

A CASE STUDY OF THE IMPLEMENTATION
OF DIFFERENTIATED STAFFING IN AN
URBAN MANITOBA SCHOOL

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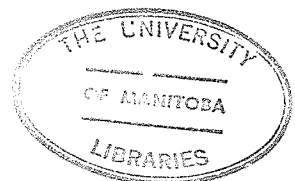
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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine critically the implementation of Differentiated Staffing in an urban Manitoba school using a case study procedure. The areas of major emphases were staff utilization and the development of programs.

After gaining permission from the superintendent of the district and the project director of the school involved, an extensive period of observation of staff meetings, team meetings, team teaching situations, teacher directed classroom situations and informal gatherings in the staff room was conducted. This was followed by structured and unstructured interviews with the teachers and instructional assistants.

Results indicated that the staff had minimal involvement in the preparation of the innovative staffing pattern and no preparation in terms of acquiring new skills and attitudes. As a result they encountered the conflicts and strains of change in the most aggravated and transparent form. Most of these strains were not specific to the new staffing pattern nor to the new programs of team teaching and individualized instruction. The publicly observable phenomena which led to the physical and emotional strain were 1) principally of a physical nature, that is, the incompleted building, inadequate furniture, apparatus and supplies; and 2) distinctly human, that is, thoughts, emotions and other behaviors characteristic of people under varying measures of stress and frustration. Especially noted were their feelings of insecurity and anxiety when dealing with team situations and all staff meetings necessitating shared decision-making.

The implications of this study are that a coordinated effort should be made by school boards and administrators when planning for the organizational innovation of Differentiated Staffing to involve totally in all the original decisions the individuals who are ultimately to be affected by the change. Furthermore, since the teachers would be the ones who would have to directly implement the innovation, they should be provided with an intensive period of preparation in terms of necessary skills, competence, confidence, attitude and readiness so they would be equipped psychologically, emotionally, socially and professionally to cope with the demands of flexibility. Of utmost importance is the staff's autonomy in selecting a staffing pattern consistent with the needs of the instructional program, the pupils and the community the school serves. Adequate pre-planning is essential for successful change. The more specific the planning in terms of defining tasks, delineating roles, and establishing time-lines for the completion of tasks the better. Since successful change depends upon a definite commitment from the majority of the school staff to implement the innovation, a commitment to plan for change should precede the actual planning and implementation.

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CHAPTER I

THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

INTRODUCTION

At present we live in a pluralistic society which is in the throes of transition, juxtapositionally combining a curious dependency upon the traditional with an unsystematic and almost frantic searching for innovation. Society is so preoccupied with change and innovation that it has become enveloped in a change syndrome, the ramifications of which are very unclear.

The needs of society are often reflected in educational trends. Since education has been generally regarded historically as a major contributor to the quality of human life in organized society, the schools are considered to be intimately woven into the very fabric of society. Schools are expected to be responsive to the needs, hopes and aspirations of the people they serve and at the same time mirror the ideals and value systems by which they live. The climate of transience and change that pervades society today, equally permeates every sector of human activity in the realm of education. This pressure has placed the educator at the focal point of much of the indecision in searching for the new while clinging to the established order.

Today's educator finds that the education that was sufficient to his father's needs and even to his own, cannot prepare the present students for their future life in a rapidly changing world. There is more to know, more to learn than ever before. Knowledge is expanding

at such a rate that it is impossible for one person to be a receptacle for all available knowledge. To cope with the full implications of the knowledge explosion and the need for retraining in new skills and new occupations, the educational system has begun to change its emphasis from dispensing knowledge to providing students with the tools to learn how to learn. With this shift in emphasis the educator has found himself torn between the urgency of the need for change and the slow process of initiating a new order of things. Furthermore, in matters of the school environment, he has been challenged to move beyond mere organizational patterns to the realities of human problems and processes, stressing involvement rather than mere attendance, participation rather than regurgitation, and learning rather than absorbing.

A new concept designed to provide the educator with a framework from which relevant, student-centered, and viable educational decisions can be made is Differentiated Staffing. This innovation is predicated upon a major restructuring of relationships that exist between teachers themselves and between teachers and students.

The Differentiated Staff concept calls for the reorganization of the basic organizational structure of the school with the full participation of the teaching staff. In its full meaning staff differentiation implies:

... dividing the global role of the teacher into different professional and paraprofessional subroles according to specific functions and duties to be performed in the school, and according to particular talents and strengths evident within the human resources of any given school community.¹

¹James A. Cooper, Differentiated Staffing (Toronto: W.B. Saunders Co., 1972), pp. 1-3.

Theoretically, the opportunities for professional growth and development in a Differentiated Staffing pattern are quite attractive and should highly influence the school climate. Though Differentiated Staffing is not a one-dimensional answer to the problematic educational issues of today, it can effect the opening of classrooms by proposing new instructional techniques, new ways of treating time, and new classes of educational personnel.

Differentiated Staffing may vary in character from program to program and may have different meanings for different people, but basically it shows great promise as an innovation because

... it offers a frame of reference, a habit of mind, a non-traditional perspective, a rationale, perhaps even a process by which a great number of specific patterns or methods or practices may be devised, justified and evaluated.²

The rationale for this concept presupposes three premises:

First, there are differences among teachers, in intelligence, teaching skills, and level of commitment; second, there are many different roles and activities lumped under the general label "teacher"; third, different qualities of professional contribution should receive different levels of remuneration and further some teachers should receive as much as or more payment for services than some administrators.³

The emphasis is upon a hierarchy of well defined, differentiated roles, permitting specialization and division of labor, and including the use of auxiliary personnel. Roles are differentiated horizontally but they do not assume a hierarchy until a specific set of objectives

²James Lewis, Jr., Differentiating the Teaching Staff, (West Nyack, N.Y., Parker Publ. Co., Inc., 1971), p. 3.

³Education U.S.A. Special Report. Differentiated Staffing in Schools (Washington, D.C., National School Public Relations Association, 1970), p. 5.

and time frame are established. Various sub-hierarchies are formed and re-formed as the needs arise. At the expiration of the time frame any ranking position reverts to a horizontal position until a new set of objectives in a new time frame has been negotiated and accepted. This fluid arrangement of roles demands rapid communication, clear delineation of responsibility and accountability.

The most unique and interesting aspect of Differentiated Staffing is its coordinated approach to innovative instruction in the areas of scheduling, curriculum, decision-making, and individualization of instruction. The implementation of this concept, however, is beset with problems varying in type and degree according to the local situation. Only to the point where these problems can be identified and solved sufficiently so as not to impede learning, can Differentiated Staffing as a facilitator of organizational change, be of value in the educative process.

THE PROBLEM

In recent years an urban Manitoba school division⁴ began examining avenues of change in an effort to

. . . increase the effectiveness of the teaching-learning processes, and to provide this increased effectiveness within the bounds of the economic ability of the community.⁵

Almost simultaneously, the Planning and Research Branch of the Manitoba Department of Education, embarked upon a funding scheme to put

⁴For the purpose of anonymity, the name of the school division was left out.

⁵The Urban School Division "Proposal Paper". (February, 1972), p. 1.

Differentiated Staffing into practice in the Public School System. Under the scheme grants were given to schools wishing to implement Differentiated Staffing as a pilot project.

In February of 1972, the urban Manitoba school division X submitted a proposal to the Planning and Research Branch of the Department of Education, in which it was recommended

. . . that all programs in one of its new secondary schools be operated on a Differentiated Staffing System . . . and that research grants be made available to offset certain additional costs related to the project in its initial years of operation.⁶

The proposal was accepted and a grant of \$23,000 was allocated to the school for the 1972-73 operational year.

The general purpose of this study was to examine critically the implementation of Differentiated Staffing in the urban Manitoba school Y using a case study procedure.

Specifically the aim of this study was to identify the problems of organizational change encountered in the initial stages of establishing Differentiated Staffing at the school. The problems were confined to those identified by the administrator, staff of the school, and the observer. The two major emphases were staff utilization and the development of programs. Finance was excluded except for reference to the research project grant.

IMPORTANCE OF THE PROBLEM

In 1972, Differentiated Staffing was in the pilot stages in the

⁶Ibid., p. 1 and 2.

schools in Manitoba. There was no study done concerning its implementation. This study is therefore important in that:

- 1) It would identify the problems of organizational change inherent in the implementation of Differentiated Staffing and could serve as a guide for other educators contemplating a similar program.
- 2) It would provide a wide range of detailed information about the basic characteristics of Differentiated Staffing; describe relevant variables and show their relationships to each other, especially in tying staffing changes to opportunities for student growth.
- 3) It would reveal other factors that needed further research and thereby aid in the development of a detailed understanding of the process of organizational change in schools.

DELIMITATIONS

This study examined the problems of organizational change encountered by the administrator and staff of an urban Manitoba school as they implemented Differentiated Staffing. The study dealt with the initial stages of implementation of this approach to innovative instruction.

A single approach to the study was used, that of the case study with its observational and interviewing techniques designed to evoke hypotheses rather than to produce an empirical study.

LIMITATIONS

Since this study was limited to the problems of organizational change encountered by the administrator and staff of an urban Manitoba

school in the initial stages of implementing Differentiated Staffing, such factors as an incompleted school plant, a totally new staff, a combination of elementary and junior high grades may have had significant effects.

Another limiting factor in this study was the personal level on which the interviews and observations were based, as these were affected to some extent by the researcher's subjectivity.

The human reluctance to reveal real problems and issues within a group also provided a limitation. It was hoped that the frequency of the school visits to the school and informal discussions with the personnel would to a great extent overcome that factor.

The study dealt with a school designed to be a secondary collegiate but functioning as a combination elementary and junior high school. As a result, the problems encountered in this school would not necessarily be applicable to other schools.

Finally, this study was limited because it was confined to the initial period of the implementation of Differentiated Staffing and as such could not provide a basis for assessing problems of long-term duration.

ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

The study was organized into six chapters. Chapter one consisted of the statement of the problem. Chapter two, a review of the literature, was divided into three sections: section one, change in society and its influence on education, especially the developments that were directly responsible for the growing interest in Differentiated Staffing; section two, the definition, rationale, and goals of Differentiated

Staffing; section three, the case study and its feasibility as a research method in education.

Chapter three was concerned with the historical background of the school. Chapter four described the procedures, while chapter five was an analysis of the research. Since the method of research was a case study, the observer concentrated on all latent and manifest problems of organizational change in the implementation of Differentiated Staffing which might have had a direct bearing on staff utilization and development of instructional programs.

Chapter six was a summary of the study. It consisted of conclusions derived from the use of content analysis and based on these conclusions, recommendations were proposed.

CHAPTER II

A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION

Change is a ruling force in the life of every individual, institution, and organization. The entire world is caught up in a vortex of change, a milieu in which the velocity of change accelerates, while our general ability to cope with it remains constant. Society is grappling with an age of extreme transiency and fierce urgency and an infinitely small time span for any particular idea, item or pattern. Change is omnipresent, instant and seems to be the only constant that remains.

Technology is today's expressive dimension of change. The electronic wizardry of computers defies man to compete. Technology with its ever increasing efficiency has made obsolescence a goal. Each invention has to be better and more revolutionary than the last. Change has become the treadmill which threatens man's existence as an identifiable individual.

The educational system of today is in the grasp of dynamic forces of change. It is being pressurized equally by society's present trend of accelerating the pace of technological inventions and by its desires for a person-oriented approach to education.

As a result great demands are being made on those responsible for education. They are being asked to make the system and the content taught in it more relevant to the present and future needs of society;

to approach learning as a quality of life appropriate to any and every phase of human existence and not merely as something that goes on in spatial places called classrooms; to educate people to be whole persons with their own deep convictions and the ability to do their own thinking rather than merely having the skills and information to be technical and executive instruments.

The complex and intricate relationship between education and society calls for teachers to become facilitators of learning and molders of character rather than mere dispensers of knowledge in order that these needs of society be met. Furthermore, the basic educational system must become open ended. It must allow for creativity and responsibility on the part of the teachers and pupils as well as administrators. Teachers and pupils must become directly involved in the formation of educational objectives, school policies, curriculum and at every level of decision making.

From the milieu of pressure, assessment and change emerges the organizational concept of Differentiated Staffing. It appears to be a conscious attempt to institutionalize self renewal and organizational renewal within the educational system.

CHANGE AND ADAPTATION IN EDUCATION

Educators today have opportunities and challenges that are unprecedented in history. The climate for educational research and experimentation is highly favorable. Education is of special interest to both individual citizens and public and private institutions. According to Ruth Anshan, interest in education has been intensified because

Man has entered a new era of revolutionary history,
one in which rapid change is a dominant consequence ... no

civilization has previously had to face the challenge of scientific specialization.¹

Technological advances today are capable of extending the capacities of man to limitless possibilities. This results in rapid and highly visible change, which in turn, results in a new awareness. Robert Oppenheimer describes this awareness in terms of experiencing a newness.

In an important sense this world of ours is not a new world, in which the unity of knowledge, the nature of human communities, the order of society, the order of ideas, the very notions of society and culture have changed and will not return to what they have been in the past. What is new is new not because it has never been there before, but because it has changed in quality. One thing that is new is the prevalence of newness, the changing scale and scope of change itself, so that the world alters as we walk in it, so that the years of man's life measure not some small growth or rearrangement or moderation of what he learned in childhood, but a good upheaval. What is new is that in one generation our knowledge of the natural world engulfs, upsets, and complements all knowledge of the natural world before. The techniques, among and by which we live, multiply and ramify, so that the whole world is bound together by communication, blocked here and there by the immense synapses of political tyranny. The global quality of the world is new: our knowledge of and sympathy with remote and diverse peoples, our involvement with them in practical terms, and our commitment to them in terms of brotherhood. What is new in the world is the massive character of the dissolution and corruption of authority, in belief, in ritual and in temporal order. Yet this is the world that we live in. The very difficulties which it presents derive from growth in understanding, in skill, in power. To assail the changes that have unmoored us from the past is futile, and in a deep sense, I think, it is wicked. We need to recognize the change and learn what resources we have².

American society is experiencing a rapid change and the schools

¹Ivan Illich, "Deschooling Society," World Perspectives, Vol. 44, ed., Ruth Nanda Anshan (New York: Harper and Row Publ. Co., 1971), pp. ix-x.

²W.G. Bennis, K.D. Benne and R. Chin (eds.), The Planning of Change (Toronto: Holt Rinehart and Winston Inc., 1969), pp. 1-2, citing Robert Oppenheimer, "Prospects in the Arts and Sciences," Perspective U.S.A., (Vol. II, 1955), pp. 10-11.

are caught in

. . . . the flow of changing manpower needs and allocation; of the vast explosion of knowledge and the restructuring of many of the academic disciplines; of the ferment in the study of education and the encouragement of experimentation and innovation; of the unrest among minority groups, students, parents, and teachers who no longer submit to being passive onlookers of the decision-making processes which affect them; and of the changing characteristics of the teaching profession and its ability to deal more effectively with the complex educational problems of children.³

In a society that is constantly changing, adaptation and readjustment are constantly necessary. Adaptation is highly complex and involves many diverse psychological, social and physical elements. To see the problem of adaptation in clear perspective, it must be recognized that the several aspects of a situation may be changing at different rates of speed. Herbert A. Block and Melvin Prince say that there are three considerations in studies of adaptation: "(1) the adaptational situation in a complex of many parts; (2) these parts are in a state of continuous change; (3) the rate of change is not the same for all parts."⁴

In terms of the impact on schools and individual life adjustments, the experience of change is unique and crucial. Adaptation to change creates unforeseen difficulties. The future is being viewed as merely an extension of the past and is not taking into account the scientific and technological dimension. A knowledge of the crucial factors contributing to change in society, and thereby change in education, may enable us to modify and control its direction and ease the tensions of adaptation

³K. Goldhammer, et al., Issues and Problems in Contemporary Educational Administration. Centre for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration, (Eugene, Oregon, 1967), p. 2.

⁴Herbert A. Block and Melvin Prince, "Social Crisis and Deviance" Theoretical Foundations (New York: Random House, 1967), p. 24.

and acceptance.

August Kerber believes that

. . . the present rate of change has somewhat the effect of a war, in which education is put on a stand by basis, and continual excessive demands are made on it without its having the privilege of determining the direction of action. The tragedy is not that of education, but of society, which has put itself in this posture of affairs. When society rings hollow, all its agencies become purposeless. The greatest oratory is lost on the ears of an individualistic mass. The appeal to purpose is like trying to substitute an edifice with words.⁵

Change in itself is not bad but it must be along lines that men can understand. It is necessary therefore that society in general and educators in particular be alerted to their real social responsibilities, and "not stand helpless while the disfunction of society proceeds with the onslaught of massive change."⁶ Kerber and Smith emphasize some general observations:

1) At all times society, not the schools, is responsible for its deepest problems.

2) If the schools are to serve society well at any time, and crucially in times of change, the schools should be given a clear mandate to inculcate values appropriate for continuing the growth of society.⁷

The authors feel that the schools can be the source of leadership and the resource of new values to apply to a new world.

Charles Frankel, in his article, "Third Great Revolutions of Man-kind," recapitulates the rate and kinds of historic changes. He, like Oppenheimer, says that what is new in society today is the accelerated tempo of change. He believes that:

⁵August Kerber and Wilfred R. Smith, Educational Issues in a Changing Society (third edition; Detroit: Wayne State University Press, 1968), p. 10.

⁶Ibid., p. 11.

⁷Ibid., p. 11.

. . . the quickened tempo represents an unprecedented challenge to the human ability to adjust to social change. It took man roughly 475,000 years to arrive at the Agricultural Revolution. It required another 25,000 years to come to the Industrial Revolution. We have arrived at the Space Age in a hundred and fifty years - and, while we do not know where we go from here, we can be sure that we shall go there fast.⁸

Paul Sullivan reiterates this thought and carried it further. He believes that because of the transience of the present and the unpredictability of the future, preparing a child for independent action is essential. The child must cope with the future.⁹ Therefore, as Wilfred Smith and Sharon MacLaren believe, "Education must meet the challenge of the age."¹⁰ It cannot go back and it cannot remain as it is. It cannot preserve the present industrial-age values nor return to the simple values of the agricultural era. The task of education is to constructively incorporate the problems that arise from man's new relationships to his environment, namely: "man's capacity to annihilate himself; man's virtually unlimited information capacity; and man's leisure time, with the perennial challenge of building a purposive life of justice, efficiency and creativity, and beauty."¹¹

⁸Charles Frankle, "Third Great Revolution of Mankind" The New York Times Magazine, (February 9, 1958), pp. 11, 70-71, 78, cited by A. Kerber and W. Smith, Educational Issues in a Changing Society (third edition; Detroit: Wayne State University Press, 1968), p. 14.

⁹Paul Sullivan, "The Emerging American Family" (Unpublished Manuscript, WSU, 1967), cited by A. Kerber and W. Smith Educational Issues in a Changing Society (third edition; Detroit: Wayne State University Press, 1968), p. 29.

¹⁰Wilfred Smith and Sharon MacLaren, Challenges to the Further Curriculum cited by A. Kerber and W. Smith, Educational Issues in a Changing Society (third edition; Detroit: Wayne State University Press, 1968), p. 462.

¹¹Ibid., p. 463.

Factors Contributing to Accelerated Change in Society and in Education. In any point in time, a society is described by its own particular types and arrangements of social structures and adaptability to change. In our present day, educators in seeking to isolate the cause of rapid change in society and its effects on our education system have found it necessary, first of all, to elaborate on the savor of change, its direction and its implications.

Bennis, Benne and Chin say that "change is an alteration of an existing field of forces The implications are monumental stability is an illusion, the myopia of the rigid and/or the unimaginative Changes involve a force field with high tension or low tension we have choice in change we can control some forces and not others we can increase tension or decrease it."¹²

Etzioni states that the determinants of social change arise from within society itself and that the longest, deepest and most important controversy lies "between those who see the prime moving forces of human history in the spiritual sphere and those who see it in the material one; between those who stress the role of ideas and those who stress the role of economic factors; between those who stress the role of culture and those who stress the role of technology."¹³

Goodwin Watson states that "change may evolve from within a social system or come by adoption or adaptation from outside it."¹⁴

¹²Warren G. Bennis, Kenneth D. Benne and Robert Chin (eds.), The Planning of Change (Toronto: Holt Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1969), p. 315.

¹³Amitai Etzioni and Eva Etzioni, Social Change: Sources, Patterns and Consequences (New York: Basic Books Inc., 1964), p. 7.

¹⁴Goodwin Watson (ed.), Concepts for Social Change (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1969), p. 11.

Unruh and Turner in discussing the direction of change today contend that "probably one of the most dramatic areas of change relates to concepts of knowledge and space. Continuing exploration of space, experiments in communication via Telstar, and space travel are affecting industries, professional practices and just plain people in all walks of life."¹⁵

Husen and Boalt point out several implications of change. They state that "change caused during modern time by new technology and new forms of cooperation between people have given rise to new, constantly changing demands on the individual in his capacity as a citizen and as a holder of an occupation."¹⁶

As has been previously mentioned schools are expected to be responsive to the needs, hopes and aspirations of society. Consequently, the greatest impact of rapid change has been on the educational system. David Street says that since the mid-century there have been three crucial developments which have accelerated change in society and as a result have produced a heightened awareness of the educational system as a basic integrative element of this society:

- 1) The change in technology and values of society which have put a new premium on educational attainment as the criterion for entry into the labor force and for assessing social worth.

- 2) The rise of racial protests and demands have thrown the schools into crisis and have led to a popular recognition of the inadequacies of urban schooling.

¹⁵Adolph Unruh and Harold E. Turner, Supervision for Change and Innovation (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1970), p. 175.

¹⁶Torsten Husen and Boalt Gunner "Educational Research and Educational Change" The Case of Sweden (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1968), p. 25.

3) The national reaction to Sputnik has produced a new concern with quality and curriculum in higher education, leading in turn to a new interest in innovation in secondary and elementary education.¹⁷

Richard Miller identifies four general values which are fundamental to change, despite the fact that they are not often considered in relation to it.

- 1) Deep and strong beliefs in the democratic way of life.
- 2) Equality of opportunity.
- 3) Material Progress.
- 4) Belief in the importance of education.¹⁸

Furthermore, Miller isolates four factors that have contributed specifically to educational change.

- 1) The Cold War with its need for science and mathematics programs.
- 2) The phenomenal growth of the knowledge of industry.
- 3) The pressures from outside the realm of professional education.
- 4) Advances in the behavioral sciences.¹⁹

Unruh and Turner list the following causes as having a direct bearing on society's demands for change within schools:

1) The new meaning and importance given to the field of international relations because of the emergence of new nations from colonialism to full participatory nationhood.

2) The industrialization of predominantly agricultural rural areas resulting in rapid and frequently traumatic upsets in traditional social, political, economic and cultural patterns.

3) The mobility of people and the impact created by non-resident power and influence upon the school. Mobility enhances exposure to many kinds of educational programs. This results in criticism and evaluation of ongoing programs.

4) The debilitating effect of inflexible school construction

¹⁷David Street (ed.), Innovation in Mass Education (Toronto: Wiley Interscience. John Wiley and Sons Ltd., 1969), pp. 102.

¹⁸Richard I. Miller (ed.), Perspectives on Educational Change (New York: Appleton-Century Crofts, 1967), p. 2.

¹⁹Ibid., pp. 5-6.

and staffing patterns.

5) Development of day care centres.²⁰

Because of the intimate relationship between education and society, the nature of change, its direction with its implications in society in general should be reflected in education. However the rapidity of initiation of approaches to innovative instruction to meet modern needs, has not by any means equalled accelerated change in society.

Factors Influencing the Demand for Change in School Organizations.

Education has recognized the individual difference of students and has attempted to individualize instruction. However, limited attention has been directed toward the individual difference of teachers in experience, interests, methods, training, personality or teacher preference.

According to Jackson

. . . this disparity has allowed only minimal success in individualization. Teachers are seen as intellectual and psychological equivalents and are assigned essentially the same authority and responsibility.²¹

While the market seems to be flooded with teachers, in reality there is a shortage of teachers committed to the profession as a life-long career. John Chafee suggests that

. . . although the number of men and women training to enter the teaching profession is increasing, nearly 30% never teach, and at least 60% of those who do teach leave education during the first five years.²²

²⁰Unruh, op. cit., p. 176.

²¹Philip W. Jackson, "The Teacher and the Individual Differences" Individualizing Instruction, Sixty-first Yearbook, Part I (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1962), p. 76.

²²John Chafee Jr., "First Manpower Assessment," American Education Journal, 5:11, February, 1969.

In explaining the reasons for this predicament, Chafee points out the following:

1) Schools are competing with other segments of our service oriented economy for the same skills possessed by good teachers. The other segments offer higher salaries and greater opportunities for professional advancement.

2) Potential teachers have experience as students and are aware of the frustrations seemingly inherent in education, that is, the rigid salary schedule, the lack of distinction between duties of beginning and experienced teachers, no real opportunity for advancement as a teacher, little involvement in basic policy decision making, the lack of prestige in teaching, few opportunities for creativity, and the lack of cooperation between the administration and the teachers.²³

Today, the respect is for administration not teaching. There is no equivalent appeal in status, authority, or salary that compares with that of administration. Therefore, there is a need for an alternative for teachers by creating a new promotional track within the educational organization so they may attain levels equivalent to some administrators and beyond others

. . . a track based on added responsibilities, reorganization into collegial relationships between teacher and administrators, and involvement of teachers at all levels in decisions relating to the instructional programs.²⁴

The nature of teacher training programs has also created a demand for change in school organizations. In fact, the teacher trainees as well as the teacher training programs are "major barriers" to progress.

According to John Macdonald the majority of the enrolees in teacher training institutions

. . . are middle ranking in ability and performance . . . the primary appeal of teaching as a career is to a narrow segment of

²³Ibid., p. 12.

²⁴Ibid., p. 12.

society, to the sons and daughters of lower-middle-class families on the fringe of the working class and upper-working-class families on the fringe of the middle class.²⁵

When the trainees go into the schools, they find that these are controlled by persons like themselves, and they have their middle-class value systems confirmed and reinforced. In turn, they transmit these values to their students.

There is, therefore, an ensuing conflict in ideals, values, and preference systems between lower middle class teachers and established middle class parents with their children. "For that matter," says Macdonald, "the fact that teacher education institutions as they have become more closely identified with universities, have accepted established middle class values, accounts in part for their failure to leave a permanent impression on students."²⁶

Technology has also made its impact on the school organization, especially in "the instructional media and the area of tools for diagnosing, prescribing, implementing, and evaluating the components of the instructional system."²⁷ Conte and English believe that the effective and creative use of all these requires specialization in training and responsibility.

They also point out that

. . . the rising costs of education are making the public balk at bond issues because they don't want to pay more for a system that wastes resources and is failing. This is especially true

²⁵John Macdonald, "A Social Psychologist Looks at Teacher Education," Education: A Collection of Essays on Canadian Education (Toronto: W.J. Gage & Co., Ltd., 1967), p. 119.

²⁶Macdonald, Ibid., p. 119.

²⁷Joseph Conte and Fenwick English, "Impact of Technology on Staff Differentiation," Audiovisual Instruction, 14:108, May, 1969.

in the urban area. The traditional and central administrative power structure is oblivious to demands for flexibility and application of new ways to design educational programs based on student needs as they are in reality.²⁸

Hedges suggests that

. . . rising militancy is telling education something it should have known or predicted long ago. Increasing teacher specialization and competence mean that roles within the present educational structure are in the process of change. There is an increasing need for high specialization and advanced training. Teacher tasks have become increasingly complex, responsibilities have multiplied, and the demands for competence in many content areas have increased. The teacher is expected to wear many hats. Education has recognized the need for specialized knowledge and training in some areas (librarian, reading diagnostician, music, art, foreign language, consultants, speech and hearing and guidance consultants).²⁹

John Rand adds that

. . . the teacher has become more militant and has expressed a desire to capture professional autonomy, independence, some control over teaching standards, involvement in recruiting, direction over educational goals, and the methods-means selected to teach them. This movement for change has necessitated rethinking who is most competent to make instructional decisions and how to affix responsibility.³⁰

In short, teachers want formal involvement and decentralization of the decision-making process.

In summary, the lack of an individualized approach to teachers, a minimum of authority, status and opportunity for advancement, a poor salary, reinforcement of middle class value systems in teacher training and technological developments are all specific factors contributing to the acceleration of demand for change in school organization.

²⁸Ibid., p. 108.

²⁹William D. Hedges, "Differentiated Teaching Responsibilities in the Elementary School," National Elementary Principal, 47:48, September, 1967.

³⁰M. John Rand, "A Case for Differentiated Staffing," Classroom Teachers Association Journal, 65:29, 33, March, 1969.

DEVELOPMENTS RESPONSIBLE FOR GROWING INTEREST IN DIFFERENTIATED STAFFING

Flexible ways must be devised for organizing education for a rapidly changing society. Fenwick English and Larry Frase are convinced that

. . . time, space, staff and objects are the building blocks of any school form. A static organization of any one of these means a less effective learning environment. It is not so much how the blocks are arranged that matters, but the permanency of such arrangements.³¹

Corwin argues that part of the problem is a structural lag in our school systems and he feels that creating more differentiated specialized work roles within teaching can be viewed as a response to this lag.³²

Corwin believes that "there are specific inter-related developments that are largely responsible for a new division of labor known as Differentiated Staffing."³³ He argues that

. . . teachers have reluctantly assumed more and more responsibilities for a remarkable variety of new functions. Developments such as pressures to prepare increasing numbers of children for college, and deterioration of inner-city schools have demonstrated that true individualized instruction is impossible as long as teachers have to cope, unaided, with a multitude of tasks and responsibilities.³⁴

Cooper says that the concept of Differentiated Staffing has been pushed into the educational spotlight as a possible means of solving certain problems which beset education. He proposes these six reasons:

³¹Fenwick English and Larry E. Frase, "Making Form Follow Function in Staffing Elementary Schools," National Elementary Principal, 51:60, January, 1972.

³²Ronald G. Corwin, "Enhancing Teaching as a Career," Today's Education, Special Journal Feature, (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, March, 1969), p. 3.

³³Ibid., p. 5.

³⁴Ibid., p. 4.

1) As information and knowledge is discovered and created at an astounding rate, there is growing recognition that a single teacher cannot adequately perform all the needed classroom tasks. The job is too great for one person to be effective Classroom tasks need to be subdivided and performed by persons competent to perform them. Differentiated Staffing offers a framework and an approach to accomplish this division of functions.

2) The financial crises that are facing municipalities have lead the taxpayer to conclude that all teachers should not be paid equally regardless of their competence. Differentiated Staffing remunerates teachers differently for performing different functions and for assuming different levels of responsibility.

3) There is increasing discontent with traditional classroom instruction. Many see it as an antiquated system which does not recognize individual differences, among either teachers or students. Differentiated Staffing is being viewed as a way of attracting and holding good career teachers.

4) Related to the reorganization of the school structure is the issue of shared decision-making power between administrators and teachers. Teacher militants have pressed hard for more real authority in the governance of schools. Differentiated Staffing offers a way of democratizing the governance of schools by increasing the authority and power of classroom teachers.

5) Many new curriculum and organizational reforms call for new teacher competencies. It is impractical to think that all the teachers who need retraining will be able to acquire all the new skills and knowledge. Differentiated Staffing is seen as making an allowance for the new skills and knowledge to be distributed among different teachers.

6) The economic problems harrassing public education force a look at new ways of better utilizing school personnel. By differentiating teacher functions, many of which do not require full-time teachers, schools can make better use of personnel who might ordinarily not be available to them.³⁵

DIFFERENTIATED STAFFING

Overview and Definition. To differentiate a teaching staff means to separate it by different roles. There is no set definition of a differentiated staff, since at this time many models with a variety of bases are being proposed, developed, and tried.

³⁵James A. Cooper, Differentiated Staffing, (Toronto: W.B. Saunders Company, 1972), pp. 1-3.

In an attempt to define Differentiated Staffing educators have had to face the fact that

. . . there is no one definition of Differentiated Staffing because there is no absolute rule or set of rules which apply to a differentiated staff. Rather, there are many interpretations as to what Differentiated Staffing is, some which represent far reaching educational change and others which are a modest attempt to merely change an instruction program. In any case, Differentiated Staffing is an organization of the educational staff.³⁶

James Cooper states that

. . . although there are many possible variations of the term Differentiated Staffing, the concept implies dividing the global role of the teacher into different professional and para-professional subroles according to specific functions and duties to be performed in the schools, and according to particular talents and strengths evident within the human resources of any given school community.³⁷

James Cooper also points out that regardless of the semantics employed in arriving at an explicit definition, a basic factor that cannot be overlooked is that "Staff Differentiation in its full meaning recognizes the necessity for concurrent changes in scheduling, curriculum, decision-making power and individualization of instruction."³⁸

The National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards proposes the following tentative definitions:

A plan for recruitment, preparation of staff personnel for the schools that would bring a much broader range of manpower to education than is now available. Such arrangements might facilitate individual professional development to prepare for increased satisfaction, status and material reward.³⁹

³⁶Richard A. Dempsey and A.J. Fiorino, Differentiated Staffing: What It Is and How It Can Be Implemented (Swarthmore, Pennsylvania: A.C. Croft Inc., 1971), p. 1.

³⁷James Cooper, op. cit., p. 1.

³⁸Ibid., p. 1.

³⁹National Education Association, National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, A Position Statement on the Concept of Differentiated Staffing (Washington, D.C.: The Commission, 1969), p. 2.

Under a Differentiated Staffing arrangement education personnel would be selected, educated and deployed in ways that would make optimum use of interests, abilities and commitments and afford them greater autonomy in determining their own professional development.⁴⁰

Allen and Kline describe Differentiated Staffing in terms of its aim.

Differentiated Staffing aims to integrate the three concerns within human life--people, education and jobs. It can begin when school is seen as the blending of an assortment of individual talents, abilities, services and activities into a unified function, the education of individuals.⁴¹

Don Barbee offers yet another definition:

Differentiated Staffing is a concept of education that seeks to make better use of educational personnel. Teachers and other educators assume different responsibilities based on carefully prepared definitions of the many teaching functions. Differentiated assignments of educational personnel goes beyond traditional staff allocations based on common subject matter distinctions and grade level arrangements and seeks new ways of analyzing essential teaching tasks and creative means of implementing new educational goals.⁴²

Roy A. Edelfelt, executive secretary of the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, N.E.A., says that

Differentiated roles means assigning personnel in terms of training, interest, ability, aptitude, career goals, and the difficulty of tasks. The differentiated staff idea provides a chance to structure a school faculty so that personnel are encouraged to proceed with their own professional training and development to prepare for increased responsibility and status with accompanying increases in compensation.⁴³

⁴⁰Ibid., p. 6.

⁴¹Dwight W. Allen and Lloyd W. Kline, "A Differentiated Teaching Staff," National Business Education Quarterly, 37:35, May, 1969.

⁴²Don Barbee, "Differentiated Staffing: Expectations and Pitfalls," TEPS Write-In Papers on Flexible Staffing Patterns No. 1, (Washington, D.C.: National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, National Education Association, March, 1969), p. 6.

⁴³Roy A. Edelfelt, Redesigning the Education Profession (Washington, D.C.: National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, National Education Association, January, 1969), p. 6.

James Lewis Jr. defines Differentiated Staffing in terms of

. . . a process by which the teaching staff is divided into a number of categories according to their various roles and responsibilities which have been identified by the teaching-learning task. In this way, maximum use is made of teacher interests, talents, and capabilities, so that a learning environment is provided which facilitates the implementation of various programs geared to individualize and humanize the total school educational program.⁴⁴

Summing up the ideas presented in all the given definitions, Coleman and Wallin have come up with a more inclusive and more analytical definition.

Differentiated Staffing is a staff utilization pattern that offers:

- 1) a career pattern in teaching that does not inevitably lead out of the classroom into counselling or administration;
- 2) a more manageable teaching assignment, with improved matching of qualifications and interests to responsibilities;
- 3) a structure for decision-making, goal setting, and evaluation in which teachers play a leading part (a collegial structure);
- 4) a salary schedule emphasizing contributions rather than seniority and training;
- 5) a flexible instructional pattern open to innovation at the level of each of the school's working units; a pattern that readily accommodates consultants and paraprofessionals, a variety of student/teacher groupings, and a wider range of curricula.⁴⁵

Fenwick English sees the differentiated staff as "education's emerging technostucture, a new blend of the technical and managerial sub-system within school districts by which tough instructional problems ultimately may be solved."⁴⁶

⁴⁴James Lewis Jr., Differentiating The Teaching Staff (West Nyack, N.Y.: Parker Publ. Co., Inc., 1971), p. 18.

⁴⁵Peter Coleman and Herbert A. Wallin, "A Rationale for Differentiated Staffing," Interchange, 2:29, 1971.

⁴⁶Fenwick English, "The Differentiated Staff: Education's Techno-structure," Educational Technology, 10:25, February, 1970.

Goals of Differentiated Staffing. While it is evident that there is no consensus in the definition of Differentiated Staffing, there is agreement as to its goals.

Staff Differentiation is not a new concept nor is it a new practice. It simply is another word for work specialization. Melton says that

Work specialization is as old as man and exists in all human institutions. Churches, states, virtually all organizations are based on the division of labor, the subdivision of roles, and their interaction to produce a desired outcome. Schools are as complex as other social institutions, if not more so.⁴⁷

Management experts are aware of this and as a result are pointing to the great problem that has been with educators since 1848, that is, the lack of specificity in the teaching-learning tasks. James Lewis states that "until such problems are clarified, there will remain a vast untapped resource of teacher talent."⁴⁸ The Management experts therefore "are calling for a more logical approach to the formation of an educational system--a system which is built on principles of task analysis and job specification."⁴⁹ The system of Differentiated Staffing spells out specific job responsibilities.

As far back as the Quincy Grammar School in 1848 or even with the founding of Johann Sturn's gymnasium at Strassbury 1507-89, all teachers were expected to teach all subjects.

It may have been possible to train teachers in the nineteenth century to be master generalists but the proliferation of knowledge in the twentieth century together with mass media communication have spelled the obsolescence of the self-contained classroom teacher.

⁴⁷Melton, op. cit., p. 2.

⁴⁸James Lewis, op. cit., p. 25.

⁴⁹Ibid., p. 26.

Silberman states that "to try to teach the entire range of abilities at one time is a task that is as exhausting as it is futile."⁵⁰ This type of teaching, according to English and Sharpes,

. . . consists mainly of talking or telling to groups of between twenty-five and thirty children for periods or segments of the school day, divided into time for spelling, arithmetic, social studies, physical education, and the like at the elementary level. The impact upon the instructional program has been a non-achievement-based school in which materials for one grade are jealously guarded by teachers for fear of encroachment into their territory. Pupils interests and abilities are flattened out in order to make the system work smoothly. Promotion does not represent achievement; it represents time served.⁵¹

Not only has instruction been hampered by the subject-matter-time schedule, but teacher relations and teacher growth have been stunted. English and Sharpes state that

Interaction among teachers is strictly circumscribed, if not by design by default. Teaching has become known as the lonely profession and colleague interaction is confined to the faculty lounge. Teachers sometimes have difficulty dealing with each other The box-like structures of the traditional school reinforces a strictly enforced (spatially and otherwise) egalitarianism that is largely indifferent to actual teacher performance or pupil need. The graded school demands a graded curriculum.⁵²

One of the consequences of the graded structures was the loss of the most talented teachers. These were either promoted out of a classroom situation into administration, or because of a lack of teaching career ladder, they left the teaching profession to find self-satisfaction and promotion in other fields of work, particularly in industry.

According to Dr. Richard Dempsey and Dr. A. John Fiorino the

⁵⁰Charles E. Silberman, Crisis in the Classroom (N.Y.: Random House Inc., 1971), p. 268.

⁵¹Fenwick English and Donald K. Sharpes, Strategies for Differentiated Staffing (Berkeley, California: McCutchan Publishing Corporation, 1972), p. 10.

⁵²Ibid., p. 11.

following goals are included in all discussions of differentiation:

- 1) the improvement of teaching (instructional);
- 2) individualization of instruction;
- 3) better utilization of the unique abilities of individuals (teachers and pupils);
- 4) providing a career in the classroom for educators;
- 5) operating from the strengths of a teacher;
- 6) placing a person at the level at which he best functions;
- 7) involving teachers in decision-making;
- 8) allowing teachers to regulate their profession.⁵³

A change in the school staffing design is imperative, S.A. Earl urges that "serious consideration should be given to the concept of Differentiated Staffing if the education profession hopes to improve the teaching-learning environment for pupils and teachers alike in the decade ahead."⁵⁴

History of Differentiated Staffing. The genesis of Differentiated Staffing was brought to fruition during the 1960's but the concept originated with the Lancastrial School. Also known as the Monitorial Method. "The Monitorial School possessed a teacher-student personnel hierarchy, which was divided on the basis of instructional and discipline responsibilities."⁵⁵

Around 1840 the differentiated Monitorial School was replaced by the Quincy School which "adopted the Lancastrian curriculum model but did away with the personnel hierarchy that had dominated American education for 40 years."⁵⁶

⁵³Dempsey, op. cit., p. 2.

⁵⁴S.A. Earl, "Differentiated Staffing," Designs for the Seventies Frank D. Oliva and E.L.Koch, editors (Calgary, Alberta: University of Calgary, Dept. of Educational Administration, 1970), p. 19.

⁵⁵Fenwick English and Raymond G. Melton, "Differentiated Staffing and Physical Education," Arizona Journal of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, Fall, 1971, p. 19.

⁵⁶Raymond G. Melton, "Differentiated Staffing: An Historical Precipis and Model Analysis," Career Opportunities Program Assistance Bulletin, February, 1972, p. 3.

However, it was not until 1954 that educators, meeting at a National Conference on the utilization of professional manpower began to look at the traditional teacher and personnel arrangements in the school. Speaking at this Conference, Henry Chauncey identified two major problems in this area:

- 1) the lack of people with the proper skills to fill openings;
- 2) the level of skill criterion.⁵⁷

The Conference produced the following recommendations pertaining to better utilization of professional manpower:

- 1) The transfer of work from professional persons to technicians and assistants.
- 2) The increased use of capital to permit the full employment of professional skills.
- 3) Incentives to prevent the wasteful turnover of professionally-trained personnel.
- 4) New work patterns to improve the total output of professionals and semi-professionals working in concert.
- 5) Reassessment of the appropriateness of the education and training of professional persons.
- 6) Improved leadership and administration.⁵⁸

Aspects of differentiation were then espoused by Lloyd Trump,⁵⁹ Robert Bush and Dwight Allen.⁶⁰ The philosophical base was set out by Myron Lieberman.⁶¹ The original model of Differentiated Staffing was developed by Dwight Allen and presented to the California State Board

⁵⁷Ibid., p. 3.

⁵⁸Henry Chauncey, "More Effective Utilization of Teachers," The Utilization of Scientific and Professional Manpower (N.Y.: Columbia University Press, 1954), p. 135.

⁵⁹J. Lloyd Trump and Dorsey Baynham, Guide to Better Schools: Focus on Change (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1967).

⁶⁰Robert Bush and Dwight W. Allen, A New Design for High School Education: Assuming a Flexible Schedule (N.Y.: McGraw Hill Co., 1964).

⁶¹C. Myron Lieberman, The Future of Public Education (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1960), pp. 95-100.

of Education in April 1966⁶². It was later altered into the first truly operational models being used at present in Temple City, California and Mesa, Arizona.

Possible Outcomes of Differentiated Staffing. Differentiated Staffing is a specific response to the current need for individualized instruction in our monolithic depersonalized educational establishment. Allen and Morrison state that

Differentiated Staffing is not intended to fashion new hierarchies within or to bureaucratize further the existing order. Rather it is intended to make the teaching role manageable, to release the fullest potential of the teacher for the benefit of the student by liberating the teacher from outmoded educational concepts which pressure him into being all things to all students.⁶³

One of the major weaknesses of current educational staff deployment is the absence of a career ladder in teaching. There is no full leadership position for the classroom teacher. Rewards are based on time and experience. Able people are attracted to education but are not retained because "power and prestige are not in the classroom."⁶⁴

Differentiated Staffing should help to provide a career pattern among teachers. Dempsey believes that "it creates within the classroom different levels of responsibility and reward, and thus provides the opportunity to advance while teaching."⁶⁵

⁶²Dwight W. Allen, "A Differentiated Staff: Putting Teaching Talent to Work," The Teacher and His Staff, Occasional Papers No. 1 (Washington, D.C.: National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, National Education Association, December, 1967), p. 10.

⁶³Dwight W. Allen and Gary L. Morrison, "Differentiated Staffing and the Non-Professional: A Need for Educational Personnel Development," Journal of Research and Development in Education, No. 2., 5:51, Winter, 1972.

⁶⁴William Hedges, op. cit., p. 48.

⁶⁵Dempsey, op. cit., p. 5.

The teachers are given freedom from non-teaching tasks. Teachers are given a chance to become specialists in an age of specialization. Hedges claims that this is important because "teachers as generalists are no longer able to perform in the era of the knowledge explosion."⁶⁶

Differentiated Staffing, which provides for promotion as a teacher, not as an administrator, may significantly improve teaching as a career.

R.G. Corwin provides a full statement of the possibilities.

Differentiated work roles can be arranged in such a way as to provide meaningful career ladders for teachers, which should result in more equitable rewards for those most committed to their work. Career ladders may increase internal competition among teachers within a particular school, but this would circumvent the dead-end quality of teaching as it is presently constituted, which seems to have prompted many teachers to leave the classroom. In addition to increasing commitments to teaching in general, career ladders could be used to increase commitment to specific fields within teaching. It soon will be possible to use promotion as a reward for teachers who have been effective in dealing with certain types of problems--working with disadvantaged children, for example--without requiring them to forsake their areas of specialization. It is this characteristic, more than any other, that could transform teaching from a job to a career.⁶⁷

In quoting from the Prospectus of the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, Dr. Earl agrees that:

The job of the teacher has become unmanageable. The self-contained teacher and the self-contained classroom and the self-contained school are obsolete. No single individual has the competence, energy and time to deal effectively with all the responsibilities assigned to one teacher.⁶⁸

From the point of view of public relations the implementation of Differentiated Staffing is very important since, according to Fenwick

⁶⁶Hedges, op. cit., p. 50.

⁶⁷Corwin, op. cit., p. 55.

⁶⁸Earl, op. cit., p. 20.

English,

. . . it is becoming harder and harder to justify the money spent on an educational system which does not seem to be meeting the needs of today's society. Changes to meet these needs are necessary if public confidence is to be maintained.⁶⁹

In this period of competition for tax revenue, the differentiation of tasks can be demonstrated to show the public that it really is getting full value for its tax dollar.

Teacher preparation is also affected by a differentiation of the teaching staff. Specialization calls for a different and more highly developed training than did the traditional approach to teaching. Specialization calls for a generalist's training followed by extensive inservice or staff education. Furthermore, teachers will be expected to acquire a certain amount of expertise in working with youth and in the conveyance of subject matter, as well as a greater expertise in learning theory. The university and school systems will have mutual responsibility in the preparation of teachers. Through differentiation on the basis of a career ladder, induction to the profession might become more natural and gradual, with new graduates continually feeding into the schools while experienced teachers come back to the campus. Furthermore, theory and practice might become more realistically related, and career-long education and re-education might be built in from the beginning.

Differentiated Staffing patterns also call for the use of community resources and non-professional educators to be involved in the school program as regular contributors. Borstad and Dewar have researched

⁶⁹Fenwick English, "Et Tu, Educator, Differentiated Staffing? Rationale and Model for a Differentiated Teaching Staff," TEPS Write-In Papers on Flexible Staffing Patterns No. 4 (Washington, D.C.: National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, National Education Association, August, 1969), p. 3.

the problem of the paraprofessional in the United States and have this to say about their use in the school system:

With more and more children to be educated, and with more and more abilities, skills and information that children need to learn, the supplementary tasks that the teacher must perform loom larger as an impediment in the classroom. The teacher should have help in performing these supplementary tasks, and the paraprofessional is emerging as an excellent alternative.⁷⁰

Dwight Allen and Gary Morrison have some definite views on the use of paraprofessionals for aiding and extending the learning process:

If we are going to make the learning experience meaningful and rewarding for our students then we must avoid using paraprofessionals primarily as disciplinarians, housekeepers or monitors of student activity. We must begin to involve them in experience relevant to their own skills and talents and to the learning growth of students. To give students varied and valuable educational experiences we have to start drawing upon able and creative non-professionals to teach in those areas where the teacher, his degree notwithstanding, is really not qualified to teach The combinations are many and various. To accomplish this, however, differentiated staffing must proceed at both the professional and non-professional levels.⁷¹

In their rationale for team teaching, researchers often present various theories, "developed mainly in the discipline of sociology of work, that stress the value of team approaches. These have generally two elements, cooperativeness and specialization Specialization has been strongly resisted in education."⁷² Macdonald claims "that a high degree of functional specialization is becoming essential to teacher

⁷⁰Rodney M. Borstad and John A. Dewar, "The Paraprofessional and the States," National Elementary Principal, No. 5, 49:63, April, 1970.

⁷¹Allen and Morrison, op. cit., p. 53.

⁷²Peter Coleman, op. cit., p. 31.

effectiveness."⁷³

Elaborating further, Macdonald states that:

The idea of the omnicapable teacher is now a piece of outworn ideological baggage which has to be left behind if schools are to exemplify that efficiency, the demand for which, although uncertain fluctuating and easily distracted, is the authentic voice of contemporary society. Educational efficiency requires that teachers be functional specialists, not generalists. The concept of functional specialization, although widely accepted in science and industry, is a radical one in educational circles, which have not yet committed themselves fully even to subject specialization. What it means in practice is that teachers are employed solely in the capacities for which they appear to be fitted by preparation, endowment, and personal preference. Thus, they may work with individual children, with small tutorial groups, with large tutorial groups, with seminar classes, with large classes, or in a mass-presentation setting. They may diagnose, counsel, carry out formal instruction, specialize in remedial teaching or engage in any of the other tasks now left to the historical teacher. They may even prefer a purely supportive function, for example, the preparation of teaching materials. Whatever their role, they will not readily change it. They will belong to teams whose membership will be representative of different specialties and will be responsible for the general management of instruction.⁷⁴

Differentiated Staffing requires the establishment of a new decision-making structure in which the instructional teams would be the principal members. Peter Coleman believes that this collegial arrangement should have two main purposes:

- 1) It should provide a setting for on-site decision-making about curricula, methods, and students, carried on by the people who must implement the decisions;
- 2) It might substantially promote increased teacher effectiveness by increasing the visibility of the teacher.⁷⁵

⁷³John Macdonald, "Teacher Education: Analysis and Recommendations," The Teacher and His Staff: Differentiating Teaching Roles, Report of the 1968 Regional TEPS Conference (Washington, D.C.: National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, National Education Association, 1969), p. 6.

⁷⁴Ibid., p. 6.

⁷⁵Coleman, op. cit., p. 32.

The collegial group will become the locus of decisions directly affecting the work of the group. According to Coleman, the effects of this situation are of two types:

- 1) Some increased probability of informed and appropriate decisions;

- 2) Some gains in effectiveness of the decisions based on the participation hypothesis: significant changes in human behavior can be brought about rapidly only if the persons who are expected to change will participate in deciding what the change will be.⁷⁶

Differentiated Staffing does not mean merit pay. Merit pay attempts to delineate qualitative differences between teachers and remunerate them accordingly. It usually leaves untouched any change in instructional responsibilities, and does not alter the decision-making structure of the organization. The differentiation of pay by job responsibility is not new to other professions. Rand says that "the differentiation is not made because one is better than the other, but because they perform different tasks within the same office."⁷⁷ Its base is systematic identification of different kinds of responsibility. However, the exact nature and extent of the responsibilities assigned to the various staff levels within a school would be a matter of local option.

Differentiated Staffing as an organizational structure does offer some exciting alternatives to our traditional staffing patterns. However, it also poses some seriously adverse implications in its application. The complexity it introduces in the organization resulted in Firesters' comment that:

⁷⁶Ibid., p. 33.

⁷⁷Rand, loc. cit.

. . . the more complex the structure becomes, and the greater the number of inter-related differential parts, the more energy the organization expends to maintain itself as a system. Substantive change becomes virtually impossible to make without radically altering the structure of the entire organization for change in one part will have repercussions throughout the structure. Substantive change spurs the organization to actively resist change.⁷⁸

Inherent Problems in Implementing Differentiated Staffing. The strength of Differentiated Staffing is in the process it affords schools to determine the staffing pattern appropriate to what the school is trying to accomplish. It is a means, not an end of motivating a school to know itself and then to determine how it can improve itself in the provision of learning experiences for young people.

In implementing this innovation, serious consideration must be given to the effect it can have upon the people concerned, if the transition is to be smooth and the changes accepted, functional and lasting. There are legitimate grounds for the reluctance of teacher and community to abandon the traditional in favor of a functional approach to education.

In general, most communities support the basic traditional school structure and oppose a radical change. The school has evolved into a symbol for social mobility and democratic government. It also serves to evoke nostalgic scenes from the good old days. Parents are much more inclined to criticize the school because it deviates from the image they recall than because it is irrelevant to the present day. In developing a school-supporting element for Differentiated Staffing, it is important that the traditionalist's nostalgic commitment must be considered.

The pupils are bored with the traditional content of

⁷⁸Lee Firester and Joan Firester, Differentiated Staffing: Some Reflections (New York State Education, March, 1970), pp. 27-28.

instruction, but they do not question the legitimacy of it. School subjects bear a close resemblance to the functional disciplines of inquiry found in the large society and in the academic world. They therefore have relevance only for a minority of students who will move into higher education and the established social framework. Yet, when a school chooses to substitute a life-centered curriculum for the textbook, both the students and parents rebel. They want the same content that is used to provide credentials for entry into Universities or the management echelons of industry.

The traditional curriculum provides a continuity which gives the teacher, the student and the community assurance that the educational ship is on course and that the destination has been clearly identified. Although the assurance is illusory, it enables both student and teacher to face each day and week with the composure and grace which seem necessary for educational dialogue. Not having clear cut tasks to perform could initiate traumatic experiences which many practitioners could not survive.

Teachers need varying degrees of structure, and all teachers need some. Without the structure, the teacher with a low tolerance for ambiguities will find the profession psychologically unbearable. Learners, too, vary in their degree to which they can tolerate confusion. A few can set their own goals and pursue them with confidence, with little assistance from the instructor. A few need a clear-cut structure and constant prodding to reach legitimate goals. The remainder are somewhere in between. The structure that gives insufficient support can set the student adrift and make him unwilling to take the risks necessary to extricate himself. The traditional system supports a sizeable portion of

the student body. In advocating a change in organizational structure and especially in decision-making, consideration must be given to implementing comparable support systems in the innovation.

The traditional school with its multiplicity of rules and regulations provides the teacher with an order which brings him/her fear of social chaos and irrationality in the classroom into a tolerable range. The structure of the school day, teacher permissions, attendance, completed assignments, and movement according to bells, is even older than the curriculum. Without the structure, it is unlikely that the traditional curriculum could survive. Therefore, in implementing Differentiated Staffing, the innovators must build into their structure the machinery for establishing orderly social processes in the renovated institution. These provisions must consider not only the enthusiastic self-directed learner, but the uninvolved as well.

The enthusiasm which often greets innovations is sometimes short-lived. This temporary popularity might be explained in terms of the Hawthorne Effect, or waves generated by a national educational fad. The overall result of such popular movements, quickly received and quickly discarded, can be negative. Innovators tend to remain oblivious to the shortcomings of their programs until they have completely destroyed their opposition. Then the breach is irreparable. The Differentiated Staffing innovators can easily fall into the traditionalist trap, equating mass support with rightness.

The teaching profession is composed of individuals with varying degrees of professional competencies. Many teachers would be incapable of devising and managing an individualized, life-centered curriculum without extensive help. The teacher in a classroom of children progressing in lockstep can control the flow of questions and demands made of

him/her, keeping on top of the discipline as he/she perceives it and interprets it to his/her class. The teacher placed in the individualized setting is being asked to nurture the cognitive growth of thirty individuals at thirty different developmental stages and at thirty different rates. The teacher with a minimum of professional competence may find such a task overwhelming. The Differentiated Staffing innovators should point out curriculum materials, helping personnel, and technical aides to enable the teacher to complement his/her inadequacies and successfully manage the classroom.

The teaching profession is also composed of practitioners driven by a variety of motives. Many may lack a concern for the development of an effective, functioning individual. Some teachers get certified as an insurance policy against an economic depression. Others choose teaching because they want to lecture on their favorite subject to a captive audience. Both types of teachers have contracted to play the traditional game and expect the contract to be honored. Such teachers are not necessarily available to teach functional social or communication skills to children in an individualized setting. These groups will not allow their ranks to be either re-educated or replaced in great numbers.

The dream of a situation in which each child is nurtured by a devoted, wise teacher into a person who can be a credit both to himself and to his society at a maximum level of competence is certainly a worthy dream. To accomplish this dream however, requires very radical revision of the traditional school structure and well argued rationales need to be continually communicated to assure both the profession and the public that differentiated staffing can assist a school in being more fully sensitive and responsive to the child's need.

CASE STUDIES

Definition. In defining a case study, English and English state that it is "a collection of all available evidence--social, psychological, biographical, environmental, vocational--that promises to help explain a single individual or a single social unit."⁷⁹

Good and Scates state that it "consists of the data relating to some phase of the life history of the unit or relating to the entire life process, whether the unit as an individual, a family, a social group, an institution or a community."⁸⁰

George J. Mouly has defined it as "the application of all relevant techniques to the study of a person, a group, an institution, or even a community."⁸¹

History. This method, which in recent years has had extensive use in educational research, has been borrowed from the fields of law, medicine, social service and military science. However, in actuality, it is of ancient origin. According to Traxler, "the oldest known case study is a record of child placement, presumably made about 4000 B.C."⁸²

⁷⁹B. Horace and Ava C. English, A Comprehensive Dictionary of Psychological and Psychoanalytical Terms (New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 1958), p. 75.

⁸⁰Carter V. Good, "The Sequence of Steps in Case Study and Case Work," Educational Research Bulletin, No. 6, 21:161, September 16, 1942.

⁸¹George J. Mouly, The Science of Educational Research (Toronto: Van Nostrand Reinhold Co., 1970), p. 347.

⁸²A.E. Traxler, Case-Study Procedures in Guidance (New York: Educational Records Bureau, 1940), p. 1, citing Ruth Strang, Counselling Technics in College and Secondary Schools (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1937), p. 33.

Though the case study procedures have been employed occasionally since that time, it was not until the latter part of the 19th century that case studies were placed on a well organized basis in the field of law. Traxler states that "case studies were initiated in the Harvard Law School about 1870 as a device for training students to think about fundamental principles."⁸³

Also, in the same century, the medical profession began to develop a literature of medicine based on the accurate observation and recording of cases. Case-study procedures were later adopted by sociologists and psychologists because of their value in social investigation.

In the field of education, however, the use of the case study method did not come to the fore until well into the twentieth century when educational innovations began to be treated as changes in patterns of social action. Atwood says that:

Educational innovations became processes described operationally as change from prior states in the number and identity of the people involved, in the direction of action between them, and in the frequencies of the specifiable kinds of events involving them, and in the duration and regularity of these events.⁸⁴

The recent tendency of education to take account of individual differences has brought into focus the need for understanding each pupil, each program, each school or even each school system. Consequently a number of educators are turning to the case-study method as an indispensable aid in explaining individuality. According to McGrath:

⁸³Traxler, loc. cit.

⁸⁴M.S. Atwood, "Small-scale Administrative Change: Resistance to the Introduction of a High School Guidance Program," Innovation in Education, Matthew B. Miles, editor (New York: Columbia University Bureau of Publications, 1964), p. 52.

. . . the utilization of case investigations is of unquestioned value in generating a case for ad hoc evaluations and for designing further inquiry based on hypothesis derived from these investigations.⁸⁵

Furthermore, Barr states that the:

. . . case study is potentially the most valuable method known for obtaining a true and comprehensive picture of individuality. It makes possible a synthesis of many different types of data and may include the effects of many elusive personal factors in drawing educational inferences. It seeks to reveal processes and the inter-relationships among factors that condition these processes.⁸⁶

The Basic Approach of the Case-Study Method. In discussing the case study method, Good states that the basic approach "is to deal with all pertinent aspects of one thing or situation."⁸⁷ It is not necessary to follow a specific outline. Traxler points out that "the main thing is to present the major facts in an orderly fashion and to formulate a plan for using them."⁸⁸ He also suggests that the person doing a case study should "select a case in which he/she is really interested . . . and plan only as much as he/she feels he/she can accomplish."⁸⁹

Wise says that the important thing to remember about the case study method is that it is a "unique research tool that gives us knowledge about particular concrete entities."⁹⁰ He stresses that "a case is simply a

⁸⁵J.H. McGrath, Research Methods and Designs for Education (Pennsylvania: Pennsylvania International Book Co., 1970), p. 106.

⁸⁶Avril S. Barr, et al., Educational Research and Appraisal (New York: J.B. Lippincott Co., 1953), pp. 188-189.

⁸⁷Carter V. Good, Essentials of Educational Research (New York: Appleton-Century Crofts, 1972), p. 328.

⁸⁸Traxler, op. cit. p. 42.

⁸⁹Ibid., p. 43.

⁹⁰John E. Wise, et al., Methods of Research in Education (Boston: Heath and Co., 1967), p. 113.

particular instance an illustrative situation or occurrence. In calling it particular, we emphasize its concreteness and uniqueness, its limit to a given time and place. In calling it an instance, we emphasize that general principles illuminate it."⁹¹

Therefore, it can be readily seen that it is the responsibility of the individual doing the case study to determine just how specific the phase or unit will be. Van Dalen bears this out.

A case analysis is cast within an adequate social framework and the nature of the case determines the dimension of the framework.⁹²

In explaining the procedures developed for us in case study investigations, Hildreth McCashan states that

. . . the case study investigations are concerned with the analysis and treatment of individual persons and things and groups which may be considered as one unit. A case study develops with a partial or entire life cycle process of an individual or group unit. A case study may result from:

- 1) a lack of information about a matter,
- 2) conflicting information, or
- 3) misinformation about some individual or group; or it may occur just as an attempt to gain new insights into factors that result in a given behaviour or complex situation.⁹³

Van Dalen clarifies the uniqueness of the case study approach by specifying that "case studies probe in depth; they may examine the total life of a cycle or a social unit, or may focus on a single phase of it."⁹⁴

⁹¹Ibid., p. 114.

⁹²D.B. Van Dalen, Understanding Educational Research (Toronto: McGraw Hill Book Co., 1962), p. 219.

⁹³Hildreth Hoke McCashan, Elements in Educational Research (Toronto: McGraw Hill Book Co., 1963), p. 21.

⁹⁴Van Dalen, loc. cit.

Galfo and Miller have similar views on the uniqueness of the case study. They state that "the case study is essentially research in depth rather than breadth."⁹⁵ The case study essentially probes beneath the surface, sometimes exposing the causes of factors discovered by surveys.

Advantages of the Case Study Method. Tyrus Hillway, in presenting his arguments for the case study method, says that "When Plutarch wrote his Parallel Lives of some of the great men of ancient Greece and Rome, he was really producing what we might call, in one sense, case histories."⁹⁶ His object was not merely to give interesting information in these biographies but to learn and present for the benefit of his readers the sources and nature of important human qualities of character. Tyrus Hillway says that "Sigmund Freud, originator of psychoanalysis, formulated most of his theories regarding the inner consciousness of men and women by conducting lengthy case studies of his subjects."⁹⁷ Though there may have been a good proportion of the subjective element in this type of study, the method nevertheless did uncover information which might otherwise have been overlooked. Tyrus Hillway states further that Frederic LePlay made some use of the case history method while studying the economic life of lower-class French families.⁹⁸ Frederic LePlay realized that when human beings constitute the subject matter of a study, actual examples of the experiences

⁹⁵A.J. Galfo and E. Miller, Interpreting Education Research (Dubuque, Iowa: W.M.C. Brown Publishing Co., 1965), p. 15.

⁹⁶Tyrus Hillway, Introduction to Research (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1965), p. 238.

⁹⁷Ibid., p. 238.

⁹⁸Ibid., p. 272.

and the development of individual histories add reality to the picture. Quantitative data generally makes the description abstract; case histories make it human.

Culbertson and Hendey back up their argument for the case study by specifying that "case research has been used by sociologists in explicit theory building. Philip Selznick's study of the Tennessee Valley Authority is a good example."⁹⁹ Selznick interprets and analyzes his materials in order to set up hypotheses as a basis for further theorizing. He approaches his materials within a guiding frame of reference but is never committed by the framework to any special hypothesis about the actual events. Instead he is committed to develop hypotheses inductively from the empirical data. Culbertson and Hendey point out that Peter Blau made a similar use of case research. Blau maintained that "the major advantage of the case method was that it lends itself to interlocking various research procedures. Social processes can be examined directly in a case study and explanatory hypothesis can be tested immediately."¹⁰⁰ He also suggests that the case method provides an opportunity for comparing the reliability of different research techniques.

Lovell and Lawson in writing about the advantages of case studies described four which they feel are good examples of the general feeling of researchers towards the case study method.

- 1) Studies carried out at a great depth by trained and experienced persons may reveal data in a way provided by no other form of research.

⁹⁹J.A. Culbertson, and S.P. Hendey, Educational Research: New Perspectives (Danville, Illinois: The Interstate Printers and Publishers Inc., 1963), p. 271.

¹⁰⁰Ibid., p. 272.

2) It is also an extremely useful method to use to study rare or unusual cases of human behavior.

3) The case study method enables a view to be taken of the human being as a unique individual.

4) From case studies information may be obtained which can be gathered by no other means, and which may serve as a basis for further research or be considered in conjunction with information gathered by other methods.¹⁰¹

Skager and Weinberg have a similar opinion about the value and advantages of the case study. They say that:

1) Information can be obtained from case studies which can direct attention to an area requiring research, or which can lend to the discovery of new generalizations.

2) A single case study can offer no more than a hint about what the problem or issue might be. While it does no more than that, at least it does that, which is something. It points to potential rich leads to follow in further inquiry.¹⁰²

In David Fox's opinion, the main advantage of the case study method is directly derived from the definition and rationale of the method itself. He asserts that the case-study method is at the opposite end of the number scale to the mass survey. In the case study

. . . the research unit is one and in fact if it involves more than one, it is made up of analysis of individual cases. In contrast to the mass survey which is content with relatively superficial description of groups or masses of people, the case study seeks to achieve a deep and involved understanding and description of individuals. The basic rationale for the case study is that there are processes and interactions, such as aspects of personality and social functioning, which cannot be studied except as they interact and operate within an individual. Moreover, the probability is that if we learn how these processes

¹⁰¹K. Lovell and K.S. Lawson, Understanding Research in Education (Toronto: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1969), p. 427.

¹⁰²R.W. Skager and C. Weinberg, Fundamentals of Educational Research (London: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1971), p. 110.

interact in some few individuals we shall also learn much about the processes in the abstract, and ultimately learn all there is to know about them.¹⁰³

One final advantage of the case study according to Best is that the case study "is concerned with the life history, or an important part of the life history, of a particular case."¹⁰⁴ Since the case study is not limited to length or time, and since the focus of attention may be directed equally toward a single case or to a limited number of cases, the process is personalized.

The Importance of the Case Study Approach. Social scientists who work with the case study approach have frequently found that the study of a few instances may produce a wealth of new insights. The main features of this approach that make it an appropriate procedure for evoking insights, are described by Deetiz et al:

1) A major one is the attitude of the investigator, which is one of alert receptivity, of seeking rather than of testing. Instead of limiting himself to the testing of existing hypotheses, he is guided by the features of the object being studied.

2) A second feature is the intensity of the study of the individual, group, community, culture, incident, or situation selected for investigation. One attempts to obtain sufficient information to characterize and explain both the unique features of the case being studied and those which it has in common with other cases.

3) A third characteristic of this approach is its reliance on the integrative power of the investigator, on his ability to draw together many diverse bits of information into a unified interpretation. The sole purpose being to evoke rather than to

¹⁰³David J. Fox, The Research Process in Education (Toronto: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1969), p. 427.

¹⁰⁴John W. Best, Research in Education (New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1970), p. 137.

test hypothesis. Even if the case material is merely the stimulus for the explicit statement of a previously unformulated hypothesis, it will serve a worth-while function.¹⁰⁵

Seetiz et al emphasize the importance of understanding that

. . . exploratory studies merely lend to insights or hypothesis; they do not test or demonstrate them. In selecting cases that have special characteristics, one has by definition taken cases that are not typical An exploratory study must always be regarded as simply a first step; more carefully controlled studies are needed to test whether the hypothesis that emerge have general applicability.¹⁰⁶

The method has proved so productive that

. . . in recent years it has been more and more widely employed in certain fields, such as education, and with marked success. If nothing else, the use of the case study can decrease the tendency to misinterpret statistical data. The relationships of isolated factors often can be seen more clearly through intensive case study than through more quantitative analysis.¹⁰⁷

SUMMARY

The literature reviewed in this chapter focused on the topics of change, Differentiated Staffing and the case study. The general conclusion is that change is inevitable in education. Societal pressures have increased the demands for change. Parents are demanding success for their children with humanistic and individualized techniques. Students are asking for curriculum changes that will relate learning to life. Teachers are asking for greater autonomy in their own affairs and more representation in the educational decision-making process. The teaching profession itself is placing more and more emphasis on the innovative aspects of education.

¹⁰⁵Claire Seetiz, et al., Research Methods in Social Relations (Toronto: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1965), p. 60.

¹⁰⁶Ibid., pp. 64-65.

¹⁰⁷Hillway, op. cit., p. 244.

Nearly all in the field are cognizant of the need for change and the direction in which change should proceed.

In the past the paths to school improvement have been directed toward the provision of a preponderance of existing materials, that is, more classrooms, more books, more audio-visual aids, more teachers and the improvement of teaching patterns on the basis of what was already known. At present, the educational process is in the midst of radical change in which everyone is seeking the growth and development of the school system, not merely a growth in size but a growth which is directed toward improved problem-solving techniques, greater potential for action, and greater capacity for adaptation and change. The focus of these efforts is upon the school as a total sociotechnical system. Educators are emphasizing improvement in the kind and quality of learning experiences which the school should provide. They are concerned with educating persons who will be able to cope with forced change that comes from technology, and genuine change that is characterized by new concepts, preceptions and attitudes.

Differentiated Staffing has offered one alternative for educational renewal. It is not, nor does it contend to be, the panacea for all the ills of education. However, in Differentiated Staffing the educators ideally have within their grasp, an innovative organizational plan by which they can stimulate and facilitate significant and self reliant learning on the parts of the teaching staff as well as the students.

The impetus of this innovation is towards all teaching personnel working together in a coordinated effort to basically identify the needs of individuals within an educational community; to provide the means by which these needs can be met on an individual as well as a community basis;

and yet, never to lose sight of the goal of remaining flexible so as to allow for growth, change, excellence and efficiency in the learning continuum. But to achieve these aims, clearly there are costs to be paid in the human expenditure of time and energy, in communication, and in the collaboration of ideas and experiences.

The use of the case study as a method of research was reviewed. Three factors in the basic approach of the case study were found to be significant:

- 1) The case method views any social unit as a whole, whether an individual, a social institution or a community;
- 2) The case is some phase of the life history of the unit of attention, or it may represent the entire life process;
- 3) Insight does not necessarily derive from studying relatively large numbers of cases in groups, with the result expressed chiefly in the form of central tendencies. Many of our most significant insights and understandings arise from close observation of one or few complex cases.¹⁰⁸

Essentially the case study method comprises a careful and comprehensive analysis of the development and status of one individual, group, or institution. The materials used in case study research include information obtained from such sources as personal interviews, observation and questionnaires.

In concluding this chapter it is important to note that a variety of opinions exist on the definition of Differentiated Staffing. However, there is a consensus regarding the goals of Differentiated Staffing and the fact that it is simply one alternative for educational renewal and not a panacea for all the ills of education. It is necessary to remember that

¹⁰⁸Good, op. cit., pp. 328, 413.

Differentiated Staffing is an outgrowth of other innovations which have had the effect of opening the classroom by proposing new instructional techniques, new ways of treating time and new classes of educational personnel.

CHAPTER III

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE PILOT PROJECT OF IMPLEMENTING DIFFERENTIATED STAFFING IN THE SCHOOL Y IN THE SCHOOL DISTRICT X

Early in 1971, the urban school district X, in which school Y is located, found itself in the throes of expansion due to a shifting population. The schools in and near the industrial and commercial areas were being faced with decreasing enrollments and emptying classrooms while the schools near the periphery were becoming over-crowded. Furthermore, the new housing development to the South was rapidly expanding and since most families had at least one child of school age, the existing elementary schools near the area were becoming over-crowded. The lack of facilities necessitated the bussing of youngsters into schools in other areas. The need for a Junior and Senior High School in the district was becoming quite obvious.

To alleviate the over-crowded conditions in the existing schools and to eliminate the extensive bussing of youngsters, a decision was made to build a Collegiate, grades seven through twelve, in the area encompassing the new development. Also, a five-year-old plan was initiated by means of which an intensive study would be made of existing educational facilities in the entire division and a prediction for future needs could be made based on existing and predicted trends of mobility of the population. It was further decided, that to alleviate the immediate problem of over-crowding in the neighbouring elementary school A, the proposed new

school Y would become a Middle School, grades five through eight, for the year 1972-73 and that each year thereafter one grade would be added and the five and six level dropped so that the eventual outcome would be the originally proposed and much needed grade seven through twelve Collegiate.

The school district X was located at the extreme southern edge of an urban school division. The largest segment of the population, except for pockets living in duplexes and town houses, lived in homes that ranged in price from \$30,000 upwards with the basic tax range being in the \$700-\$800 bracket. The population was largely an English-speaking middle or upper class and were mostly in management positions. In most of the families both parents worked.¹

The only other school in the area was an elementary school kindergarten to six. All of the youngsters of Junior High level had to be transported north of a major highway. The population was rapidly increasing with numerous housing developments in progress. It was estimated that there were 1,184 homes in the area, so that about one student attended school from each home. The projected enrollment of the school for 1972-73 was in the excess of 350 with the actual number having been 396 in September 1972. Ninety students of Junior High and High School age had to be bussed to other areas.²

As the need arose for a school, interest in Differentiated Staffing was growing in Manitoba. This was consistent with the Canada-wide search for new staffing patterns for the nation's schools which was prompted by such concerns as the following:

¹Interview with Project Director, November, 1972.

²Ibid.

- 1) The lack of functional differentiation between poor teachers, inexperienced teachers and excellent teachers. There is a growing feeling that individual differences among teachers need to be considered in areas of responsibility assumed, professional tasks performed and results expected. (2:2)
- 2) The classroom teacher does not have an opportunity for monetary advancement unless he goes into administration or supervisory positions.
- 3) The single-salary scale, which teachers fought long and hard for, is based solely on two dimensions of qualification, university preparation and teaching experience.
- 4) The self-contained classroom environment prevalent in many schools today fosters professional isolationism. Opportunities for more frequent use of technology, utilization of the various skills of team members and cross-grade grouping are made easier in an "open" school environment.
- 5) There are frustrations among Canadian educators trying to cope with contemporary ideas, using outmoded staffing arrangements.
- 6) Large class sizes resulting from increases in the pupil-teacher ratio demand the study of alternatives to present staff utilization. New staffing patterns involving differentiation of the teaching function and the use of auxiliary personnel may or may not reduce expenditure. Differentiated Staffing does, however, offer the promise of a greater return for each dollar spent for Canadian education.
- 7) The recently introduced concept in education, namely accountability.
- 8) The trend today toward shared leadership or the collegial approach instead of decision-making in the hands of the administration.
- 9) Concern over teacher competence, expressed in a program for upgrading the competence of all teachers rather than casting out as incompetent a very few teachers.
- 10) The realization that teacher education has not been adequate in terms of the professional requirements of the job.³

³Les M. Hunt, "Differentiated Staffing: Its Implications," Education Canada, 12:1-2, No. 1, March, 1972.

The decision to implement Differentiated Staffing in school district X was based on two specific reasons:

1) Teachers were concerned that a lot of trivial work was taking up valuable teaching time in the school program. Much of the clerical and duplicating responsibilities, as well as supervision and simple organization of students in terms of getting ready for classes and closing off classes could very well have been done by other personnel, thereby leaving the teacher free to pursue the professional aspect of teaching.

2) The increasing pressure to limit the cost of education. It was assumed that as a staff of a school became more familiar with Differentiated Staffing and the school organization became more sophisticated in using parent volunteers and senior students to work along with students, the cost of paraprofessionals might actually be reduced and yet the school might be able to have the same kind of services.⁴

The interest in Differentiated Staffing in Manitoba was spurred by a letter from the Department of Education dated February 1972 inviting "all school superintendents to submit a proposal for differentiating the staff structure of an area within their division for the 1972-1973 year."⁵

Originally, school Y was being developed based on the idea of team teaching, but when Differentiated Staffing became a popular topic in Manitoba, it seemed quite logical that the implementation of the concept, though initiated from the Division level, should be explored in conjunction with the Planning and Research Division of the Department of Education.

On that basis a proposal was submitted to the Planning and Research Division of the Department of Education.⁶

By this time the school had evolved to the stage where the Board

⁴An interview with the Superintendent of the School Division X, November, 1972.

⁵Report on D.S. Conference, R.B. Russell School, February 18, 19, 1972, sponsored by the W.T.A. and the M.T.S., p. 23.

⁶Appendix A, An Urban Manitoba School Division Proposal Paper, p. 126.

could begin looking for a principal and a staff. The type of principal that was wanted was one who would be prepared to look realistically at Differentiated Staffing. Also, the staff would be selected on the basis of the persons being open-minded and ready to look at Differentiated Staffing.

Thus, while the staff wasn't really involved in the initial proposal of the concept, they were in the program from its beginning. They looked at the proposal that had been made by the Superintendent's Office and approved by the Planning and Research Department and were at liberty to make those observations they felt were necessary. One basic understanding was stressed and that was, that the Board wanted the staff to experiment with a Differentiated Staffing type of program with the emphasis on the word experiment.

At no time was it presumed or intimated that the school implement the complete Differentiated Staffing program in one year. It was hoped that the initial staff would form a nucleus for the continuing differentiation. It was visualized that as the enrollment increased the tendency would hopefully be to extend differentiation rather than to extend the percentage basis of the professional staff.

This was to be a three-year project. The first year was hoped to be exploratory in nature; the second year was to be a serious development of the program; and the third year was to be an evaluation or assessment of the benefits, the pros and cons of the program.

One of the main features of the program was that it would become a teaching-learning-experience revolution. This can be defined as a gradual shifting of the responsibility of teaching. It would involve an evolution of a kind, in which learning, instead of being the kind

of thing that the teacher was totally responsible for by providing all the informational input, would become in part the responsibility of the students. The teacher would not be the key source of information. The students would be assisted in developing their capacity to make choices and this experience would be a springboard to going on to other kinds of learning experiences. Such a program would place more responsibility for learning on the student. By providing learning experiences and learning activity options reinforced by a continuous process of self-assessment, the students would be encouraged to become self-directed and self-initiated learners as they progressed through the educational program.

Another aspect in the teaching-learning revolution was the freeing of teachers for the professional duties of teaching by employing para-professionals. The non-teaching tasks such as monitoring corridors and play areas, taking attendance, procturing study halls, mimeographing papers, grading objective exams, reading themes for mechanical errors, and others would be assumed by auxiliary personnel. The teachers, on the other hand, would be devoting their time to developing an individualized instruction program which would be oriented to allowing each child to move at his own pace, through a learning program custom-tailored to meet his own unique needs, interests and abilities. This individualized program would provide for differences in levels of ability; differences in rate of learning to achieve the curricular behavioral and attitudinal objectives; and even differences in the learning goals themselves.

Teachers with particular interests and strengths could be employed to their full potential. Support staff - instructional and clerical aides - would enhance teacher specialization and provide "better

services to pupils in terms of greater adult-to-student ratio and more people with a greater variety of skills"⁷ per pupil ratio.

In order to facilitate this flexible use of teachers, the Board sought to employ a principal who was future-oriented in terms of educational practice, receptive to change, and who possessed a flexible attitude towards shared administration practices.

The principal, or project-director as he was termed, assumed his office on the 24th of May, 1972. Construction of the school was already in progress and completion was scheduled for August 18 of that year. Hence, outside of suggesting and obtaining a few minor changes in the school plant, the project-director, was solely responsible for the hiring of teachers and paraprofessionals, the instruction of the school, and the ordering of texts, library and regular school supplies. The supervision of the construction of the school plant remained in the hands of the Board. The ordering of furniture and equipment was in the hands of the Board's Purchasing Agent.

Not only did the principal inherit a designed and partially constructed school plant, but he had to work within the parameter of a determined philosophy, and temporary grade levels. Thus his responsibility and ingenuity lay in creating a Differentiated Staffing project which was already bounded by terms of space, time, purpose and locale.

The million dollar school was "specifically designed and built for both academic and community purposes."⁸

⁷Interview, Loc. cit.

⁸Press Release, Winnipeg Tribune, November 14, 1972.

The principal aim and concern of all participants was to develop a building in which two separate areas - school and recreational facilities - could be combined and developed on a totally integrated basis, to the benefit of both school and community interests.

The school was made up of a two-story educational block set partially into the ground and connected by ramps to a central, single-story area containing the shared cultural and recreational facilities.

The two-story educational block included classrooms, seminar rooms, language and science labs and a library. The one-story central area included offices, two theaters, an art room, a gymnasium, changing and shower rooms, and kitchen facilities. On the grounds outside was a hockey rink. . . .

All school facilities would be available daily, after 6 a.m. to the residents of the district Recreation Association.⁹

Thus the school and the community would have to work closely to maximize the efficient use of the plant and recreational facilities.

A school of this type needed to attract courageous, exciting people to form the basic core of the original and future staff. The project-director's first concern was to hire the team leaders. Applications had already been submitted to the school division. On the basis of experience, interest and willingness to undertake a new job, with as yet unknown responsibilities, four male team leaders were selected. These in turn met with the project-director and assisted in the hiring of the staff. Preference was given to so-called "super" teachers within the division. The teachers selected had had high recommendations for personal performance within a classroom situation, organizational ability and responsiveness to innovative endeavors.

The project-director and staff met twice in June on a rather informal basis. In July the team leaders and project-director met regularly

⁹ Ibid.

for three weeks beginning July 17. As none of the team leaders had had previous experience in Differentiated Staffing, they used this time to read extensively on existing models of Differentiated Staffing in the United States. Jointly they drew up the roles of the project-director, team leaders and paraprofessionals. They also worked on scheduling and a tentative staff philosophy of the school.¹⁰ Their approach was a child-centered school with a focus on the learner, success, and reality. From this point of reference, they then drew up tentative rules and regulations for visitors and dealing with parents; field trips, policies regarding rewards, audio-visual equipment; and the mechanics of school opening.

The entire staff met on August 15 to begin a ten-day intensive workshop. They reviewed and refined the policies and procedures set up by the project-director and the team leaders. They also debated at length the child-centered school approach and later adopted it unanimously as the basic philosophy of the school. Work on the goals and objectives of the school was postponed until a later, undefined date in favor of making immediate discussions on practical matters such as the dress code for teachers and students, library use, open campus policies, student council, staff activities, evaluation, time table, curriculum, mini-courses, roles of resource and guidance personnel, in-service training, finance and continuous progress.

Throughout this period, the meetings alternated between total group participation, team meetings, and team-leader meetings. Three resource persons provided valuable input:

- a) the Guidance Supervisor from the district,
- b) the Evaluation Director from the Department,
- c) the Communications Facilitator from the Department.

¹⁰Appendix B, Philosophy of the School, p. 131.

Delay of the opening of the school seemed inevitable as construction difficulties arose. Up to this point the project-director and staff had been working both in the Board office and in a neighbouring school. The opening date, September 5, had to be postponed until September 11 and even at that date, the project-director and staff had to make serious attempts to adapt existing situations to the needs of the students.

With much improvisation, gym classes were held outdoors, art classes were re-scheduled for the science room, the designated but incomplete art room was converted into a kindergarten room to accommodate the overflow of youngsters from the neighbouring school, music classes were temporarily suspended, desks were borrowed from neighbouring school divisions for use until the furniture arrived, and offices were re-shuffled from room to room and floor to floor as walls were being completed, floors were being cleaned and space was being made available. Finally, an unexpected increase in student enrollment had to be accommodated by an already over-taxed staff and time-table.

Construction of the physical plant continued simultaneously with the growth and organization, and at times, re-organization of the functions of the school program.

The official opening of the school was set for November 10. Staff meetings were held regularly to work out day to day problems. Team meetings began to evolve. Team workshops were held for the staff in the latter part of November. One team leader attended a workshop-conference on Differentiated Staffing on the Western Coast of the U.S.A. Plans were being laid for an entire team to visit a neighbouring U.S. school district which was renowned for its success in Differentiated Staffing.

As the first term drew to a close it was evident that the school was functioning but that the project-director and staff were under severe strain. What were the specific problems they were coping with? Were they feeling a sense of direction and accomplishment? Was the school functioning in the Differentiated Staffing approach?

In the following chapter, the observer will attempt to discuss the roles and functions of the staff and project-director as they themselves perceived them. The degree to which they felt these roles were actualized in the given circumstances will also be investigated.

CHAPTER IV

ROLE DESCRIPTIONS

INTRODUCTION

Differentiated Staffing as it existed at school Y in urban Manitoba, was developed by the principal and the team leaders. They believed that reorganizing staff roles and responsibilities were the most essential factors in implementing the new program. They also felt that clearly defined staff roles with opportunities for shared decision-making would help the school conserve its resources and provide additional incentives to keep competent teachers in the classrooms. The staff tried to create a school that would not be characterized by the anonymity and impersonality so typical of large schools but would be one where the uniqueness and individuality of the teacher and the student would be respected. They also sought to establish a broad inter-disciplinary approach where programs would be suited to the individual needs, interests and abilities of the students. Teaching would be done in large groups, small groups, as well as on an individual basis. New adult roles would be established, arranged in new patterns to facilitate flexible grouping and personal response to the needs of students.

It was hoped that an institution would be created where students would see adults working together honestly, openly dealing with their differences. This would minimize the rigid and impersonal relationships which often characterize the adult relationships and/or adult-student relationships within schools. The specifics of the staffing patterns

and the general problem of their implementation are the subject of this chapter.

Staffing Pattern

The staffing pattern that was developed for the urban school was a melding of the structure of a system of coordinators, department heads, and team leaders with area-specialist teachers and instructional aides. At the heart of the pattern was the team of instructors. Positions requiring the least developed instructional skills and competencies were manned by aides. Those demanding the most sophistication were held by team leaders who were in effect vice-principals, yet according to the roles they set up for themselves, they were to be fulfilling the functions of Discipline Coordinators and Area Specialists.

The operational features unique to the staffing model of the school became clear through an examination of the curriculum for which it was staffed differentially and through the specifics of team organization and operation. Teams were established at the school to teach general education in the grade five and six level and area specialization in the seven and eight level. Most teams consisted of a leader, two or three experienced teachers and an instructional aide. Team members had different academic backgrounds and thereby brought to each team different perspectives of several disciplines. Each team was responsible for approximately 108 students, grades five through eight. The actual time each team worked with the students varied with the discipline and/or needs of the students. Each team worked closely with such resource people as the counsellor, music teacher, and art teacher in designing, developing, implementing and evaluating the child-centered approach to each course of study.

The overall aim of the team leader-coordinator approach was to provide the students with a base of knowledge and to help them develop a set of communication and inquiry skills that would enable them to function creatively and humanely in a society where the only constant is change.

By the use of privilege cards, students were encouraged to clarify their basic values and develop a commitment to act upon these values within the framework of their rights and responsibilities as participants in the democratic process.

In the areas of Science and Social Studies, students were taught to do analytical thinking, make decisions, and be committed to life-long learning and personal growth. The teacher as the creator helped each child develop his commitment for learning by placing the welfare of the student above coverage of content; by allowing the student the time and providing the support for him to work out his problems. The teacher served as a guide, catalyst and resource. The teacher did less talking and more listening in order to allow the student to: a) find himself through the expression and recognition of his own interest, ability and motivation; b) develop his independence in his learning situation; c) find out how much he already knew, and to continue learning through his selection of gradeless learning situations; d) select his learning situations and with them his learning goals. In this way the students were assisted in accommodating their learning interests. Through this the individuals were placed in an attractive atmosphere of learning, where learning was both an intellectual and emotional experience. They were being guided in their learning-situation-selection so that their desire to learn would be firmly

established.

The special areas of Art, Music, Physical Education and French as a second language were geared to help the student develop a positive identity and self-concept by allowing the learning to be self-paced and continuous. It was designed to challenge the student to develop his interests, aptitudes, and special talents.

The reception and transmission of communication was emphasized in the Language Arts program. It was designed to enable students to explore the aspects of hearing and seeing in terms of comprehension, evaluation, and interpretation as well as to facilitate the ability of speaking and writing fluently.

Each member of a team participated actively in the social and emotional development of each student. The team leaders assisted the teachers in planning and organizing their instruction and provided feedback on teaching effectiveness.

Staff Roles

There was a great deal of promise and problems inherent in each of the staff roles. Since these roles were envisioned in terms of their impact and the purposes they were to serve, prime consideration was given to an effective deployment of the teacher's working time.

The Project Director. The role of the project director changed more than any other in the initial stages of organization. Originally the project director was to serve as a principal in the early operation of the school and was to:

- 1) Develop a tentative plan of operation for the school.
- 2) Establish and define the key leadership roles and recruit suitable staff for these positions.

3) Along with his key personnel, review the objectives and tentative operational plan for the school and set up a critical path for the following:

- a) community consultation program,
- b) assessment of student needs,
- c) Curriculum planning,
- d) Recruitment of necessary professional personnel,
- e) establish categories and recruit necessary non-professional personnel,
- f) prepare and initiate program of staff training,
- g) schedule student programs,
- h) propose a system of program evaluation.

4) Act as resource person to other schools who are ready to explore and to implement Differentiated Staffing programs.¹

In the early stages of planning, in August 1972, the project director's work was redefined with an emphasis on the managerial aspect.

- 1) Establishing the needs of the community.
- 2) Selecting and being responsible for the staff.
- 3) Budget planning.
- 4) Ongoing in-service training.
- 5) Short and long range planning.
- 6) Developing evaluative criteria for both personnel and programs.²

Specifically the expectations of the staff, regarding the role of the project director included such tasks as:

- 1) Establishing a liaison with parents, Superintendent's Department, etc.
- 2) Performing supervisory duties.
- 3) Coordinating instruction, personnel, functions.

¹Appendix A. An Urban Manitoba School Division, p. 129-130.

²Appendix C. Responsibilities, p. 133.

4) Supporting staff and projects alike.

5) Key decision-making.³

The project director in attempting to carry out the conventional responsibilities of a principal in a new setting found himself in a complex and unique situation. His duties were compounded by the expectations of the urban school board committed to Differentiated Staffing, an institution struggling to individualize and humanize all relationships, a school that placed a great amount of responsibility for learning in the hands of the students, an organization seeking to involve as many individuals as possible in the process of decision-making, and a school expecting to have its objectives closely reflect the needs of the community and the philosophy and ability of the staff without ever having made a formal assessment of these needs and strengths.

As commendable as these features were, they nonetheless required enormous amounts of time, imagination, resources and patience. There were no precedents for setting policies, carrying out given tasks or handling the myriad of other problems.

The project director as key decision-maker became overloaded with unfulfilled tasks. It had been initially assumed that the administrative functions might take a quarter of the project director's time but the accounting for students' routine class schedules and attendance problems became far more time-consuming than had been anticipated.

Secondly, the activities of general organization and management were obviously so important that no one thought of curtailing them for

³Ibid.

the sake of other assignments. The tasks of management which included ordering supplies and furniture, checking on the incompleted building, arguing and pressuring sub-contractors into completing jobs so that the school could open at a reasonable date, seeing to the fact that the playground was accessible to students, were all very critical to the school's operation.

Thirdly, an unfortunate but probably unavoidable amount of confusion and inefficiency resulted from having a school so designed that it restricted a free flow and exchange of teachers and students at an elementary level. Decentralized decision-making, Independent Directive Study privilege cards (I.D.S.), the open campus and humanizing the atmosphere, can be frustrating in practice, however laudable in theory. These necessitate broad, open, multi-use spaces, freely accessible conference rooms, teacher interaction across the grade levels, and a general atmosphere of trust. The project director, who as the personifier of the philosophy of the school was expected to build into his school the kind of organizational climate which would make the school a safe and challenging place for creative students and teachers. He was expected to keep all communication lines open and to see that staff members and students talk to one another regularly about mutual concerns of importance to the institution. He was also expected to see that team leaders and teachers in the school were not afraid to make important decisions about their jobs. As to the pupils, the project director was expected to see that they were treated as responsible persons. He was to be available to them at all times and to encourage and support them in the attainment and use of independent study time and open campus privileges. These measures were geared to place the responsibility for

learning, use of time and bearing the consequences of decisions on the students, thus allowing them the opportunity of growing into mature, self-motivating, and self-directive individuals.

The role of the project director was forced to undergo an almost immediate change. Within two weeks of the commencement of classes the administrative secretary assumed the task of executive assistant to the principal. Under the supervision of the principal she was made responsible for the implementation of the school administration policies, the performance of stenographic and clerical work and the training and supervision of all clerical staff in the school.

The project director was freed to give his attention to overall administration, supervision and curriculum building.

Executive Assistant to the Project Director. The position of executive assistant to the project director, or business administrator arose out of the necessity to relieve the project director of many of the management duties.

Specifically the role of the executive assistant to the director included tasks such as:

- 1) Organizing most student activities.
- 2) Supervising stenographic and clerical work.
- 3) Training and supervising all clerical staff.
- 4) Implementing school administrative policies.⁴

Team Leaders. The school had four team leaders, each of whom headed up a team of teachers, aides and students. Working with each team was the counsellor, resource teacher, and as the need arose, a social worker. The team leader reported directly to the project director and

⁴Appendix C. Ibid., p. 133-134.

was responsible for the following:

- 1) Determining policies and guidelines related to improving instruction and conducting research.
- 2) Participating in ongoing in-service programs.
- 3) Co-ordinating the use of school-wide facilities and resources.
- 4) Establishing a liaison between teacher and project director.
- 5) Assuring that the school-wide instructional program was implemented.
- 6) Evaluating the program of the school in achieving its objectives.⁵

Specifically the responsibilities of the team leader included such tasks as:

- 1) Convening meetings.
- 2) Evaluating and reporting.
- 3) Making decisions on team level.
- 4) Solving staff problems.⁶

The team leaders, like the project director were strong and viable though not problem free. Their job had been envisioned as one which would coordinate the teachers planning together in a significant way, assisting the teachers as they taught along side each other, evaluating together regularly and intensely, and discussing all of the children within the team on some regularly scheduled basis. It was hoped that the teams would become the primary organizational units within the school.

⁵Appendix C. Ibid., p. 134.

⁶Ibid.

The definition of the team leader's role precluded teaching teams which is interpreted as groups of teachers who share major responsibility for the instruction of the same group of students, and who coordinate their instructional activities among themselves. This interpretation formally recognizes the concept of shared responsibility and the implementation of this through teacher-group coordination of individual and group instructional activities. Furthermore, it requires regular interaction among team members, and this interaction of necessity is related to instruction. The leadership exerted by the various team leaders contributed materially to some of these accomplishments but the lack of role clarification and purpose, created a preponderance of cross-line communication, as well as unnecessary expenditures of time and energy on trivial matters.

Day to day activity at the school was often spontaneous. The team structure attempted to provide maximum flexibility in grouping students for learning. Groups were formed for instructional purposes rather than administrative purposes. The size of the class often ranged from the total group to a single student. It varied from day to day, depending upon the purpose of the class. When the entire team was working on the same general concept, such as energy in science or interdependency in social studies, all the students were brought together to see a film or hear a guest lecturer.

For a student who needed more individual or small-group instruction, an instructional aide was usually available to work with him/her. Students also had excellent opportunities to teach and learn from one another in the small groups. Fellow students became additional resources, rather than competitors for the teacher's time. Thus the teachers and

students were confronted with a remarkable variety of challenges in both the academic and social spheres of the school. The team leader, charged with managing not only his team's instructional program but the overall school programs in his area of specialization, had to be attuned to the different sections within the school as well as those of his team. For example, the guest speaker, or important major film, or field trip from his team might well be helpful to the students and staff of another team. The responsibility of always being informed, confronted the team leaders with an exhausting and endless series of tasks.

However unwieldy the job of team management became, the team leaders at the school welcomed the opportunity of providing real leadership within their team setting, as well as attempting to generate the master-teacher expertise in their area of specialization. It was hoped that the strain of the job would be compensated for by the benefit of warm personal relationships among the team leaders, teachers and students, thus providing for an atmosphere of trust, openness and mutual responsibility.

Beyond management, the team leaders had the enormous responsibility of spearheading the daily development of a broad program of mini courses. The topics ranged from drugs and alcohol, family life to chess playing and gourmet cooking.

Like all schools in the province, school Y worked within a limited budget but had the additional burden of newness. There simply were not enough resources to do the job. As a result the team leaders were constantly engaged in a search for additional resources whether in the form of teaching personnel, time, space, supplies, equipment or funds. This inevitably led to further frustration. One difficulty was

the responsibility of leading a group of teachers from diverse academic backgrounds to agree on a set of philosophical assumptions about what and how students should learn and then attempting to develop courses that were both intellectually respectable and sufficiently encompassing to accommodate the range of interests and abilities of the student body.

Staff Teachers. Each team had two or three certified teachers with different academic backgrounds. The staff teacher's responsibilities were divided into two categories: those concerned with students and those concerned with professional growth. These included tasks such as:

- 1) Determining long range curricula.
- 2) Advising and counselling pupils.
- 3) Maintaining an appropriate learning environment.
- 4) Evaluating pupil progress.⁷

The teacher was directly responsible to the team leader to which he/she was assigned. He/She was responsible for implementing the instructional design planned for the group of students assigned to the team. Though the teachers worked in teams by areas of study, the lessons often were taught by individual teachers in large group meetings, aided by an instructional assistant or by another member of the team. Small group teaching was done directly by teachers in a teacher directed classroom situation. Tutoring or special assistance was most often the responsibility of the aide.

The teachers were freed from some of the managerial and clerical tasks which might have prevented them from devoting more time to activities that could have more of an impact on the education of students.

⁷Ibid., p. 135-137.

They could thus view teaching as a set of functions or roles shared by members of the staff and fulfilled when and as need and competence met and matched. Instruction was essentially learner-centered, not teacher-centered. The teacher as talker and teller gave way to the teacher as listener and guide.

Paraprofessionals. A major objective in employing paraprofessionals was to increase the effectiveness of professional personnel. The team leaders in setting up the job description for the paraprofessional hoped that allowing paraprofessionals to assume supportive roles not requiring the extensive training of certified personnel, the teachers would gain more time for student instruction and guidance. Thus the paraprofessional duties were divided into four categories: instructional, clerical, maintenance, and miscellaneous duties. These duties were further sub-divided into time allotments. The training of each aide was the responsibility of each team leader. Since the roles of the team leaders were far from clear, this had an effect on the aides and the training of the paraprofessionals. In general, the roles of the paraprofessional included the following tasks:

- 1) Correcting papers and workbooks.
- 2) Providing individual assistance to children needing extra help.
- 3) Assisting the professionals on the teams.
- 4) Assisting with extraneous duties such as parties, etc.
- 5) Being responsible for audio-visual materials and equipment.⁸

⁸Ibid., p. 138-142.

Role of Students

A child-centered school presupposes the belief that the development of the human potential takes place in the area of the intellect and emotions in an atmosphere of freedom, responsibility and choice. By learning the lessons of the mind and heart on his own, a student would become self-directive, that is, he would discover himself, and become a better developed person in relation to others. His first responsibility, then, would lie in what he becomes and how he lives. He would require opportunities to think for himself. An indicator of a student's worth would be his autonomy and his ability to use his independence. His autonomy could exist only when his uniqueness, humanity and dignity would be respected. The student then would be able to follow his own life style which is the image of his personality. Through this life style the student would express his self discovery: himself.

The personalized program at school Y had been designed to allow the individual student to find himself through the expression and recognition of his own interest, ability and motivation. In allowing the student to be himself and to develop his independence in learning situations, it was hoped that he would come to that self-possession of ideals for which man makes personal sacrifices throughout his life.

While the role of the student had not been defined in any specific terms, it was generally assumed that the students would be active learners in laboratory or workshop settings. There would be an emphasis on inquiry and discovery. A high priority would be placed on creative work and original approaches. The development of hobbies or leisure time activities as well as in depth studies of topics or fields not of common concern would be promoted.

As an effective motivational device the staff agreed upon the use of Independent Study Privilege Cards. These cards would be renewable every month and would be given on the basis of merit, that is any student could earn a privilege card provided he did his work to the best of his ability, did not cause malicious disturbances either in class or in and amongst the students whether on the playground, or in the gym, or at any school activity. The cards would enable a student to go to the library, the study room, the gymnasium, school yard or school lounge or any other available area which had been designed for such use, in his/her free time. In addition, the eighth year students could be away from the premises during the first and last periods of the day if their timetable indicated an Independent Study period at those times.

The cards would be reviewed every month and the students were aware that the cards could be revoked for a just cause by any member of the staff. The teacher that would revoke a card was obliged to interview the student and explain the results as well as advise the homeroom teacher and the office that the card had been revoked.⁹ Thus the students and education entered into dialogue. Personal relationships between students and teachers were formed. Such contacts were not those of confrontation but of clarification which hopefully led to mutual learning.

⁹ Minutes of the Staff Meeting, November 2, 1972.

SUMMARY

Differentiated Staffing involves radical alterations in the organization of the teaching-learning process and in the roles and relationships of members of the school's staff and pupils. However, simply re-organizing roles does not automatically bring with it changes of attitudes. In reality, role re-organization, preparing new programs, participating in collective decision-making, training teacher aides, altering and re-altering teaching schedules as well as anticipating next year's needs make implementation of Differentiated Staffing an arduous task.

CHAPTER V

PROBLEMS OF IMPLEMENTATION

INTRODUCTION

The present study focuses on an organizational innovation, Differentiated Staffing. This is a staff utilization scheme in which the diverse skills, talents, intellectual prowess and drives within a given teacher population are recognized and utilized for carrying forward innovations and involving teachers in substantive decision-making affecting the entire educational establishment. In a school with a differentiated staff, the classroom teacher is given the opportunity, through institutional arrangements, to become the major change agent. The new physical and organizational arrangements of a Differentiatedly Staffed school are intended to change the work of the teachers, to break down the professional isolation of the traditional elementary and junior high teacher, and the rigid relationship between the teacher and the given classroom full of students.

Organizational innovations, however, have a way of going awry. Time and time again, evaluation studies of major changes in organizational structures show that fundamentally at the level of day to day work, nothing changes. This may be partly due to the nature of the innovation and partly to the uniqueness of the situation. Most often it is due to a heavy reliance on structural change in the belief that appropriate behavior changes will automatically follow. The case at hand is no exception.

The complexity of a Differentiated Staffing model necessitates an adequate preparatory phase before implementation is attempted. The term 'adequate' is relevant to the needs of the community, staff and pupils. With respect to the staff at school Y, it was perceived that they needed time to:

- 1) become familiar with the nature of the instructional innovation to which they had committed themselves;
- 2) acquire skills at shared-decision-making;
- 3) define the boundaries of new relationships, especially in terms of teams and teacher/paraprofessional;
- 4) work out procedures for new instructional modes;
- 5) translate structural changes into behavioral and rational changes.

After a brief preparation - formulation plan, school Y plunged into the implementation phase of Differentiated Staffing. The scope of this study embraces the initial four month implementation phase as well as the three month preparation phase. The findings of this chapter are based on a five month observation period, combined with an intensive two month interview period.

The observations were confined to staff meetings, team meetings, team teaching situations, teacher directed classroom situations, and informal gatherings in the staff room.

The interviews were conducted with twenty staff members, exclusive of the project director, and business manager. The interview guide consisted of twenty-five questions, sub-divided into five categories, namely:

- 1) Clarification of roles.
- 2) Staff utilization.

- 3) Student needs.
- 4) Preparation phase.
- 5) Modes of instruction.¹

Questions were answered in total confidentiality and anonymity.

The results of the interviews were used to corroborate the observations concerning staff utilization and use of new programs.

UTILIZATION OF STAFF

Differentiated Staffing is a fundamental alteration in school organization. It implies flexible use of human resources. A full complement of adults other than the teaching staff is involved in the differentiation process. Paraprofessionals act as aides and clerks, and thus free the full professional for more difficult and sophisticated tasks. The principal becomes a coordinator, manager and facilitator. The teacher becomes an activator in initiating learning in the pupils and a motivator, seeking various material and methods to expedite learning.

The aim of Differentiated Staffing is to maximize the use of the various talents and skills among those most directly engaged in the instruction of children. In school Y, an attempt was made to differentiate the staff solely on the re-organization of the roles and responsibilities of the project director (principal), team leaders, teachers, paraprofessionals and the executive assistant to the director.

The full differentiation was put into effect immediately. It was observed that the lack of: time for planning, training, and preparing; clear cut organizational and structural objectives; a hierarchy of priorities; a decision-making structure; a planning schedule; and a

¹Appendix D, Interview Schedule, p. 142.

finished plant had their impact on the implementation phase. There were great expenditures in time and energy. The project director, team leaders, and staff were under great strain. Gradually the trials and tribulations of the transition period were attributed to the concept of Differentiated Staffing itself, rather than to the realities involved in organizational change.

Peer Relationships

The majority of the faculty of school Y were recruited from other elementary schools in the district. A few were recruited from neighboring Junior High Schools. One teacher was a recent graduate of the Teachers' College. The experience range was from zero to twelve years, with the exception of the project director, who had had a long and varied educational career.

Most of the teachers were articulate, independent and innovative in their viewpoints and energetic in their teaching style. In coming to the school, each had to undergo a transformation from being an isolated but highly competent teacher to being one of many able teachers in a group; from a style of operation characterized by independence to one requiring cooperation. It was noted that the adjustment was difficult. The effective functioning of teams staffed according to differentiated roles and responsibilities demanded changes in many teachers. One of the most difficult was that of shared decision making.

The staff had not had time to work out a planning strategy to cope adequately with the great number of alternatives which opened up as a result of teacher co-operation. Flexibility created by a myriad of alternatives led to decisions being made hastily in response to immediate

needs and as a result created an unresponsiveness to needs that developed subsequently, that is, the so-called flexible schedules became rigid; decisions were based on need for consensus rather than on the needs of pupils.

There was a noticeable lack of a rationale for the kind of decisions the teams were required to make in terms of the kinds of learning that was best suited to large or small group instruction.

Several of the teachers did not have the capacity to describe objectively what they were doing so that others could emulate them. It became apparent that these teachers became threatened by proposals they felt they could not handle. This became a serious drag on their colleagues who could not discern what it was the teachers wanted accomplished, or who was to be accommodated in order to maintain team morale. Plans were therefore cast at the level of gross techniques on which the teachers could communicate and the result was a low-level of decision-making.

The teams did not have adequate print and non-print resources, reading materials, achievement tests, personality inventories, etc. Though this was a direct result of an incompleted and unequipped plant, it nevertheless hampered the decision-making process. The teachers could not meet to discuss objectively pupil needs, or progress, since they had no data on which to base their discussions.

In terms of working in a differentiated staff, there were real demands for face-to-face interaction in the conduct of the activities of the group. Close cooperation was often called for. As a group of independent teachers the staff had not been prepared for inter-group relations, group working conditions, maintaining inter-group

communication, integration and measuring the effectiveness of a teaching team situation.

The three week preparatory period did not allow sufficient time for becoming used to another person's teaching style, and for planning new courses. The result was that as the pressures of working in teams and/or running a classroom mounted, frustration increased and a drop in morale was perceived. The tension tended to create hurt feelings over trifling matters. This resulted in small cliques being formed for supportive reasons.

A further complication was that the person assigned by the Department of Education to serve as a communications facilitator did not gain the confidence of the staff. The staff was thus left to cope by themselves with a problem they did not clearly recognize as stemming from styles of operation. Before long, the situation was allowed to slip to a personal level. In some instances the tension was permitted to penetrate the ranks of the students.

Role Clarification

A staffing pattern should enhance a school's capacity to function effectively. It was noted that school Y, in attempting to implement a team structure where members had differentiated responsibilities, did not clearly delineate the roles and responsibilities of the team leaders or the type of team in use for grade levels as well as for staff relationships. In reality there were three types of teams operating within the school.

The Elementary team included all classes in the five and six level. The team consisted of one team leader, several sub-teams, or as

more accurately termed, specialized cooperative teacher groups in the areas of Social Studies, Language Arts, Mathematics and Science. The French cooperative group planned their program together but taught their levels individually. In fact, instruction took place on a classroom basis. However, since the Language Laboratory was used almost exclusively, individualized instruction was very high in the French program. The Art, Music and Physical Education were taught in teacher directed classroom situations but great emphasis was placed on individualization, self expression and creativity. Resource teaching and Counselling were done on an individual pupil basis and only as the need arose.

The Junior High team never really existed as a team, except as a reference point for teachers in that level. Instead, this level was divided into several areas of specialty having team leaders responsible for each area. A more accurate nomenclature for them would be Department Heads. Their main work consisted of coordinating the instruction in the areas of Language Arts, Social Studies, Mathematics and Science. Instruction in the Social Studies area was done on a contractual basis. The pupils consulted with the team leader and made agreements as to types of topics to be pursued, style of reporting, extent of research to be done and time for accomplishing the work. French instruction was given by a member of the five and six level French Coordinating group. The Art, Music, Physical Education, Resource Teaching and Counselling were identical to that in the five and six level.

The third type of team, more properly designated by the team leader's name rather than need was one that cut across subject lines and grade levels. It was to have been a source of inter-personal relationships and mutual support but became the major source of friction.

In some respects the four teams belonging to this last category were an extension of the Junior High teams and in some instances it could never be determined just what these teams were or who belonged to them. Each team consisted of a team leader, the five and six level team leader and the three team leaders from the seven and eight level, and the teachers in the same area of specialty as the team leader, plus one or two teachers in the fine arts area and one aide.

Many demoralizing and embittering problems stemmed from this team arrangement. A breakdown in communication resulted and eventually the staff became divided into two opposing camps, the five and six level versus the Junior High. The process of decision-making at the team level became difficult. Though there was willingness to participate, difficulties concerning pupil evaluation, individualization and even Open Campus Privileges were generated by divergent philosophies among the teachers as well as different conceptions about the role of the team leader. No one, not even the team leaders themselves, was able to define his role clearly.

Informing different teachers within different teams so that teachers and students thoroughly understood and could discuss the complexities of issues and the implications and consequences of alternative choices, became exceedingly laborious and time consuming for the team leaders. Staff meetings took on a demoralizing tone and were perceived as something to be endured and disposed of as quickly as possible.

Further consequences of the lack of role clarification of the team leaders was the noticeable absence of a sense of belonging to a team in the teachers. This feeling was equally shared by the para-professionals.

Table 1
Interview Responses to Role Clarification

Question Topics	Responses		
	Positive	Negative	Undecided
Definition of Differentiated Staffing	4	14	2
Advantages of Differentiated Staffing	11	3	6
Role clarity (Self)	6	11	3
Role clarity (Other)	0	20	0
Recommend Improvements in Role Clarity	17	2	1

*An Urban Manitoba School, Interviews with staff, October-November, 1972.

**N=20

On the basis of the data shown in Table 1, it can be clearly seen that when the twenty staff members were interviewed, there was a 100% negative response to the clarity of the roles of the team leaders, and also that of the paraprofessionals. A typical response from a team leader was: "Department-Head Team Leaders. There's nothing to get excited about because it's a mix-up. I don't understand it myself. The staff is divided into four teams for purposes of social relationships but then for purposes of team work, or subject areas it is divided even further. There seems to be three full jobs in one but I don't think anybody understands it."²

A typical response from a paraprofessional was: "Our roles are

² An Urban Manitoba School, interviews with staff, October-November, 1972.

not clearly defined. Teachers come up to me all the time and say, 'Can you do this? Are you supposed to be doing that?' I'm not sure what I'm supposed to be doing."³

Of the twenty persons interviewed on the question of role clarification, six persons could see their roles clearly because they were involved in the specialist areas of Music, Art, French, Counselling, and Library work. The team leader in the five and six level was fairly clear of his role in terms of instructional leadership and was therefore listed as a positive response.

In most cases, the negative feelings about the clarity of one's personal role, did not arise as much from a lack of knowledge of the role as a teacher in a closed classroom but as "the role of a teacher in a team situation, specifically in the relationships of teacher-teacher, teacher-team leader, teacher-aide and teacher-project director."⁴

It became evident during the interviews that much of the difficulty with role clarity stemmed from a lack of knowledge of Differentiated Staffing as an organizational innovation. Only four members had some definite ideas about the definition of Differentiated Staffing, its possibilities for the maximum utilization of the talents of the staff, and the benefits that could be reaped by reorganizing personnel, time, space and curriculum. As eighty per cent of the staff had no clear conception of what was meant by Differentiated Staffing, "they could not foresee advantages in implementing it, other than having a few aides."⁵ The result was that when communication broke down and

³Ibid.

⁴Ibid.

⁵Ibid.

frustrations mounted, the staff was not in a position to look for the source of trouble in their own staffing pattern and role expectations.

Career Line Satisfaction

Theoretically, the opportunities for professional growth and development in a Differentiated Staffing pattern are quite attractive. An individual may enter a school at any point in the matrix and proceed either vertically or horizontally, as his career goals and/or opportunities direct, and as he gains specialized skills and competencies.

In general the components of the school Y model had not actually been operational long enough for anyone to visualize, let alone enjoy, professional advancement. While the roles of project director and of team leader offered possibilities of career enhancement, the lack of role clarification, and therefore clearcut lines of authority, often made decision-making difficult and cumbersome. The team leaders found themselves going to the project director for direction and permission. As one team leader stated, "This stems from not knowing what our problems and powers really are."⁶

Staffing Design

One of the major weaknesses identified in this Differentiated Staffing project was the design or rather, the lack of design or model. Little consideration was given to the aims of the school. In fact, the goals and objectives of the school were never stated and the staff tried to function under a rather loosely knit broad philosophy of a child-

⁶Ibid.

centered school. No one was really clear about the definition of a child-centered school. Nor was anyone clear about the definition and implications of Differentiated Staffing. In all the months of observation, it was noted that a meeting was never held to discuss the meaning of Differentiated Staffing. As a result the staff had no common operational base. Furthermore, because of pressures of time regarding the opening of the school, the philosophy of the school had been prepared before the assessment of the needs of the community or students was made. Consequently, the professional and paraprofessional staff positions were identified more in terms of a numerical ratio than according to levels of necessary tasks or needs.

Early in the implementation period, in fact, in the preparatory weeks, it became clear that when members of the staff spoke about Differentiated Staffing, team teaching, individualized instruction, goals and objectives, there was no consensus as to the definition of the terms. There was gross unclarity in conceptualizing and defining what the school was attempting to implement. This resulted in two distinct ideas of team approaches to teaching, one in the elementary level and a different one in the junior high level and a third one which had no real base but which crossed grade levels and subject areas and would have hopefully strengthened the bonds of personal relationships. This was a potential source of friction. While it was generally assumed that the Differentiated Staffing model included all the levels of the elementary and junior high grades, operationally two distinct models existed. Staff members interpreted decisions and/or questions in the light of the teams they belonged to, that is, the Elementary or Junior High team rather than a cooperative system of teams within a school.

The institution of relatively autonomous instructional teams in the Junior High level as opposed to the Elementary team led to the fragmentation of the staff. The teachers had not had sufficient in-service work in communication skills and human relations and therefore tended to view the meetings, confrontations, frustrations, and communication breakdowns as a series of separate disuniting entities rather than as links in an entire change process.

Table 2
Interview Responses to Staff Utilization

Question Topics	Responses		
	Positive	Negative	Undecided
Use of talents in present position . .	8	6	6
Recommend changes (Immediate)	6	8	6
Recommend changes (Future)	11	6	3
Adequacy of staff (Numerically) . . .	11	7	2

*An Urban Manitoba School, Interviews with staff, October-November, 1972.

**N=20

Their attitudes were reflected in the responses to the interview questions concerning staff utilization. While 40% of the teachers were happy with their work and welcomed the daily challenges, the negative and undecided responses totalled 60%. Probing for the cause of the high negative and/or non-committable response, it was found that the negative feelings and desire for a change in positions was due "to a feeling of

insecurity in coping with the teacher-team leader relationships."⁷ With the exception of two cases, it was not a situation caused by a personality clash but "an honest desire to deal with the person in total command, that is, the Project Director himself, rather than go through an intermediary, who wasn't clear of his role, in any case."⁸

Of the eleven persons who recommended changes for the future, five persons expressed their desire "to share their hidden talents."⁹ It was found that there was a wealth of untapped resources in the staff in terms of "abilities in music, crafts, drama, sports and public speaking."¹⁰ On being asked as to why they had not mentioned this fact, the response was: "No one asked me. I'd love to help out but I hate to push myself forward, since I'm not an expert in that field."¹¹

The other six persons who had recommended changes gave reasons of "wanting to transfer to a different teaching level, desiring to work with new team members and needing more clerical assistance if the teacher was to continue individualized instruction successfully."¹²

The unequal distribution of pupils in the classes, especially in the Junior High levels, caused great concern. The classes had been divided on the basis of Art and Music options. This resulted in some classes having a total of 43 pupils and others only 26. It was generally

⁷Ibid.

⁸Ibid.

⁹Ibid.

¹⁰Ibid.

¹¹Ibid.

¹²Ibid.

felt that a solution should be found for sharing the Instructional Aides. Furthermore, it was felt that "more aides or volunteers were needed if the school was to offer personalized attention and was to encourage self-directed learning."¹³ The pupil-adult ratio rather than pupil-teacher ratio would need a major revision so as "to have a pupil-adult ratio of 15 to 1 to enable the school to meet its plans better to match programs to the needs, interests and abilities of individual learners."¹⁴

While the team approach and pupil distribution were causes of friction and discontent, no one questioned the utility of the Differentiated Staffing models being used in the elementary or junior high grades, nor the objectives set by the teams and the cooperating groups. This complicated the task of school-wide objectives even further.

Without the clear statement of objectives and a decision-making structure, all decision-making became crisis-laden. In the gathering momentum of the school year, relationships became strained and communication was both cumbersome and complicated.

The team leaders became over-loaded in terms of man hours of work and responsibility. Consequently, there was no time for planning for the future, for assessing what existed in the present or for training sessions to alleviate the tension caused by actions and attitudes of the staff.

In summary, Differentiated Staffing remained little more than a term for most participants. It lacked concrete parameters with respect to the role performance of the participants. The interdependence and

¹³Ibid.

¹⁴Ibid.

relationships that were hoped to be generated by a Differentiated Staffing model, were not realized to any degree in the first period of implementation. The innovation remained little more than an evocative term while attention was turned to surviving in an incompleting school plant.

The Preparation Phase

A major positive implication of Differentiated Staffing is the process by which a staffing pattern is determined. A staffing pattern is appropriate for a school if it reflects the programs being provided by the school, and if the programs reflect the objectives of the school, and if those objectives are based on a combination of student needs and societal goals.

The staff of School Y, because of the pressures of time, geared their programs to the situation in which they found themselves. Instead of developing programs designed to meet the needs of students and then going after the resources required to operate the programs, they designed programs which reflected the constraints placed upon the school, that is, they had had a differentiated staffing pattern imposed upon them and therefore had to determine the best way to adopt the program to the staffing pattern.

The time span between the building of the school plant, the hiring of the Project Director and the date for school opening did not allow for any in-depth teacher preparation for implementing Differentiated Staffing or new instructional programs. The summer three-week preparation period dealt with matters largely irrelevant to the task of specifying the details of the new program or of charting the tactics of

changing from the old to the new.

The brief preparation-formulation period ended with half-considered, and vaguely specified plans at best.

Table 3
Interview Responses to Preparation Phase

Question Topics	Responses		
	Positive	Negative	Undecided
Sufficient time for preparation	1	16	3
Recommend changes in preparation phase	16	1	3
Shared decision-making viewed as an integral part of Differentiated Staffing	16	2	2
Personal understanding of the shared decision-making procedure . . .	2	14	4
Personal understanding of individualized instruction	4	14	2
Sufficient preparation time for individualized instruction . . .	2	16	2

*An Urban Manitoba School, Interviews with staff, October-November, 1972.

**N=20

The data recorded in Table 3, reflects the teachers' insecurity about the innovation and the time and type of preparation that had taken place.

The 16 negative responses with respect to sufficiency of preparation time correspond with the 16 negative staff responses (in Table 1).¹⁵

¹⁵Appendix p. 145.

for an understanding of Staff differentiation. A natural sequence to the lack of knowledge of the innovative program, and the lack of time to prepare for it was the large percentage of negative responses to understanding the procedures to be used in shared decision-making and in understanding Individualized Instruction. Improvement in the individualization of instruction can be gained only through staff development programs that sharpen the skills needed to operate a well defined differential role staff model.

The 16 positive responses for recommending changes in the preparation phase, emphasized the need for time for becoming familiar with the innovation and time for training in such specifics as:

- 1) Observation skills for individuals and groups.
- 2) Skills in group process and group decision-making.
- 3) Familiarization with various diagnostic instruments and/or techniques applicable for elementary and junior high school age youngsters.
- 4) General management skills.
- 5) Training in specific curriculum designs favoring individualized instruction.
- 6) Methods to evaluate instruction.
- 7) Operational implications of applying learning theory with particular instructions, that is, materials, grouping, strategies, etc.
- 8) Familiarization with group cohesiveness, needs factors, formal and informal leadership.
- 9) Skills in placing team teaching into the perspective of the larger organizational structure, namely, the school.
- 10) Skills necessary for team teaching such as:
 - a) effective communication
 - b) ability to understand (listening)

- c) evaluation of communicated idea-making distinction between ideas and persons
- d) synthesize ideas into an acceptable policy
- e) establish policy making procedures at
 - (i) instructional team level
 - (ii) curriculum team level
 - (iii) staff level
- 11) Skills necessary for Individualized Instruction such as:
 - a) diagnosing learner needs
 - b) developing procedures and methods for meeting those needs
 - c) providing prescriptive alternatives
- 12) Skills for providing for and encouraging self-directed learning and self-evaluation by students.¹⁶

DEVELOPMENT OF PROGRAMS

Differentiated Staffing alters roles in the school organization. Thus, when vertical and horizontal staffing, and differentiation of the teaching-process exist, there is a commensurate need to implement a multi-model approach to the teaching act. Instruction may occur on an individual basis, or in small or large group settings.

In school Y, an attempt was made to implement new programs, team teaching and individualized instruction. There were some attempts at implementing mini-courses but these were not successful. Unexpected enrollment growth, an incomplete plant, lack of equipment, space and books, not only dictated last minute modifications in day-to-day teaching but severely strained the implementation of these programs as well as the Independent Study privilege scheme. The lack of an adequate preparatory

¹⁶ Interviews, Op. Cit.

phase, created severe handicaps for the staff with regard to the implementation of new programs. They were expected to design the programs while simultaneously carrying out their usual time-consuming responsibilities.

Climate for Learning

Since most schools want students to improve in intellectual competence, they attempt to enhance learning by creating a climate of academic excellence. In spite of the unrealistic time perception of the School Board for implementing the educational innovation and the ensuing pressures on the project director and the staff, a great emphasis was placed on the affective and cognitive climate of school Y. The staff, often rising above the feeling level, consciously attempted to create a set of good relationships within the entire school community. The objectives were two-fold in purpose: 1) to encourage a sense of purposeful inquiry and learning among students; and 2) to establish feelings of mutual respect among students and teachers alike.

These objectives while not specifically recorded nor mutually agreed upon were nevertheless discernable in informal discussions and in observations of teaching situations. The staff members were committed, highly competent teachers. Though they were not able to work in team situations with any degree of ease and security, their belief in students and in learning was not stifled in any way. In order to develop the individual's thinking process and his sensory powers, they allowed the student every opportunity to involve his senses so that he could construct and conceptualize constantly and thus make learning an intellectual and emotional and meaningful experience.

Table 4
Interview Responses for Student Needs Being Met

Question Topics	Responses		
	Positive	Negative	Undecided
Teacher's view of an adequate assessment of student needs	17	3	0
Teacher's view of the student's needs being met	17	2	1
Teacher's assessment of the effectiveness of Independent Study Privileges	14	3	3
Teacher's assessment of the student reactions to Independent Study Privileges	14	3	3

*An Urban Manitoba School, Interviews, October-November, 1972.

**N=20

While the staff did not have adequate skills in diagnosing learning levels or developing procedures and methods for meeting those needs, they did attempt to assess the students' needs on an informal basis. Students were free to approach any teacher and to discuss personal and/or instructional problems. The school counsellor was available at all times and gave valuable assistance to the students.

In view of the honest attempts of the staff to respond to the students' needs whether of a psychological, social, emotional or instructional nature, the data in Table 4 reflects general agreement that sincere efforts were being made to treat the students in an individual, personal manner.

Freedom of movement was enhanced by the open campus approach. Students were given opportunities for decision-making, on the student council level. Their items for discussion during the course of the school year included:

... regulations and procedures for council meetings, a constitution for the student council, student code, dress code, school colors, crest, jackets and paper, field trips, privilege cards, inter-scholastic competition, clubs and mini-courses, trophies, year book, carnivals, raising money, canteen, socials.¹⁶

In August, during the preparatory workshop, the staff had decided that the School Council would be assisted by one staff advisor. The Council would determine its own regulations and procedures and would meet regularly in the Council Room. The students would be held accountable for all decisions made. Thus when the Council had decided on a design for the school crest, the staff accepted it as the official crest.¹⁷

Student responsibility was encouraged by the Independent Directive Study time. Students were monitored by means of a privilege card. They were expected to use the Independent Study time wisely. It was not to be a time for loitering at school or elsewhere. The staff had established that students who had a privilege card could go to the library, the study room, the gymnasium, school yard, student lounge, or any other available area which had been designed for such use. In addition, the eighth year students could be away from the school premises

¹⁶School Y, Minutes of a Student Council Meeting, September 28, 1972.

¹⁷School Y, Minutes of Staff Meeting, November 23, 1972.

during the first and last periods of the morning or during the first and last periods of the afternoon if their timetable indicated an Independent Study period at those times. Privilege cards were reviewed each month. Cards could be revoked at any time for a just cause.¹⁸

The approach to the use of the Independent Study time was idealistic. On a practical level, it became a problem of management. The lack of library resources as well as the incomplete gymnasium, school yard, and student lounge proved highly inconvenient. The study halls became the main congregating areas of the students. The paraprofessionals soon became closely associated with study hall supervision rather than with assisting instruction.

The objective of encouraging a sense of purposeful learning and a sense of inquiry was hampered to a great extent by the lack of essential equipment. This created strain and confusion. The staff was subjected to massive organizational disruptions during the initial period after the school opening.

An added factor of inconvenience was the delay in delivery of essential school furniture and in the incompletion of the school grounds and gym. As the gym is an essential part of physical education programs, improvisations had to be made almost daily, in order to carry out even the most basic requirements for a good physical fitness program. During the months of September, October and early November, physical education classes were held outdoors at times and on the neighboring school's grounds.

¹⁸ School Y, Minutes of a staff meeting, November 2, 1972.

The music, art, science and library programs were also hampered by the incomplete building. Only the experience of several staff members and their ability to absorb the extraordinary demands on their time and energy, enabled the cost-benefit balance in terms of energy and motivation to remain favorable to the implementation of Differentiated Staffing.

Differentiation of the Instructional Program

The effect of flexible instructional organization on the educational process should be one of positive change. In school Y attempts were made to implement team teaching and individualized instruction. It was observed that the elementary section was successful in its team work. Many of the teachers in this section had had previous experience in team teaching. In two instances, the same members of a team in a neighboring school, had simply moved to school Y. They were thus comfortable with their team relationships, style of teaching and content.

In the junior high grades, on the other hand, while the teachers were organized into teams, they really taught individually in their respective classrooms. The team resembled a department rather than a team. Conclusive evidence was obtained in the interviews. A typical reaction was: "I think the elementary grades are team teaching successfully. We are teaching in isolation. We resemble a department situation, rather than a team."¹⁹

Individualized instruction had also been implemented and was effective to some degree. Children have different learning styles and

¹⁹Interviews, op. cit.

personality characteristics that must be considered when providing instruction. To constantly emphasize the auditory mode or to treat the aggressive child in the same manner as the retiring child, is certainly not sound pedagogy. Types of processes also need to be considered; deductive and inductive processes are examples. These two styles can be altered to better fit the learning strength of the child. In addition to learning styles and dominant cognitive processes, the degree of independence each child can sufficiently manage must also be considered. For example, some children may require continuous assistance from the teacher in order to fit the parts together to form the whole, while others may be capable of making discoveries quite independently; in this case the teacher needs to provide only a minimum of instruction. To individualize instruction, factors such as those just mentioned need to be considered. To truly individualize instruction, the four elements of pacing, objectives, materials and personalization must be individualized.

School Y attempted to individualize instruction but with a lack of materials, and close cooperation within the teams, the work of complete individualization was severely hampered. However, in the elementary grades, individual attention was given in small group situations except for laboratory work. This was totally individualized. In the junior high grades, individualized instruction was given in four areas, Social Studies, Mathematics, Science and Language Arts, and individual attention in small group situations in Art, Music and Physical Education. French instruction was totally individualized. Students were motivated by the Independent Study privileges and also by a real desire to learn what they were interested in. It was observed that the students

responded to the challenges of individual contact.

Table 5
Interview Responses to Modes of Instruction

Question Topics	Responses		
	Positive	Negative	Undecided
Approach to individualized instruction	14	3	3
Problems encountered in implementing individualization	15	3	2
Successfully implemented (elementary section)	15	3	2
Successfully implemented (Junior High)	16	2	2
Teachers' assessment of the student response to individualized instruction	18	1	1
Approach to team teaching	8	11	1
Problems encountered in participating in team teaching	12	7	1
Successfully implemented (elementary section)	18	1	1
Successfully implemented (Junior High)	0	18	2
Training needed for implementing any new programs in the future . .	16	2	2

*An Urban Manitoba School, Interview, October-November.

Although the staff made serious attempts at implementing new instructional programs the interview responses reflect the teachers' felt need for training in the skills inherent in team teaching and

individualized instruction. While 14 teachers responded positively to individualized instruction as an effective program for meeting the needs of the individual student, twelve of the 14 reported that they were experiencing problems in dealing with the new program. The reasons for this varied with the personalities but the general response was the lack of training in specific skills such as:

- 1) diagnosing learning levels
- 2) using a facility to allow for flexible grouping and providing areas for individual activities.
- 3) personal record keeping
- 4) providing for and encouraging self-directed learning and self-evaluation by students.²⁰

Staff response to team teaching rated negatively. This was partly due to lack of the role clarification for the team leaders and partly to the master-teacher complex. Many of the staff members, while being highly competent individual teachers, found it difficult to work in a team situation. The problems encountered were almost totally of an interpersonal relations nature.

The recognition of the need of special skills for implementing the new program of Individualized Instruction and Team Teaching made the staff aware that it was not sufficient to desire to participate in implementing an innovation. One needed new skills and new attitudes to make the change really effective and rewarding.

In summary, Differentiated Staffing is a complex innovation. Because a fully developed model for staffing differentiation requires

²⁰Ibid.

new staff roles and relationships, a change in the utilization of time and resources, expanded curricular opportunities and greater flexibility and variety in programs of instruction, a simple decision to adopt it does not suffice. Adequate time for planning and implementation must be allowed.

Although there was no way to determine the precise amount of time needed for planning and implementing the Differentiated Staffing program in school Y, it was evident that the time factor was a major source of many of the problems the staff encountered. The staff had a commitment to succeed but they did not have the time to gain the appropriate knowledge and skills to function in a completely new setting. The staff members not only had to adjust to new roles and responsibilities, they also had to cope with unforeseen problems as they arose. There was little time for attitudinal self-renewal, as well as curricular and instructional renewal. Without this self-renewal, the maturing, expanding and altering in process and conditions that should accompany the Differentiated Staffing program were never realized. The fact that these weaknesses were not fatal to the program was probably due to the calibre of the staff and their determination to succeed.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

INTRODUCTION

This study examined the problems of organizational change encountered by the administrator and staff of an urban Manitoba school as they implemented Differentiated Staffing. This chapter restates the problem and procedure, summarizes the findings, and states the conclusion.

THE PROBLEM

The chief purpose of this study was to identify the problems of organizational change inherent in the implementation of Differentiated Staffing. This study focused on two aspects of implementation: the utilization of staff and the development of new programs.

THE PROCEDURE

The co-operation of the Superintendent, project director and staff were obtained so that the study could be carried out. In order to maintain the anonymity of the school division concerned, the district was identified as X and the school as Y. The neighboring school was referred to as A.

The data was collected by means of observation and personal interviews. The researcher assumed that the first few months of implementation would reveal the conflicts and strains of change in its

most aggravated and transparent form and that the nature of staff responses would have a strong bearing on the fate of the innovation in succeeding years.

THE FINDINGS

The study focused on two main areas of implementation, namely, the utilization of staff and the development of new programs. The observations and interview results were summarized with respect to these two sub-divisions.

Utilization of Staff

The first phase of the study focused on the utilization of staff in a Differentiated Staffing pattern. Observations were made and interviews were conducted to ascertain the significance of the peer relationships, clarification of roles, career-line satisfaction and staffing design.

The problems that emerged with great significance could properly be labelled under two comprehensive categories: human relations and time. For practical purposes, each category was sub-divided and each sub-division was dealt with separately.

Peer Relationships. The new teaching situation necessitated a role modification which in turn became a source of interpersonal stress among the staff members. Most of the teachers had had the reputation of being highly competent and innovative. In coming to school Y, they had to undergo a transformation from being an isolated competent teacher to one of many able teachers in a group. They also had to change from a style of teaching characterized by independence to one requiring cooperation.

Role Clarification. The lack of role clarification was the strongest source of interpersonal stress among the staff members. This was particularly true of the team leader role. Though the description of the roles for the team leaders and for the staff had been prepared during the summer in-service session, a clear delineation of the teams and the roles of the respective team leaders had not been made. As a result a frustration factor had been built into the model, from its very inception.

Career-Line Satisfaction. This problem was almost non-existent at school Y. The implementation phase was just evolving and as such could not offer career-line satisfaction. However, even at that early date, one could note that before career-line satisfaction could become a reality, roles would have to be clarified and procedures would have to be worked out for decision-making.

Staffing Design. The major weakness in the utilization of staff was the design of the Differentiated Staffing model. It was insufficiently based on the goals and objectives of the school. The staff had no common operational base as the approach that would be taken in implementing Differentiated Staffing had never been specifically stated. Teachers as well as paraprofessionals were hired on a numerical ratio rather than a task need basis.

The Preparation Phase

The major weakness in the preparation phase was the insufficiency of time. The staff did not have time to become thoroughly familiar with the innovation, nor to develop a Differentiated Staffing program designed to meet the needs of the students. Instead they hurriedly designed a

program which fitted the constraints of the school and then had to determine the types of instructional programs that would be appropriate to that pattern. The staff thus did not have time to discuss and to develop new skills and attitudes necessary for implementing new instructional programs.

The brief three week preparatory period dealt with matters largely irrelevant to the task of specifying the details of the new innovation, or new programs, or of charting the tactics of change over from the old to the new.

Development of Programs

The second phase of the study focused on the development of programs. Observations and interviews were conducted to ascertain the climate that was being provided for learning and the differentiation of the instructional mode.

The major problem that emerged was the insufficiency of time to prepare adequately for substantive changes in behavior, growth and understanding.

Climate for Learning. In any educational program the student is ultimately responsible for his own learning. In contrast, students operating in an individualized program are faced with more decisions than students operating in a conventional program, and therefore experience more responsibility than students operating in a traditional program. Students operating in a successful individualized program have many opportunities to make choices and decisions, and therefore, to develop responsibility. It is important to keep in mind that students may misuse responsibility and make unfortunate decisions when confronted

with their first experiences of this nature, but these mistakes are a vital element in the development of self-responsibility.

Furthermore, students operating in an individualized program do not receive extensive direction from the teacher. Students must begin to take the initiative to direct themselves and to ask themselves, "What do I do next?," and then do it. Through experience and with counselling concerning their experiences, students can learn to direct themselves.

The staff at school Y was committed to individualized instruction or therefore in bringing about the self-actualization of the individual. They believed that the teacher's basic responsibility was to his/her students. In their desire to aid the free development of an individual child they promoted the open campus approach and the independent directive study privilege system. The students were thus given the responsibility for making decisions about their objectives, for planning how to pursue their interests, and for evaluating their choices and plans. By being given these responsibilities, the teachers hoped to assist the students in becoming autonomus learners who would be capable of developing their own potential throughout life.

This approach to students and to learning enabled the teachers to come closer to realizing the outcomes they sought to achieve in a student-centered school. From an organizational point of view, the major problem that could be noted was the ineffective and inefficient use of the paraprofessionals in furthering student-centered programs within the school.

Development of New Programs. The staff of school Y believed in individual differences in readiness, cognitive style, and personality and that learners respond differently to the same situation. As a result,

they attempted to provide alternate learning environments in terms of peer groups, instructional programs and program content so that each individual student would have access to the succession of environments most helpful for his optimum development.

The teachers in the junior high section promoted purposeful learning and a sense of inquiry through the use of contractual agreements as to types of topics to be pursued, style of reporting and extent of research to be done.

The teachers in the elementary section successfully employed the team and large group approach for stimulating the student's interest and increasing their level of participation.

The teachers at both the junior high and elementary levels were successful in promoting individualized instruction within small groups.

The major problems discerned were the inability to use the team approach effectively in the junior high section; the over-loading of the language teachers in terms of individualized instruction because of the inefficient use of paraprofessionals; the ineffective use of the study halls and inefficient use of paraprofessionals in terms of monitoring them; finally, the inefficient use of the library for individualized instruction because of a lack of resources.

The ineffective use of the team approach, the paraprofessionals and the library can all be traced to a lack of time for preparation for team teaching, for using aides and even for ordering supplies. Time was a vital factor in the development/non-development of new programs within the school.

THE CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to identify the problems of organizational change as magnified during the early stages of the implementation of Differentiated Staffing at an urban school in Manitoba. Any staff group, regardless of its enthusiasm and skill, has the ability to solve only a limited number of problems in a given amount of time. Since the success of any innovation is likely to relate to the number of potential problems that are identified and solved prior to implementation, several problems of a general variety were abstracted from the observations and interviews conducted for this study. It was hoped that the identification and solution of these problems would ease the task of implementing a similar innovation in the future.

It is suggested that in the operational stage of implementation of the Differentiated Staffing concept, the success of the innovation will depend on careful attention being paid to the four problem areas identified herewith: a thorough understanding of the innovation; serious consideration of the social framework which the innovation may affect; realistic provisions of time; and, allocation of resources and personnel based on a needs assessment.

These primary areas of concern can be further specified to include:

- 1) Real reasons for considering the implementation of Differentiated Staffing.
- 2) A clear conceptualization and definition of what the school is attempting to implement through the change.
- 3) A basic operational definition of Differentiated Staffing.

4) Identification of a specific subset of interpersonal problems related directly to staff differentiated activities.

5) Clarification of roles for all members of a differentiated staff and provision of activities whereby change in behavior as well as structural change can be facilitated.

6) Provision for a reasonable and fair work load so as not to cause severe work overloads among members of the instructional staff.

7) Provision for sufficient time for staff preparation and staff development activities especially for shared decision-making techniques, and for moving from a master-teacher situation to one in which dependence and cooperation are predominant modes of action.

8) Preparation of a differentiated model specific to the philosophy of the school, community, and needs of the students.

9) Establishment of short and long range goals.

10) Specification of managerial and monitoring procedures to assure implementation.

11) Provision for additional resources in finance and personnel to cope with organizational and instructional change.

12) Establishment of evaluation procedures.

No one consciously plans for failure, but the number of unsuccessful innovations in education raise questions concerning the planning and implementation phases. In current research in Differentiated Staffing, a report of four case studies by W.W. Charters and Roland Pellegrin gives a summary of the more pertinent observations regarding the problems of implementation, thereby corroborating the findings of the present study. The following problems of implementation were listed:

1) The fundamental but generally unacknowledged strain that exists between the ideology of teacher governance and the strategy of directed change.

2) The gross unclarity in conceptualization and definition of what the schools are attempting to implement through change projects.

3) The heavy reliance on structural change (writing job descriptions, changing titles altering organizational units) in the belief that appropriate behavior changes will automatically follow.

4) The fallacious assumption that a statement of general, abstract program values and objectives will easily be translated into new and appropriate behavior patterns at work.

5) The unrealistic time perspective of those responsible for educational innovation, according to which basic and far-reaching changes in instructional roles and staff relationships are seen as accomplishable within a year or two.

6) The ambiguities and stresses that arise in the disjunction between the school district's established administrative structure and the temporary system for project management.

7) The failure to recognize that teachers have scant training in forming and implementing processes and procedures for collaborative decision-making.

8) The conflict in goals, values, and interests, seen especially in the relationships between the central office administrators, the project managers, and the school staffs (produced mainly by the requirements of their inherently different work contexts).

9) The absence of managerial and monitoring procedures to assure implementation and to alter plans in the face of contingencies

that inevitably occur.

- 10) The failure to recognize the severity of role overload among members of the instructional staff when innovation is attempted.
- 11) The tyranny of the time schedule in constraining change.
- 12) The apparent assumption that schools need little additional resources (financial and personnel) to cope with the massive organizational disruptions during the period of transition from one educational program form to a new one.¹

In conclusion, the present study indicated that if differentiated staffing was to be implemented successfully, careful consideration must be given to the process of planning. The following recommendations were therefore proposed:

- 1) Any school or district committed to flexible staffing, should prepare a model that can be considered optimum at a given point in time. This model should be sensitive to changing needs and would provide the master plan by which Differentiated Staffing would be implemented, position by position as vacancies occur. The plan should include a table of priorities for positions to be filled.

- 2) An assessment should be made of the skills and abilities of the staff in order to identify the particular expertise and strengths of individuals in addition to their subject matter preparation.

- 3) Substantial in-service programs should be held for the purposes of:

- a) acquiring of the direct skills needed by personnel

¹W.W. Charters, Jr., and Roland J. Pellegrin, "Barriers to the Innovative Process: Four Case Studies of Differentiated Staffing," Education Administration Quarterly, No. 1, 9: Winter, 1972.

to qualify for roles in staff differentiation,

- b) preparing a comprehensive analysis of the tasks that are to be performed in the teaching act and in the division of labor,
- c) developing the instructional environment, including the curriculum,
- d) acquiring the attitudes and readiness of/for implementing the innovation,
- e) acquiring the skills in communication and human relations necessary for intensive group work,
- f) acquiring the skills specific to the programs that would be implemented, for example, Individualized Instruction and team teaching.

4) Because the strength of Differentiated Staffing lies in the process it affords a school to determine its staffing pattern appropriate to what it is trying to accomplish, the people who will be affected most directly, that is, the teachers, should be involved honestly in all phases of planning.

5) Any move towards flexible staffing patterns in order to be successful, requires a level of cooperation and understanding that presently does not exist. Teachers traditionally tend to be quite independent and a large number of them are in the profession because of their perception of the image or role of the teacher. Extensive in-service work in communication skills and human relations is critical when moving to flexible staffing patterns. School Boards must be prepared to provide the necessary time, effort and money for staff development programs before and during the period of implementation of Differentiated Staffing.

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A P P E N D I X

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APPENDIX A. An Urban Manitoba School Division

A PROPOSAL FOR A PILOT PROJECT IN
DIFFERENTIATED STAFFING IN THE Y
SECONDARY SCHOOL OF AN URBAN
MANITOBA SCHOOL DIVISIONIntroduction:

In recent years educators throughout Canada and the United States have become increasingly aware of a need to restructure school staffing patterns in order to allow for task specialization among those persons directly and indirectly involved with students. It has become apparent that the traditional "teacher-class" operation cannot and perhaps should not be maintained in the face of changing educational expectations and increasing personnel costs. Those responsible for the operation of schools and school systems must therefore examine all avenues of change in an effort to increase the effectiveness of the teaching-learning processes, and to provide this increased effectiveness within the bounds of the economic ability of the community. It is proposed, therefore, that one method of meeting these broad objectives is through the medium of a system of Differentiated Staffing for instructional personnel.

The Proposal:

It is proposed that all programs in the new Y secondary school in the urban community be operated on a Differentiated Staffing system. It is further proposed that research grants be made available to offset certain additional costs related to the project in its initial years of

operation. In addition to funding assistance, it is proposed that the Planning and Research Branch of the Department provide direct leadership assistance in the pre-training of professional and non-professional staff as well as provide for a means of external evaluation in both the cognitive and affective areas of learning.

Objectives:

NOTE: It is expected that the objectives for the school will closely reflect the needs of the community and the philosophy and ability of the staff. Since no formal assessment of these needs has been made, it must be considered that the objectives which follow may be amended from time to time as the school becomes a reality.

Objectives: Educational:

- 1) To maintain or improve the mean achievement scores in reading and mathematics for those students in the project school.
- 2) To maintain or improve the attitudes to school for those students in the project school.
- 3) To involve greater numbers of community residents in both the planning and the day to day operation of the school. Such increased involvement is to be promoted through parent advisory committees, parent volunteers and the employment of para-professionals from the school community.
- 4) To promote greater responsibility and initiative in curriculum planning and program development to meet the needs of specific groups of the school population.
- 5) To reduce the student-to-adult ratio in the instructional program through the use of more and specialized (in terms of function)

persons in the teaching-learning process.

6) To encourage diagnostic teaching through the specialization of functions to provide the time and expertise to assess needs and develop suitable instructional programs to be carried out by persons designated in the differentiated hierarchy of personnel.

7) To provide a new career pattern in teaching that develops from establishing and defining a number of new roles for instructional staff.

8) To provide new incentives for those teachers who are willing and capable of assuming greater leadership responsibilities.

Objectives: Economic:

1) In the long run to achieve the educational objectives as outlined above without increasing the average cost per student in the project school as compared to the conventional schools of the Division.

2) To provide a system of salary payments that reflect the function performed and the responsibility assumed by both the certified and non-certified personnel in the school system.

3) To change education from a highly personnel cost content to a more intensive materials content.

Project Steering Committee:

It is proposed that a Steering Committee be established to work with the Project Director and his key personnel for the first year of the operation of the school. The Steering Committee shall elect a chairman from among its members and shall meet on a regular basis. The Committee may be composed of the following persons or designated alternates:

1) The Project Director.

- 2) Chairman, Education Committee of the Division Board.
- 3) The Superintendent.
- 4) The Business Administrator.
- 5) A representative from the office of Planning and Research.
- 6) A representative of the Principals of the Division.
- 7) The President of the Division Association of the Manitoba Teachers' Society.
- 8) A representative of the Parent Committee of the School.

It must be noted that this is a Steering Committee. It should in no way exercise authority as a Committee over the operation of the school. It is anticipated that the responsibilities of the Committee will be significant in the early stages of the project but that its role will gradually decrease as the school becomes a successful educational institution.

Administration:

It is proposed that the pilot project be administered by a yet-to-be named "Project Director" who will also serve as principal in the early operation of the school. It is proposed that the Project Director be named immediately and that his tasks include the following:

- 1) Develop a tentative plan of operation for the school.
- 2) Establish and define the key leadership roles and recruit suitable staff for these positions.
- 3) Along with his key personnel, review the objectives and tentative operational plan for the school and set up a critical path for the following:
 - a) community consultation program,

- b) assessment of student needs,
- c) Curriculum planning,
- d) Recruitment of necessary professional personnel,
- e) establish categories and recruit necessary non-professional personnel,
- f) prepare and initiate program of staff training,
- g) schedule student programs,
- h) propose a system of program evaluation.

4) Act as resource person to other schools who are ready to explore and to implement Differentiated Staffing programs. (At such time, it may be necessary that the Project Director would reduce the amount of time given to administering the school and increase his consultation time in proportion to the needs of the Division).

Evaluation:

It is proposed, subject to approval of the Project Director and his staff, that there be a two level system of evaluation.

1) An internal evaluation conducted by the school personnel as part of the overall pattern of evaluation in the Division.

2) An external evaluation acceptable to the Planning and Research Branch of the Department of Education. Such an evaluation, hopefully, could deal with both the affective and cognitive areas of the program as they relate to students, parents, staff and other teachers in the Division.

NOTE: Since students will remain in the school for grades five to twelve, certain other long-range evaluation projects could also be developed.

APPENDIX B. Philosophy Of The School

I. Focus on the Learner

A) Child Centered School -

- i. where the uniqueness and individuality of the student is respected.
- ii. where programs are suited to the individual needs, interests, and abilities of the students.
- iii. where a sense of individual worth is fostered.
- iv. where the social and emotional development of the student is looked upon as being as important as his academic and intellectual development.
- v. where the individual gains the respect for the society in which he lives and strives for its betterment.

II. Focus on Success

A) Success according to the student's ability:

- i. by accentuating the positive and minimizing the negative.

III. Focus on Reality

A) By providing experiences which are relevant to the type of world in which the child lives.

B) By involving the community in the educational process.

As a result of his education each student should

- 1 . . . "Have the basic skills and knowledge necessary to seek information, to present ideas, to listen to and interact with others, and to use judgment and imagination in perceiving and resolving problems;"
- 2 . . . develop the ability to think for himself;
- 3 . . . develop humanness;
- 4 . . . develop the ability to adapt to change and to cause changes when necessary;

- 5 . . . "appreciate the wonders of the natural world, man's achievements and failures, his dreams and capabilities;"
- 6 . . . "clarify his basic values and develop a commitment to act upon these values within the framework of his rights and responsibilities as a participant in the democratic process;"
- 7 . . . "participate in social, political, economic, and family activities with the confidence that his actions make a difference;"
- 8 . . . "be prepared for his next career step;"
- 9 . . . "understand his interests and abilities, the elements of his physical and emotional well-being, and be committed to life-long learning and personal growth;"
- 10 . . . "recognize that cultural, ethnic and racial similarities and differences contribute positively to our nation's future, and interact meaningfully with people of all generations and life styles."

APPENDIX C. Responsibilities

RESPONSIBILITIES OF PROJECT DIRECTOR

1. Be a liaison man with parents as well as the Superintendent's Department.
2. Set up an Advisory Committee.
3. As part of the process of supervision, take over the class as often as possible, i.e., perhaps once a cycle.
4. Be accessible to the staff and students on a personal basis.
5. Convene meetings when the group leaders so desire.
6. Deal with extreme cases.
7. In times of indecision, be the final decision-maker.
8. Deal with visitors to the school.
9. Keep staff informed as to educational news and obtain feedback.
10. Make sure that instructional programs of a school-wide nature are implemented.
11. Be responsible for release time for personal absences of teachers.
12. Be responsible for attendance.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF EXECUTIVE ASSISTANT TO THE PRINCIPAL

1. Organize and/or supervise school patrols, field trips, bus transportation, supervision schedules, the taking of school pictures, registration of students, distribution of school keys, student locker assignments, student insurance program, collecting and spending school funds, and the general bookkeeping for the school.
2. Receive callers and give out information requiring knowledge of policies and procedures.
3. Prepare reports as required (i.e., monthly attendance, inventories, fire drills, report cards, orders for supplies, and all other reports normally prepared by the principal.)
4. Compose and type all important and confidential as well as routine correspondence.

5. Train and direct clerical or stenographic staff in the school.
6. Take notes of meetings, prepare minutes, and keep official records and reports including those of a confidential nature.
7. Compile data and statistics and direct preparation of the same.
8. Handle some cash and other valuables.
9. Perform related duties as assigned by the principal.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF TEAM LEADERS

A. General Responsibilities

1. Determining policies and guide lines related to improving instruction and conducting research.
2. Participating in organizing service programs.
3. Co-ordinating the use of school-wide facilities and resources and personnel.
4. Liaison between teacher and project director.

B. Specific Responsibilities

1. Participating as a teacher in a team.
2. Convening team meetings.
3. Co-ordinating activities and resources of the unit.
4. Delegating responsibilities to team members.
5. Arranging for release time of team personnel - school activities.
6. Requesting appropriate consultant assistance when needed, from central office and other sources.
7. Assist in the selection of staff: 1) Professional 2) non-professional.
8. Making decisions when consensus cannot be reached within the team.
9. Time-tabling.
10. Delegating duties of aides, other non-certificated personnel, including interns.

11. Initiating in-services for team.
12. Assuring that individual pupil records are maintained.
13. Evaluating and reporting procedures of student progress.
14. Encouraging out of school educational activities.
15. Evaluate the progress of the team in achieving its objectives.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE TEACHER

Student-oriented Responsibilities

- . Helping to determine long-range curricula.
- . Determining broad learning objectives for subject-area emphasis.
- . Establishing a comfortable psychological learning environment.
- . Helping the child to determine personal learning objectives.
- . Helping the child to achieve personal learning objectives.
- . Developing a strength in a particular area of the curriculum.
- . Initiating learning objectives in his particular area of the curriculum.
- . Determining objectives for a subject area emphasis.
- . Assisting in planning academic emphasis.
- . Helping to select the child's learning activities.
- . Using a variety of techniques and methods to achieve learning objectives.
- . Adapting curricula to individual needs of the child.
- . Selecting a wide range of materials, media, and supplies.
- . Helping the child to select appropriate learning materials and media.
- . Determining appropriate groupings for the child on a continuous basis.
- . Establishing an appropriate physical learning environment.
- . Participating in learning activities.
- . Encouraging a love of learning.
- . Observing individual and group interactions.

- . Maintaining agreed-upon standards of discipline.
- . Helping the child to develop appropriate social behavior.
- . Helping the child to develop self-direction.
- . Assisting in the identification of exceptional learning and social behavior.
- . Referring the child with identified exceptional learning and social behavior to appropriate personnel.
- . Consulting with the school nurse concerning the child who may require professional help.
- . Advising and counselling with the child to help him develop a positive self-image.
- . Helping the child establish reasonable standards of self-evaluation.
- . Evaluating the child's progress through a variety of methods.
- . Discussing with the child his individual academic and social development.
- . Assembling information for individual conferences and progress reports.
- . Discussing with parents individual pupil academic and social development.
- . Accepting responsibility for each child in the unit.
- . Recognizing and helping the child to develop his unique talents and aptitudes.

Professional Growth Responsibilities

- . Cooperating with students and staff in an atmosphere of mutual respect.
- . Expressing ideas and making suggestions to the staff.
- . Implementing decisions made by the staff.
- . Attending all of his respective unit meetings and other unit meetings upon request.
- . Expressing ideas and making suggestions to other unit members.

- . Implementing decisions made by the unit.
- . Supervising non-certificated personnel supporting the instructional staff.
- . Assisting in identifying, recruiting and interviewing prospective certificated and non-certificated personnel.
- . Developing an awareness of new teaching methods and materials.
- . Revising curricula for the child.
- . Evaluating conference procedures and developing improved ways of communicating with the child and his parents.
- . Accepting the responsibility for school-related duties as outlined by one or more of the following: the unit, the staff, the principal, the division administration.
- . Participating in school-related functions.
- . Attending school meetings as requested and/or directed.
- . Participating as requested in district-wide planning and decision making.
- . Working as requested with district-wide staff members to revise curricula.
- . Participating in in-service training, college courses, visitations, etc.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE AIDES

Instructional Duties	Assists or Works Part Time in This Area Under Direct Supervision of Teacher	Assumes Responsi- bility In This Area
1. Correcting papers and workbooks.	✓	
2. Providing individual assistance for any child in any area of curriculum covered in the teaching-learning process.	✓	
3. Providing individual assistance for any group of children in any area of curriculum covered in the teaching-learning process.	✓	
4. Transporting, operating, and caring for audio-visual equipment.		✓
5. Assisting with field trips.	✓	
6. Planning with teachers on a formal and informal basis.	✓	
7. Reading stories.		✓
8. Playing games with children.		✓
9. Administering non-standardized tests.	✓	
10. Preparing instructional materials as directed by the teacher.		✓
11. Assisting the professionals of her team by: locating and setting up demonstrations, locating human resources and contact them if requested, doing research to help develop teaching units.	✓	
12. Assist her unit by serving as a member of a committee and/or attending meetings as required.	✓	
13. Should provide a model for courtesy, cleanliness, friendliness and cooperation.		✓
14. Writes or copies assignments on the chalkboard.		✓
15. Assist the substitute teacher.		✓

Instructional Duties (Continued)

	Assists or Works Part Time in This Area Under Direct Supervision of Teacher	Assumes Responsibility In This Area
16. Should feel free to praise individual performances when appropriate and give TLC when needed.		✓
Clerical Duties		
1. Making dittos (masters).		✓
2. Duplicating masters.		✓
3. Operating the thermofax machine.		✓
4. Cutting letters for bulletin boards.		✓
5. Collecting money (lunch, picture, fees, etc.).		✓
6. Making daily attendance records. (Just a check list.)		✓
7. Preparing bulletin boards.		✓
8. Filing.		✓
9. Typing.		✓
10. Telephoning.		✓
11. Checking mailboxes.		✓
12. Maintaining student materials.		✓
13. Keeping student records.		✓
14. Setting up displays and exhibits.		✓
15. Ordering films and AV materials when requested.		✓
16. Assists with team scheduling and organization of student groups <u>particularly</u> if she is to be a working member of a particular unit of study.	✓	
17. Assist with telephoning and scheduling for parent-teacher conferences.	✓	

Maintenance Duties

	Assists or Works Part Time in This Area Under Direct Supervision of Teacher	Assumes Responsi- bility In This Area
1. Preparing and maintaining art materials.		✓
2. Caring for plants.		✓
3. Caring for animals, ONLY if agreed to prior to request.		✓
4. Sweeping, dusting, scrubbing, and other cleaning duties on an incidental basis (not to be construed to be janitorial duties.)		✓
5. Repairing games, puzzles, books, and other materials and equipment.		✓
6. Returning materials, equipment, furniture, etc. to proper place.		✓
7. Returning materials, equipment, books, and other items checked out or borrowed from central sources such as office, school division, Center, storerooms, etc.		✓
8. Ordering materials and keeping supply level constant.	✓	
9. Preparing and supervising work area, centers, etc.	✓	
10. Maintaining central supply areas - book room, work-book room, paper closet.		✓
Miscellaneous Duties		
1. Supervising playground.		✓
2. Supervising hallways and rest rooms, and dressing rooms.		✓
3. Supervising lunchroom activities (children, traveling to lunch, going through cafeteria lines, and eating.)		✓
4. Attending-in-service training.		✓

Miscellaneous Duties (Continued)

	Assists or Works Part Time in This Area Under Direct Supervision of Teacher	Assumes Responsi- bility In This Area
5. Running errands.		✓
6. Supervising early arrivals before school day begins.		✓
7. Filling requisitions (supplies, books, workbooks, media materials.)	✓	
8. Assisting sick children.	✓	
9. Assisting with holiday parties and celebrations.	✓	
10. Attending meetings when requested.		✓
11. Observation and reporting of student behavior. (Oral and/or written reports.)		✓
12. Assist with overall supervision of unit and/or building.	✓	
13. Assists students to make up work due to absences.	✓	
14. Develop techniques and materials to use for individual differences (under teacher direction.)	✓	
15. Sharing of expertise in a particular area, in other words, contributing to one's talents.	✓	
16. Supervising student committees.		✓
17. Attending parent-teacher conferences when requested.		✓
18. Assisting with or accompanying student groups to other areas of the building.		✓
19. And, anything else assigned by a teacher.		✓

APPENDIX D. Interview Schedule

1. What's your definition of Differentiated Staffing?
2. a Does Differentiated Staffing offer some advantages?
 b What are these advantages?
3. a Explain the role that you now play.
 - Project Director
 - Team Leader
 - Teacher
 - Instructional Aide)
 - Teacher's Aide) Paraprofessionals
 - Clerk Typist)
 - Business Manager
 b What recommendations would you make for improvements in that role?
4. The job that you now have, does it make use of your individual talents?
5. What talents of yours might be put to better use?
6. a How was your specific role arrived at?
 b Would you recommend any changes at this point?
 c Would you recommend any changes for the future?
7. a How much time did you spend in preparing for Differentiated Staffing?
 b What did the preparation consist of?
 c Would you recommend any changes in the preparation phase?
8. a Do you feel shared-decision-making should form an integral part of Differentiated Staffing?
 b How do you see shared-decision-making carried out? (Your own

- individual concept of it.)
- c How does your school exercise shared-decision-making?
 - d Would you recommend any changes in shared-decision-making?
- 9. What is your approach towards Individualized Instruction in your school?
 - 10. What major problems have you had in this regard?
 - 11. Would you say that Individualized Instruction has been a success in your school?
 - 12. How much time was devoted in preparing teachers for the Individualized Instruction method?
 - 13. Who has helped you the most in your changes in curriculum?
 - 14. How are your students responding to this kind of instruction?
 - 15. What is your concept of team teaching?
 - 16. a Who takes the responsibility for team planning?
b Who calls the team meetings and how often do you meet?
 - 17. a How are the needs of the student assessed?
b And by whom?
 - 18. What is the main objective in drawing up class schedules? (time-tables)
 - 19. How does your school meet student problems that are not scholastic? (i.e. problems that are of a psychological emotional, peer group or family difficulties)
 - 20. How do you determine whether the needs of the students have been met?
 - 21. How often do you meet as a staff?
 - 22. What have you done to develop criteria and programs for the training and retraining of the staff?

(you - as a person
(you - as a staff
(you - as a team

23. Do you feel you have adequate time for working as a unit?

(unit - team
(unit - staff

24. How much time do you think you would really need?

25. a Are you experimenting with any new programs?

b Do you have to make any adaptations in the physical setting of your
school/classroom to accommodate special types of instruction?

Table 1
Interview Responses to Role Clarification

Question Topics	Responses		
	Positive	Negative	Undecided
Definition of Differentiated Staffing	4	14	2
Advantages of Differentiated Staffing	11	3	6
Role clarity (Self)	6	11	3
Role clarity (Other)	0	20	0
Recommended Improvements in Role Clarity	17	2	1

*An Urban Manitoba School, Interviews with staff, October-November, 1972.

**N=20

Table 2
Interview Responses to Staff Utilization

Question Topics	Responses		
	Positive	Negative	Undecided
Use of talents in present position . .	8	6	6
Recommend changes (immediate).	6	8	6
Recommend changes (future)	11	6	3
Adequacy of staff (numerically) . . .	11	7	2

*An Urban Manitoba School, Interviews with staff, October-November, 1972.

**N=20

Table 3
Interview Responses to Preparation Phase

Question Topics	Responses		
	Positive	Negative	Undecided
Sufficient time for preparation	1	16	3
Recommend changes in preparation phase	16	1	3
Shared decision-making viewed as an integral part of Differentiated Staffing	16	2	2
Personal understanding of the shared decision-making procedure . . .	2	14	4
Personal understanding of Individualized Instruction	4	14	2
Sufficient preparation time for Individualized Instruction . . .	2	16	2

*An Urban Manitoba School, Interviews with staff, October-November, 1972.

**N=20

Table 4
Interview Responses for Student Needs

Question Topics	Responses		
	Positive	Negative	Undecided
Teacher's view of an adequate assessment of student needs	17	3	0
Teacher's view of the student's needs being met	17	2	1
Teacher's assessment of the effectiveness of Independent Study Privileges	14	3	3
Teacher's assessment of the student reactions to Independent Study Privileges	14	3	3

*An Urban Manitoba School, Interviews, October-November, 1972.

**N=20

Table 5
Interview Responses to Modes of Instruction

Question Topics	Responses		
	Positive	Negative	Undecided
Approach to individualized instruction	14	3	3
Problems encountered in implementing individualization	15	3	2
Successfully implemented (elementary section)	15	3	2
Successfully implemented (Junior High)	16	2	2
Teacher's assessment of the student response to individualized instruction	18	1	1
Approach to team teaching	8	11	1
Problems encountered in participating in team teaching	12	7	1
Successfully implemented (elementary section)	18	1	1
Successfully implemented (Junior High)	0	18	2
Training needed for implementing any new programs in the future	16	2	2

*An Urban Manitoba School, Interviews, October-November, 1972.

**N=20