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ABSTRACT

This case study reports on the attempts of an elementary school to implement innovative staffing and curriculum changes. Staff reorganization included a move away from self-contained classrooms, the restructuring of the role hierarchy, an increase in staff, some changes in role differentiation, and a re-allocation of major decisionmaking responsibilities. Curriculum changes involved the institution of a program to improve the quality and quantity of arts instruction. However, these proposed changes were only partially implemented, and many of the characteristics of the previous instructional organization and curriculum were retained. Some of the major impediments to the implementation of the proposed changes included the norm of teacher autonomy, the inability of the staff to reach consensus relative to the group decisionmaking processes, and a lack of clarity with regard to instructional change. (Author/RA)

PROBLEMS OF IMPLEMENTING ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL: A CASE STUDY

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The purpose of this study was to examine the implementation of new organizations for instruction in the elementary school and to identify the problems associated with the process of change.[1] Although organizational changes are designed to increase the quality of a school's instructional program, their immediate effect is to create disruption in the established routine of the school. This disruptive period presents the greatest challange to the successful implementation of proposed change. During this period the problems of change may be so great that the program is discontinued,[2] exists more as an image to others than a program in practice,[3] or is distorted to fit the previous patterns of instruction.[4]

Although many schools have attempted major organizational change, little is known about the problems and processes associated with the implementation phase of innovation. Our understanding of change, for the most part, is limited to the personal knowledge of those who have experienced it, rather than a body of scientific knowledge available to those who would use it. If the disruptive period of innovation is to be overcome and the probability of successful implementation increased,

then a detailed knowledge of the problems and consequences of implementing organizational change is required.

Traditionally the instructional program of the elementary school has been built upon an organization commonly referred to as the self-contained classroom, an arrangement of teachers and pupils for instruction which is based upon the formal assignment of a group of pupils to one teacher. The teacher is held responsible for all the instructional activities which are appropriate for an assigned number of pupils at a certain age-grade level. Because a teacher is only responsible for the pupils within her classroom, the task behavior of any teacher is relatively independent of the task behavior of any other teacher.

The organizational change selected for study was differentially staffed instructional teams. The concept differentially staffed instructional teams was developed by Charters to define new organizations for instruction which combine the aspects of both team teaching and differentiated staffing.[5] A differentially staffed instructional team is an arrangement of instructional personnel and pupils in which (1) at least two members of the team

are certificated teachers who share the responsibility for the instruction of a given group of pupils, and (2) the instructional positions on the team are formally differentiated by authority, responsibility, and reward. This model was chosen for study because it involved a significant modification in the organization for instruction with major changes in the responsibility for the planning, coordination, and execution of instruction.

The Methodology

The case study approach provided an effective means of intensively studying a wide range of factors that might prove to be critical in the change process. The use of participant observation for data collection allowed the residency of the researcher and the opportunity to be to some extent a participant in the social system being studied. Thus, it was possible to develop a knowledge base of the actions and experiences of one school staff during the change attempt.

Participant observation, as meant here, is an approach where the investigator is in the field for data collection on a sustained basis. He is

recognized by the organization as a full-time researcher and the purpose of his research is known to the members of the organization. He participates in the daily life of the organization, both formal and informal. He observes the formal activities and participates in the informal gatherings. He is a non-participant in that he does not overtly impose his attitudes or behavior upon the organization's functioning. He collects data from the study of formal documents, observations of school activities, and interviews with personnel.

The field study and data collection by participant observation provided an opportunity for the development of an intensive description of the research problem in a particular instance. The concern of this study, however, was to gain insight into the more general problems of implementing organizational change which might be found across a number of different programs and schools. Therefore, the descriptive data were examined in an attempt to identify the characteristics of the previous program of the school, the proposed changes, and the actual program which emerged in the school. An understanding of these characteristics and their relationships provided a basis for sug-

gesting procedures in the management of change which would reduce the disruptive nature of innovation and increase the probability of successful implementation.

The School for Study

The school selected for study has enjoyed a reputation as one of the "better" schools in a district which serves a business and manufacturing community of 100,000. It was built in the early sixties and expanded to serve a growing community of middle and upper-middle class families.

The elementary school has an enrollment of about 500 pupils in grades one through six. Before the introduction of differentially staffed instructional teams, there were eighteen full-time teachers formally assigned to self-contained classrooms. It should be noted that some teachers had established informal arrangements for cooperative teaching. Most of the teachers were experienced as were the principal and school counselor.

The program of change for this elementary school resulted from the adoption of a federally funded

program which advocated an increased curricular emphasis in the Arts. The initial planning began at the national level and the district submitted a proposal which they felt would satisfy the general goals of the National Project. Because the guidelines were of a general nature, the proposed program's components were a product of the district's interpretation of how a new curricular emphasis could be developed and implemented. The proposal was written by central office personnel before the selection of a participating school and the involvement of building staff.

The strategy for change was a new organization for instruction which reorganized the existing instructional staff into three instructional teams. Each team was composed of a designated team leader, who also had full-time instructional duties; five teachers; and a paraprofessional who was responsible to that team for instructional assistance. The positions within the team were formally differentiated by salary, responsibility, and authority.

A new Arts team of five teaching specialists was created and included an Associate Director for the Arts Program who also assumed half-time instructional duties. The Project Director for the Arts program held

a central office position and was formally committed to the program part-time. The formal structure of the school is presented in Figure 1.

This new organization for instruction was the means by which a number of more specific changes in the school's instructional program were to be implemented. The four changes proposed were: (1) an immediate increase in the quantity and quality of Arts instruction, (2) in-service training for teachers in the Arts, (3) the cooperative planning, execution, and coordination of instruction within each instructional team, and (4) the development and implementation of a new curriculum which infused the Arts into all subject-matter areas.

Principal

ART TEAM

Assoc. Proj. Director
and Arts Specialists

Art Specialists
Music Specialist
Drama Specialist
Dance Specialist

Secretary

SCHOOL SUPPORT

Counselor
Inst. Media Specialist
School Secretary
Clerical Aide
P. E. Teacher

TEACHING TEAM A	TEACHING TEAM B	TEACHING TEAM C
Team Leader	Team Leader	Team Leader
Teacher	Teacher	Teacher
Teacher	Teacher	Teacher
Teacher	Teacher	Teacher
Teacher	Teacher	Teacher
Teacher	Teacher	Teacher
Paraprofessional	Paraprofessional	Paraprofessional

Figure 1: The Formal Structure of Instructional Teams

The Actual Program

The staff was able to develop an operational program consistent with the first two proposed changes. An increase in the quantity and quality of Arts instruction was accomplished by a new Arts program which was created and implemented by the Arts Team. The dominant characteristic of this program was the scheduling of a class in each Arts area (Visual Art, Dance, Drama, Music) for each teacher once a week. These classes were supplemented by special events which brought artists into the school and after school activities. In-service training for teachers was implemented by strategy whereby the teacher would observe the classes held by the specialists. Special in-service sessions were also held after school and on Saturdays.

By the end of the study, the staff had yet to determine the role behaviors consistent with the concept of differentially staffed instructional teams.[6] The instructional teams did not operate as a unit in the planning, coordination, and execution of instruction and the instructional role of the team leader was no different than that of other teachers. Although cooperative be-

havior among teachers in instructional activities was evidenced. this behavior among teachers occured at the same grade level and was similar to that in the past. Teachers were free to decide upon these cooperative activities at an informal level; the team did not function as a decision-making body with respect to the individual teacher's instructional program.

By the end of the study, the staff had also failed to determine the instructional activities and content that would comprise the new curriculum. The instructional program of the school was divided into two parts; Arts by the specialists and non-arts by the teachers. Although the instructional teams were proposed as the means for the development and implementation of the new curriculum, they did not function in this manner. The Arts specialists were also unable to develop a new curriculum. Therefore, the new curriculum which was to infuse the Arts into all subject matter areas remained at the proposal stage.

The case study school experienced conditions of both change and non-change and suffered the ill consequences of both. Because the actual program of the school

was descrepant from that of the past, the staff had to cope with negative reactions to the changes that were implemented as a result of the independent Arts program. And because the actual program of the school was, in part, also descrepant from that proposed, the staff was pressured by forces external to the school to develop and implement a program consistent with the concept of differentially staffed instructional teams and the proposed curriculum. These two problem areas in the implementation of change, negative reactions to change and the failure to implement change, are discussed below. As the discussion of the general issues involved in each indicate, the problems were not independent in the case study school.

Negative Reactions to Change

The authority behind the Arts Team was sufficient to structure new instructional activities in the school consistent with the specialists' priorities. Rather than generate enthusiasm and support among the staff as intended, these activities were not well received.

One of the early problems of the scheduled Arts classes and special events was the disruption they created in the daily and weekly routine of the classroom. Arts classes and activities were held at different times during the week and the times for the Arts classes seemed to constantly change. These changes were not always accurately communicated to the teachers ahead of time. No two days or weeks seemed the same and the establishment of a classroom routine was beyond the teachers' control.

Another problem was created for the teachers who desired to engage in cooperative teaching activities. The effect of the schedules was actually less for the teacher in the self-contained classroom than for teachers who worked together. If pupils were to receive all of their non-arts instruction from one teacher, it was possible for the individual teacher to work around the Arts schedule. However, when teachers at the same grade level exchanged pupils for non-arts instruction, it was necessary for the other teachers to be free from the Arts schedules. The Arts classes reduced this time during the week by about one-third and cooperative

activities were begun, rearranged, and interrupted as the schedules changed.

A third problem became more evident with time. The proposal stressed an increase in the quantity and quality of Arts instruction but had not mentioned other instructional areas. As the year passed, teachers became more and more concerned about the time available for non-arts instruction. Reading, math, and social studies were not being given enough time in the opinion of some of the staff. The teachers had retained their commitment to these areas in the face of additional goals and instructional demands. What the proper balance was to be between Arts and non-arts was not resolved.

The role of the classroom teacher was changed by the independent Arts program. In the past, the teacher had been responsible for all the instruction in the classroom. Under the new organization for instruction, that responsibility was shared. The specialists were responsible for instruction in each Arts area and they determined the nature of that instruction, as well as how long and how

frequently it would occur. It was this fundamental change in the authority structure of the school that contributed to the negative reaction to change by the teachers. To understand the implications of changing the authority structure of the school, it was necessary to understand the authority structure that traditionally exists under the self-contained classroom.

Lortie maintains that the organization of teachers by self-contained classrooms has supported the emergence of certain behavior patterns among teachers and administrators.[7] These patterns indicate the zones of authority that have existed in the elementary school.

> It is our hypothesis that the authority teachers possess stems from the spatial work arrangements found in most schools and from informal rules that are connected with those arrangements. The self-contained classroom, in this view, is more than a physical reality, for it refers as well to a social system, a set of recurrent and more or less permanent social relationships. Under this arrangement the teacher is separated from immediate supervision, and intrusion into his private domain is prevented by a set of understandings subscribed to by administrative officers and teacher colleagues. A set of norms exist which act to

> buttress the ecological separation: (1) the teacher should be free from the interference of other adults while teaching, (2) teachers should be considered and treated as equals, and (3) teachers should act in a non-intervening but friendly manner toward one another. Since these rules apparently reinforce one another, they can be considered a pattern--a pattern which we call 'the autonomy-equality pattern.'[8]

In a later work, Lortie found that the primary source of reward for elementary teachers is in instructional interactions with pupils.[9] Lortie calls these transitory rewards. "Transitory rewards arise when effective communication with students produces student responses which the teacher defines as 'learning.'"[10] This primary reward reinforces the teacher's claim to autonomy and determines the areas of control desired by teachers.

> Individual teachers can make the most of transitive rewards only if there is freedom for them to choose the criteria and techniques to be used in assessing student performance. Only then can individual teachers select the criteria and techniques which, holding meaning for them, provide a sense of genuine attainment of transitive outcomes. Thus teachers have a stake in warding off controls which reduce their options in the selection of working goals and assessment procedures.[11]

The critical aspect of teacher autonomy is freedom from interference in instructional decisions. If learning as defined by the teacher is to occur and provide the desired transitory rewards from the interaction with pupils, then the teacher must be able to determine her classroom instructional program. Teacher autonomy implies not only the freedom to select what is important as far as goals and assessment procedures are concerned, but also the specific means of instruction. In order for the goals to have meaning and the assessments to be valid, the teacher must also be able to select the specific behaviors in task performance he feels will lead to these goals.

Teacher autonomy can be defined as the freedom to select the instructional goals, the means by which those goals are to be attained, and the criteria for success in the teacher's instructional activities. Autonomy is reduced when the range of alternatives the teacher may choose from is reduced. The effect of reducing these options is to restrict the range of specific behaviors the teacher can select in the what, when, and how of

instruction. External control over instructional goals, teaching materials, teaching methods, or teaching time can all reduce teacher autonomy.

Autonomy does not require the isolation of the teacher, only that the teacher be the locus of decisions concerning instruction. Although autonomy is supported by isolation, it also implies that a teacher may agree with others about instructional decisions. Autonomy also provides the flexibility for cooperative behavior with other teachers and has contributed to the range of informal agreements among teachers in how they do or do not work together.

The autonomy of the teacher has served as an effective means of handling the individual interpretations of appropriate goals and strategies of instruction under conditions of (1) a multiplicity of goals for instruction in the elementary school, and (2) the lack of an instructional technology.[12] The self-contained classroom and the norm of teacher autonomy have minimized conflict among teachers as to either the content or style

of teaching; and yet, under conditions of consensus about goals and means for instruction, cooperative behavior among teachers is possible. Consequently, a seemingly limitless variety of working goals and instruction activities is found within the elementary school.[13] The discussion of the traditional program of the elementary school is summarized in Figure 2.

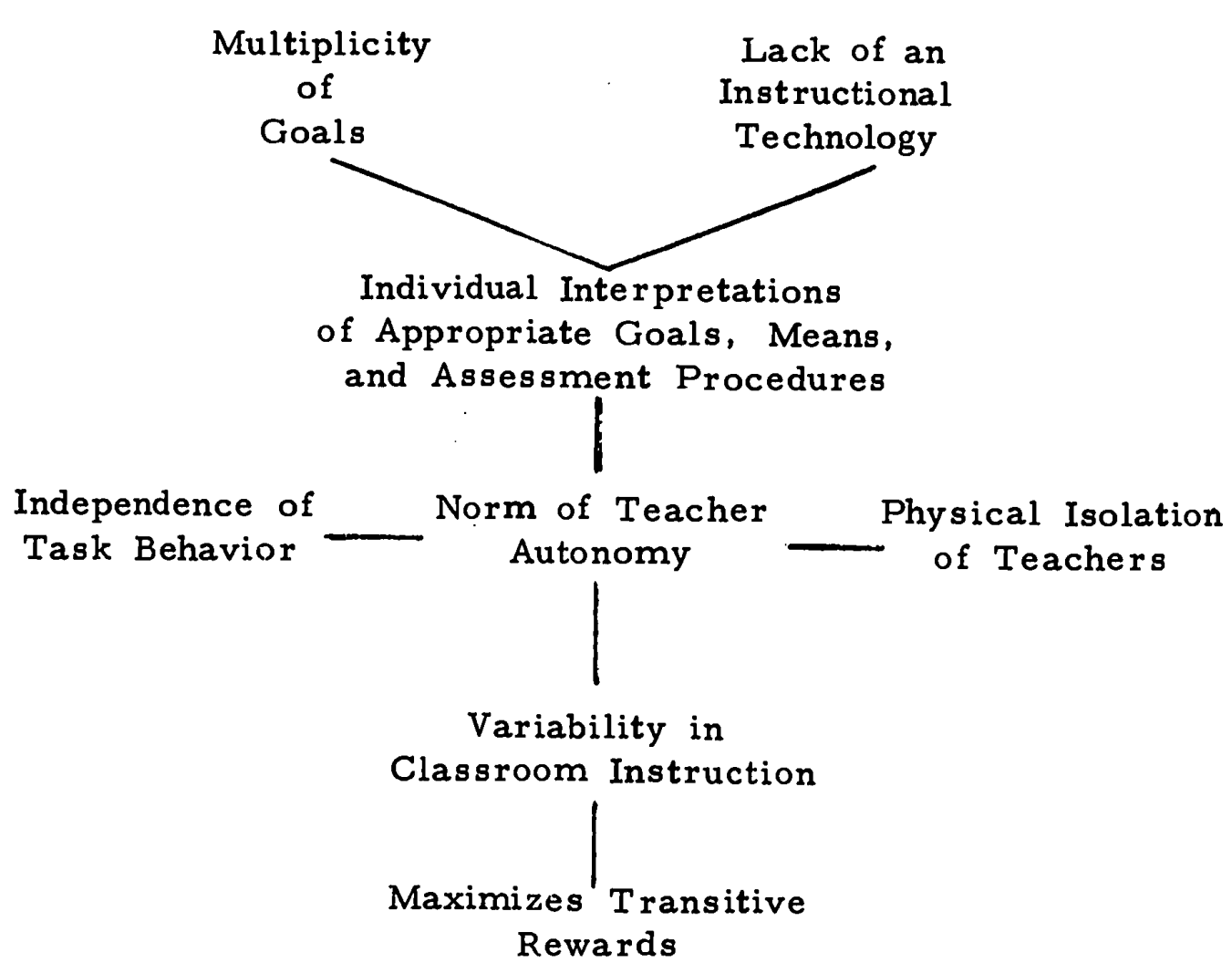

Figure 2: The Instructional Program of the Elementary School Organized by the Self-Contained Classroom.

In the past, the instructional program of the case study school had also been characterized by variability. This variability was a function of the teacher's freedom to choose his own pattern of behavior with regard to instruction. Considerable freedom had been granted to the professional staff. The philosophy of the principal was stated by one teacher, "As long as the teachers can work it out among themselves, its all right with him."

Under the new organization for instruction, teachers were unable to control a number of factors which influenced their behavior in the classroom. Administrative authority was sufficient to alter some aspects of the program regardless of the teachers' wishes. The teachers could not control the scheduling demands of the Arts program, the classes taught by the specialists, the workshops and after-school meetings, or the special events during the year.

The scheduling aspects of the new program immediately interferred with the accustomed instructional program of the teacher. The Arts classes changed the overall goals of instruction (an increase in Arts instruction), influenced the methods of instruction (by placing

constraints on cooperative teaching), and altered the time allotted to different instructional areas (by the time required for the special events and the Arts classes). The teacher's control over the what, when and how of instruction had been circumscribed. The autonomy of the teacher to plan and execute instruction as he desired had been placed under restrictions not present under the program and organization of the self-contained classroom. Although the new Arts program was directly responsible for the teachers' negative reactions to change, it is likely that they would have reacted similarly to any other new program which would have reduced their authority in the school.

Failure to Implement Change

The second problem area identified in the case study school was the inability to implement an operating program entirely consistent with that proposed. In order to understand the conditions which contributed to the development of this problem, it was necessary to examine the nature of the proposal itself. It was to serve as the starting point for the development of the program and it was to serve as the model against which the program in practice

could be held. The proposal itself was never questioned or analyzed as a document; the "package of change" was simply accepted.

The proposal became what Smith and Keith have called the formal doctrine.[14]

> A formal doctrine contains statements of goals and objectives toward which one strives. Also it contains sub-goals to be approached 'on the way' toward the more general and ultimate objectives.... Similarly, it contains specification of means, alternatives in action, in social structure, in procedures which contain hypothetically high probabilities of attaining the goals. In effect, it is a plan, a guide to individual action and group activity.[15]

Although Smith and Keith describe a potential function of the formal doctrine as a guide to action, its ability to function in that capacity is not insured.

> As a language system is abstract it permits legitimate but varying interpretations. A doctrine with considerable abstractness hypothetically can provoke a wide range of such interpretations.[16]

The formal doctrine was an abstract statement of the goals of the new program and the expected role behavior of the staff members. Its ability to function as a guide to action was thereby severly reduced.

> Accompanying any decision concerning goals to be achieved is another decision about how this is to be accomplished or the means by which this is to be attained. These means, in turn, become sub-goals about which still further decisions have to be made regarding the means by which they are to be achieved. These secondary means, in turn, become sub-sub-goals and so on, until the statements means become sufficiently specific or reach a level of concreteness to permit action to be taken.[17]

The formal doctrine did not allow for a clear interpretation of the new program and the concrete activities required of the staff were not specified.

During the summer workshops held to plan the coming year of change, the lack of specificity concerning the four proposed changes (see page 7) was partially overcome. A decision was made to schedule the Arts personnel into the classroom. This decision was a guide

to action. It, therefore, started the program in one direction, gave it one focus, and set the stage for much that was problematic in the future.

A schedule was drawn up which indicated who was to do what and when. This decision directed the activities of the new members of the staff, specified the times during which the teachers and specialists would interact, and dictated the roles for both the teachers and the specialists. The proposed increase in the quantity and quality of Arts instruction and in-service training were to be accomplished by these means. However, there was no comparable decision with regard to the development of the new curriculum or the manner in which the instructional teams would function.

Because the staff had failed to determine the specific role behaviors required to implement the other proposed changes, they did not recognize the conflicts which existed among the proposed changes in terms of their implications for staff behavior.[18]

The first conflict centered around the appropriate division of labor among teachers in their instructional duties. The division of labor implied by the in-service aspects of the proposed program was for all teachers to develop the same skills in Arts instruction. That is, each teacher was not only to teach the Arts in the future, but to teach the Arts in all four areas of Dance, Drama, Music, and Visual Art. Therefore, all the teachers, including the team leaders, were to receive in-service training.

However, the proposal had also called for differentially staffed instructional teams. The division of labor was based upon different instructional activities and responsibilities among the teachers and between the teachers and the team leader. The new organization for instruction was intended to encourage the teachers and the team leader to develop and use different skills and interests in instruction and not to duplicate the behaviors and skills of others. The in-service program was consistent with the division of labor found under self-contained classrooms but contradictory to that of differentially staffed instructional teams.

The second conflict centered around an orientation towards the time of change. The proposal called for an immediate increase in the quantity and quality of Arts instruction. The "change now" orientation required that instructional activities be adopted which would immediately expose pupils to a new Arts program. The proposal, however, also called for long-range change through the development of a new curriculum which would infuse the Arts into other subjects. A conflict, therefore, existed in the types of role behaviors implied by each approach to change; instructional activities for immediate change and planning activities for long-range change. The proposed changes and their conflicts are presented in Table I.

Table I: Implications for Role Behavior in Proposed Changes

	Proposed Changes	Implications for Role Behavior
1.	In-service Training	All teachers to develop the same skills and interests.
2.	Differentially Staffed Instructional Teams	Each teacher to use different skills and interests.
3.	Immediate increase in the quantity and quality of Arts instruction	Instructional activities for immediate change.
4.	Development of a new curriculum	Planning activities for future change.

If all four proposed changes were to be implemented, it would have been necessary for the staff to have structured activities for teachers, team leaders, and specialists consistent with each goal and yet not interfere with the attainment of others. However, the proposal was not examined in terms of the staff behavior implied by each of these goals and the staff was able to implement some of the proposed changes only at the expense of others.

The Arts classes, in-service sessions, and special events scheduled during the year did attain the goals of an immediate increase in the quantity and quality of Arts instruction and in-service training. However, this strategy created a heavy teaching schedule for the specialists and, therefore, a heavy observation schedule for the teachers and team leaders. These demands reduced the planning time available for the teachers, team leaders, and specialists to plan a new curriculum. The Arts program also reduced the time for the teachers and team leaders to plan their own internal instructional program. The shortage of team planning time and the in-service emphasis on teachers and team leaders developing the same skills de-emphasized the concept of differentially staffed instructional teams.

The failure to specify the implications of the proposed changes for role behavior by the staff members was one of the general characteristics of the change attempt in the case study school which contributed to its problems. This problem was characterized in the case study school is summarized in Figure 3.

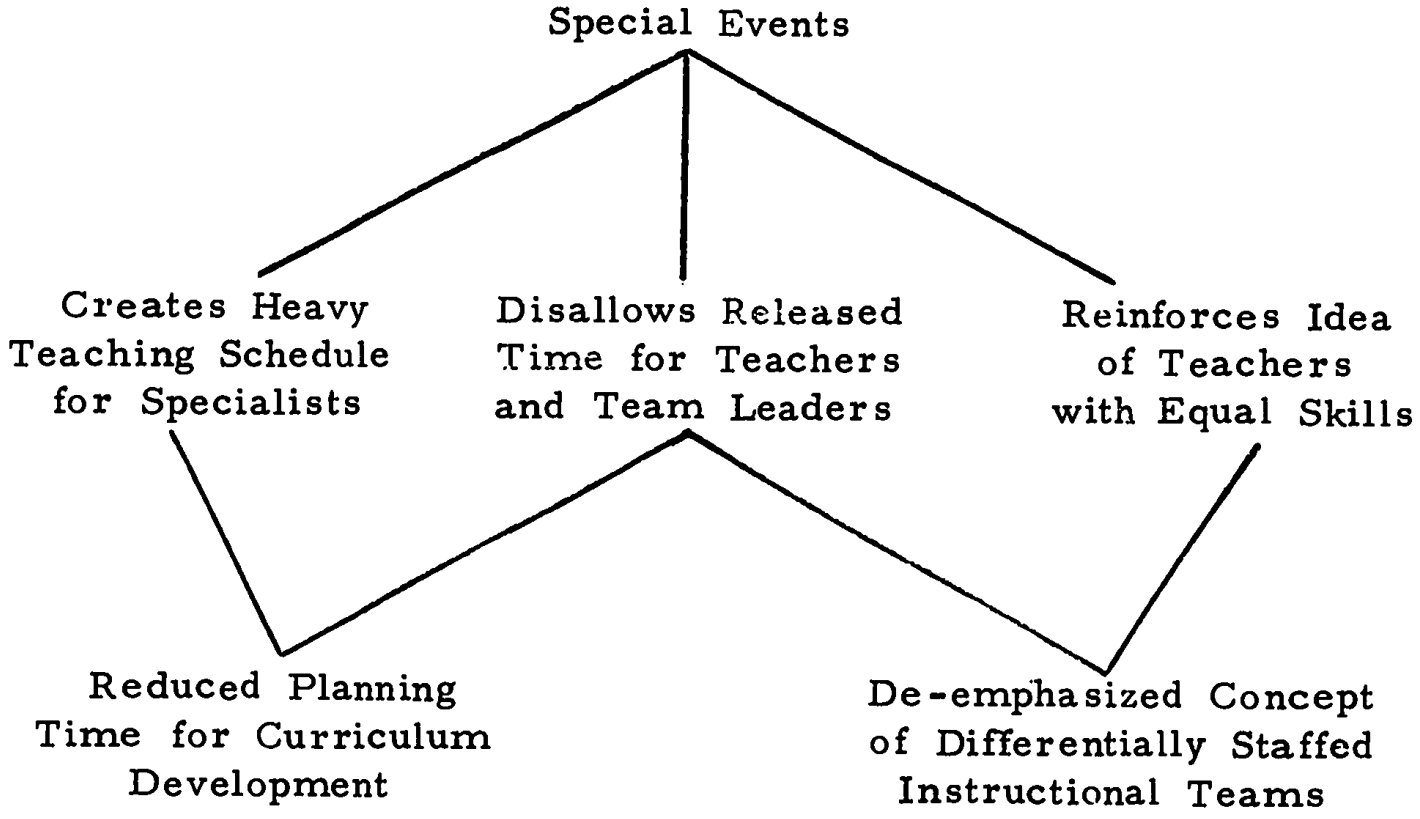

Figure 3: Incompatable Demands of Arts Program for Other Proposed Changes

The staff was unable to closely examine basic issues such as the lack of specificity in the proposed changes and the conflict among them once the program began. The staff continued the Arts program as it existed and thereby perpetuated the problems it created; (1) a negative reaction by teachers, and (2) a lack of planning time.

The negative reactions by the teachers were not anticipated and yet the teachers were quick to communicate their dissatisfaction to each other and to the team leader. The team leader then communicated their dissatisfactions to the Arts Team and the response of the specialists back to the teachers. In fact, the primary role of the team leader became that of a communication link to the Arts team rather than a leader in the internal operation of the team.

> The type of coordination used in the organization is a function of the extent to which the situation is standardized. To the extent that contingencies arise, not anticipated in the schedule, coordination requires communication to give notice of deviations from planned or predicted conditions, or to give instructions for changes in activity to adjust to these deviations.[19]

The formal and informal gatherings of the staff were caught up in discussions of the Arts program. The teachers had to make shifts in their plans for the day and week, specialists talked about the negative reactions of the teachers, and team leaders were talking to teachers and specialists. In all, the staff devoted considerable time to discussions of the Arts program, its demands and problems.

During the planning time that was available, the staff directed its attention to the immediate problems of the school and its present program rather than long-range planning. The priority of immediate to long-range issues was critical, especially under conditions of scarce planning time. Even when the staff was pressured by forces external to the school to change the program, the amount of planning time devoted to a future program was slight.

The lack of specificity in the expected role behavior for teachers and team leaders under the new organization of instructional teams was never resolved. There was no guide for behaviors which would be consistent with the proposed internal functioning of the instructional teams. There was no know change in expectations in terms of who

does what and when; and structured, pre-planned activities consistent with those expectations were not established. Therefore, the instructional teams' internal functioning was subject to other influences.

A major influence stemmed from the recruitment procedure for team members; almost all were "insiders."[20] There was a personnel change in only three of the eighteen classroom teachers. Although the position of team leader was new to the school, the people selected to fill these positions were not. Each team leader had been a teacher in the case study school; they had all taught for several years with the same staff as a fellow teacher.

An established pattern of interaction among the teachers had been established in the past and the team leader had been part of that pattern as a teacher. In the absence of a guide for new behavior, the team members relied on their previous behavior patterns as a known guide for their present activity.

The staff relationships typically found in an elementary school were valid for the internal interaction and functioning of the team members relative to the team's instructional program (see Figure 2). The teams failed to reach consensus on a number of instructional issues (e.g., homogenous grouping) and the teachers retained their autonomy vis-a-vis the team leader and other teachers to continue the instructional variability of the past. The insiders continued their informal understandings and patterns of interaction consistent with the norm of teacher autonomy.

This reaction of the teachers and team leaders under conditions of a lack of specificity in proposed change was facilitated because of (1) the organizational arrangements that restricted planning time, and (2) their focus on issues external to the team (the Arts Program). These general factors contributed to the failure of the staff to develop a program entirely consistent with that proposed and are considered as critical in any change attempt.

Implications for the Management of Change

The management of innovation can be considered effective to the extent to which it formulates a strategy of implementation which minimizes the negative reactions to innovation and results in an actual program consistent with that proposed. The problems of change observed in the case study school suggest that a strategy of implementation is likely to be more effective if it (1) specifies the staff behaviors required to attain a proposed program goal, and (2) examines the implications of that alternative in terms of its consequences for staff members and the alternatives adopted to achieve other proposed program goals.

It would appear critical to determine an operational definition of all proposed changes in terms of who does what and when prior to the initiation of steps to implement the proposed program. If there is no guide for behavior consistent with a proposed program goal, a vacuum is created and other factors become influential. Other factors which may determine role behavior under those conditions may include a response to immediate problems, previous patterns of behavior, and organizational procedures

that may be established or continued which interfere with intended behavior. Once the expected role behavior is specified for different staff members, activities can be structured which will require and support the role behaviors identified as those which will attain a proposed program goal.

Footnotes

1. This paper is a summary of a study completed at the Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration, University of Oregon. See Larry Joe Reynolds, "Problems of Implementing Organizational Change in the Elementary School: A Case Study," (unpublished Ph. D. dissertation, University of Oregon, 1972).

2. Neal Gross, Joseph B. Giaquinta, and Marilyn Bernstein, "Failure to Implement a Major Organizational Innovation," in Learning in Social Settings, edited by Matthew B. Miles and W. W. Charters, Jr. (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1970), pp. 691-705.

3. Louis M. Smith and Pat M. Keith, Social Psychological Aspects of School Building Design (Washington, D. C.: U.S. Office of Education, Co-Op Res. Report No. S-223, 1967).

4. Richard O. Carlson, Adoption of Educational Innovations (Eugen, Oregon: Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration, 1965), pp. 74-84.

5. W. W. Charters, Jr., "On Describing the Form of Differentially Staffed Instructional Teams," mimeographed (Eugene, Oregon: Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration, 1970).

6. The period of study was from the first day of school in September to the end of January.

7. Dan C. Lortie, "The Teacher and Team Teaching: Suggestions for Long-Range Research," in Team Teaching, edited by Judson T. Shaplin and Henry F. Olds, Jr. (New York: Harper and Row, 1964), pp. 270-305.

8. Ibid., pp. 274-275.

9. Dan C. Lortie, "The Balance of Control and Autonomy in Elementary School Teaching," in The Semi-Professions and Their Organization, edited by Amitai Etzioni (New York: Free Press, 1969), pp. 1-53.

10. Ibid., p. 33.

11. Ibid., pp. 36-37.

12. Matthew B. Miles, "Education and Organization: The Organization as Context," in Change Perspectives in Educational Administration, edited by Max G. Abbott and John T. Lovell (Auburn: School of Education, 1965), pp. 54-72.

13. Roland J. Pellegrin and Nikolaus Stehr, "Idiosyncratic Specialization and Causal Interdependence in Elementary School Teaching," mimeographed (Eugene, Oregon: Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration, 1971).

14. Smith and Keith, Social-Psychological Aspects.

15. Ibid., p. 227.

16. Ibid., pp. 222-223.

17. Joseph A. Litterer, The Analysis of Organizations (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1965), p. 139.

18. A similar problem for staff functioning under conditions of proposed change was found by Gross, et al., Failure to Implement.

19. James G. March and Herbert A. Simon, Organizations (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1958), p. 160.

20. Succession pattern may be as critical for team membership as it is for the superintendent. See Richard O. Carlson, Executive Succession and Organizational Change (Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, 1962).