectiveness of different forms relative to superintendent-staff relationship.

    a. Should he plan scheduled visits to 34 buildings?

    b. Are direct bulletins effective?

    c. Is the suggestion box or question box effective?

    d. Are area meetings, with all employees and the superintendent as speaker, effective?

e. Is a systemwide meeting with the superintendent as speaker effective?

f. Is there effective communication from and to the superintendent through the area administrator? What effect does the area administrator plan have as it relates to his having more or fewer opportunities to keep his finger on the pulse of the schools?

2. A study should be made to determine the most effective type of instructional council answering the following types of questions:

a. Should the membership be appointed or elected?

b. Should the membership be "interested and qualified citizens" or representatives of existing community organizations?

c. Should the area administrator act as chairman or be a member only?

d. Should the agenda be developed cooperatively?

e. Should the group be advisory or have the power of recommendations?

f. What relationship should it have to the Board of Education?

g. What effect would such a group have on the already established PTA's?

3. Study whether or not decentralization of line administrative functions implemented by the area administrative plan results in improvement of administrative functions and relationships.

a. Does the area plan result in improvement in interpretation and implementation of board policies and administrative rules and regulations?

b. Does the area plan result in improvement of
    the decision making process?

c. Does the area plan result in improvement of
    communication, both oral and written?

d. Does the area plan result in improvement of
    working relationships between the central
    office personnel and the rest of the staff?

e. Does the area plan result in the improvement
    of supervision?

f. Does the area plan result in the improvement
    of the instructional program?

g. Does the area plan result in the improvement
    of progress toward the community school con-
    cept?

h. What is the comparative cost of this plan in
    relationship to the typical administrative
    structure?

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APPENDIX

SUMMARY AND FREQUENCY OF RESPONSES OF CITIZENS
TO QUESTIONS OF ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION

A. The citizens' concepts of responsibility:

1. Obligation to PTA group, homeroom mothers, study
    committees, student activities, etc. (8)
2. Acquaintance with members of Board of Education,
    their work and capabilities. (5)
3. Knowledge and request of needs through home-school
    approach; inform other parents. (4)
4. Remain well informed and participate. (4)
5. Act as individual public relations representative
    or resource person for schools. (2)
6. Provide proper atmosphere. (2)
7. Cooperation for improvement of philosophy and
    objectives of education on community basis.
8. Discuss controversial issues at PTA.
9. Abide by majority decision.

B. The citizens' concepts of communications, publications,
    reporting:
1. They are too wordy; a lag exists.
2. Should contain plans and programs of administration.
3. A planned system necessary.
4. Add a professional person to relation's staff.
5. Need a communication medium as "report card."
6. Need more pamphlets, open houses, viewing of day
    to day operations.
7. Provisions made for function of public relations
    center.
8. Intensify channels of communication.
9. Boil down reports.

C. Concepts of parent, teacher, school relationship:

1. Schools should retain trust, aid, confidence of
    parents. (3)
2. Principal can answer many questions.
3. Improve parent-school rapport.
    a. At the junior high and senior high school
        levels.
    b. Welcome parental participation.

   c. Students fail to carry information home.
   d. PTA lag in upper grades.
   e. Teachers more available for parents.

D. Concepts of citizen-board member relationship:

   1. Retain interest in activities, meetings, etc.
   2. Abide by majority decisions.
   3. Make tape recordings of Board of Education meetings.
   4. Citizen delegates to the Board through the superintendent.
   5. Board should function to benefit whole society.
   6. Obtain best possible meetings.
   7. The citizen is final authority and should be part of the schools.
   8. Know histories and platforms of Board members.
   9. Attitudes of Board members and administration should improve.

SUMMARY AND FREQUENCY OF RESPONSES OF CITIZENS TO QUESTIONS OF CURRICULUM ORGANIZATION

A. Do you believe all Dearborn Schools should basically have the same instructional program, recognizing the necessity for tailoring such a program to a given school area?

   1. Yes, with variations for localities, student personnel especially at high school level. (6)
   2. Definitely in the elementary; basically at the secondary, with options at some localities. (2) Some dissatisfaction in various degrees was expressed about the junior high school, with specific consideration to 8-4 organization in place of present 6-3-3.

B. Should the Dearborn Schools maintain a staff of instructional specialists for the following purposes:
   a. Improvement of the Program.
   b. Improvement of Teaching.
   c. Coordination of the Program.

1. Yes, with reservations as to area or field, determine by finance and need.
2. Superintendent is in best position to determine nature of his staff.
3. Yes.
4. Some specialists in certain subject matter fields, but generalists in others, would be adequate.
5. Approve but do not feel qualified to endorse.
6. Yes, believe in coordinator to improve teaching.
7. Yes, with specialists having some line functions. After reorganization a program of education should be undertaken in respect to all employees.
8. Yes, with coordination (c) with limited staff of specialists.

C. To what degree should decisions in educational matters be based upon principle and research as opposed to opinion and pressure?

1. All decisions should be based upon principle, research and practice, as opposed to opinion and pressure. (6)
2. Decisions should be based upon research, but intelligent opinion and pressure should be considered.
3. Decisions should be based upon principle and research. All groups should be heard, but board members should not be coerced by pressure tactics.
4. It is the unanimous and strong conviction of our discussion group that the Dearborn Board of Education and school system are failing in their duties to all because of lack of courage and judgment in bowing to minority pressure groups. The school superintendent, as chief executive officer, should have adequate authority to administer without improper interference from the Board of Education or minority pressure groups.

D. Attached are statements of philosophy and objectives of education as developed by the Dearborn staff and citizens as well as the conclusions of the national White House Conference. What are your reactions to these Dearborn statements?

1. Time is needed to study the philosophies and objectives so comment is reserved.
2. Subscribe to statements of philosophy and objectives. (2)
3. Agreed that objectives are excellent, but we are a little concerned about attainment and implementation of them. (2)
4. Too little time to formulate opinion.
5. Fine; stress the democratic principle along with 3 R's.
6. Insufficient time to react to question.

E. What are the chief problems, as you see them as a citizen, of administrative organization in the Dearborn Schools?

1. Personnel, buildings, finances.
2. Inadequate delegation of authority to the school superintendent and lack of willingness on the part of board to stand up to minority pressure groups.
3. An effort be made to give the superintendent a more free hand in administration.
4. Too much time required of administrative staff for meetings, with little time for duties; clarification of administrative duties; principals discourage citizens' participation.
5. Administration is not free to administrate; pressure groups, such as teachers' union, seek to usurp functions of administration.
6. Better understanding between parent and high school; better communication between school and administration, and between school and parents; get parents interested.
7. Define functions and responsibility of personnel; also how many and what kind of specialists.
8. Clarify over-all objectives and functions to attain them; re-align organization to place responsibility and authority. Follow up with educational program of policies, organization, and responsibilities. Through public relations acquaint community with re-alignment.

F. What suggestions do you have to offer for the remainder of the Self-Study and for the May 21st meeting of the some 200 school personnel and citizens involved?

1. Philosophies and objectives should be subject of further study and discussions.
2. More study.
3. More study, plus summaries of thinking of other groups.
4. What are we buying in way of education for grades 9-12? How do parents find out about child's 4-year program? The high school curriculum should be more American Plan less a la carte. More scheduled meetings of the type used when child enters school.
5. Continue as we have done this evening. Allow time for reaction to Question 6.
6. We would like to study delegation of authority and of responsibility for carrying through.
7. The summary of teacher and of parent reactions should be provided; committee of 24 should offer specific suggestions; suggest a general assembly followed by smaller groups, which in turn would relate to the entire group.