

A COMPARISON OF THE ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE AND
THE DECISION-MAKING PROCESSES IN A UNITED
STATES ARMY SCHOOL AND A TYPICAL
MODERN SECONDARY SCHOOL

by 5714

ROBERT LOUIS WENDT

B. S., Washington State University, 1960

A MASTER'S REPORT

submitted in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree

MASTER OF SCIENCE

College of Education

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
Manhattan, Kansas

1968

Approved by:



Major Professor

8
R
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42
43
44
45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56
57
58
59
60
61
62
63
64
65
66
67
68
69
70
71
72
73
74
75
76
77
78
79
80
81
82
83
84
85
86
87
88
89
90
91
92
93
94
95
96
97
98
99
100

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER	PAGE
I. INTRODUCTION	
The Problem	1
Importance of the Study	1
Design and Procedure	2
Limitations	3
Definition of Terms	3
II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	
Theory of Organization and Decision-Making Processes	5
Organization of the Schools	14
Decision-Making Processes in Personnel Management.	19
Decision-Making Processes in Curriculum Development	26
III. ORGANIZATION OF THE SCHOOLS	
The United States Army Ordnance Center and School.	34
The Model Secondary School	39
IV. DECISION-MAKING PROCESSES IN PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION	
The United States Army Ordnance Center and School	44
The Model Secondary School	48
V. DECISION-MAKING PROCESSES IN CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT	
The United States Army Ordnance Center and School	51
The Model Secondary School	53
VI. IMPLICATIONS	56
BIBLIOGRAPHY	60

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Every institution must make provisions for a definite organizational structure and for the decision-making processes incorporated within it. Decisions have to be made regarding goals, purposes, policies, and programs, as they relate to the organization. These may be made by the leader, by the group, by the representatives of the group, or by a combination of the above. Regardless of what type of decision is to be made or who is to make it definite patterns or channels must be established to insure prompt and efficient decision-making. This is as true in the fields of military and civilian education as it is in any other field.

What is meant by organization and decision-making? How are the decisions made? At what level are they made? Who is involved? These questions are answered in the following report.

I. THE PROBLEM

It was the purpose of the study (1) to compare the organizational structure of the United States Army Ordnance Center and School and a typical modern secondary school, (2) to examine the decision-making processes involved in personnel administration, and (3) to discuss the decision-making processes utilized in curriculum development.

II. IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

This report was undertaken for several reasons. First of all, the writer was a career officer in the United States Army and was concurrently

pursuing a Masters Degree in School Administration. With a deep interest in both career fields the writer wished to link the two through a common subject area--that of administrative organization and decision-making in education. Secondly, the writer had no previous on-the-job experience in the educational institutions involved and hoped to broaden his knowledge and increase his abilities in both areas. Finally, a preliminary review of literature revealed that little had been written about school organization and its relationships. This being the case, the writer hoped to examine more closely and concisely the previously mentioned items.

III. DESIGN AND PROCEDURE

This study was descriptive in most all aspects. Information was gathered through a review of the literature and on several occasions questions that arose were answered or clarified by professors in the College of Education or by local school-district personnel.

The writer read or reviewed in excess of sixty books, periodicals, and Army Regulations prior to writing the report. Many were discussed in the review literature and all were listed in the bibliography. The writer initially studied the theory of organization and its relationship to decision-making processes. Then he examined the actual or sample organizational structures involved in the schools under study. With the theory and the structures firmly in mind he applied them to the subject areas of personnel administration and curriculum development.

The writer does not draw definite conclusions at the end of the report but indicates possible implications which should benefit both administrators and instructors in the civilian and military areas.

IV. LIMITATIONS

There were several limitations to this descriptive study. The first and perhaps most serious was that the writer had no first-hand teaching or administrative experience in either type of school studied. This meant that the paper was necessarily based upon the literature which certainly presented the theoretical picture and not perhaps the actual or normal situation.

A second limitation was that this study was based upon only one military school and the model secondary school. It was recognized that while these schools were typical, they very likely had certain idiosyncrasies not common to the average military or civilian school.

A final limitation was the failure to consider fully the impact of informal organization in an institution, all phases of personnel administration, and all facets of curriculum development. This was done for simplicity and a better comparison of the two types of schools discussed.

V. DEFINITION OF TERMS

United States Army Ordnance Center and School. The United States Army Ordnance Center and School is an Army branch service school located at Aberdeen Proving Ground, Maryland. It offers command, staff and technical training to career Ordnance officers, non-commissioned officers, and enlisted men. This school is considered typical or average in most all aspects when compared with other Army branch service schools.

Typical modern secondary school. This is a three-year comprehensive high school of approximately 1000 pupils. It is located in a school district serving a community of 25,000 - 30,000 citizens with a school population of 4,000 - 4,500 students.

Organization. This is a formation of relationships within an establish-

ment that aligns the goals and ideas of the institution with those of the personnel who make up its working parts. There are two types of organization, formal and informal. Formal organization is the structure or design commonly seen on an organizational chart which places each and every member of the institution in relation to every one else. Informal organization is the extra-legal and inter-personal relationships outside the formal structure which complement it in the decision-making process.

Decision-making process. This is the cycle of events or the process that one consciously or unconsciously goes through in order to pass judgment on a set of conditions. This process includes: (1) definition of the problem, (2) evaluation of the problem, (3) establishment of alternate solutions, (4) evaluation and selection of the desired solution, and (5) implementation of the desired solution or decision.

Personnel Administration. This refers to the important area of managing all institutional personnel and the processes inherent in it. These include: (1) selection and assignment; (2) orientation; (3) records, evaluation and promotion; and (4) in service training.

Curriculum. This term refers to all the planned learning experiences under the control of the school. It follows from this definition that the term curriculum development refers to selection of new goals, organization for change, process of change, and evaluation procedures as they apply to the curriculum.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

On the whole, very little has been written in regard to school organization and decision-making from the standpoint of actual line and staff relationships. It follows, then, that there has not been a great deal of literature in education concerning personnel management and curriculum development as they relate to this organizational structure. This review outlines much of the thinking in these areas and provides a basis for the later chapters of the report.

The writer reviewed literature concerning (1) the theory behind organization and decision-making; (2) organization of the schools; and (3) personnel administration and curriculum development as they relate to this organization. Most of the literature in this chapter contained references to civilian theory and organization. This was done to provide a basis for forming a model school concept for discussion in Chapters III, IV, and V. Military literature was limited because it was referred to in detail in later chapters when the organization and operation of the Ordnance School were discussed in detail.

I. THEORY OF ORGANIZATION AND DECISION-MAKING PROCESSES

To get a proper background for a discussion of organizational structure and decision-making the writer examined several theoretical characteristics or concepts of organizations. They were (1) formal and informal organization; (2) tall and flat structures; (3) span of control; (4) line and staff relationships; (5) single versus multiple heads; (6) the organizational chart; and (7) the decision-making process.

Daniel Griffiths was one of the more prolific writers on the subject of

educational organisation. He pointed out that organisation had been a persistent yet neglected problem in educational literature. Of some fifteen textbooks on school administration he selected at random, not one devoted as much as a single chapter to the study of school organisation. He claimed that failure had resulted in the development of school systems seemingly without purpose and in some cases had led to hopeless confusion. On the other hand he felt that the military, business, and public administration had done a great deal in the way of organisational research and had pioneered many developments. Paradoxically, however, little of the work had been published.¹

Griffiths looked upon organisation as a function of administration and defined it as an attempt to relate and ultimately fuse the purposes of an institution with those of the people who make up its working parts. He felt organisation could be divided into formal and informal aspects. Formal organisation referred to the definable, structured design of an institution--the static picture of a dynamic process, while informal organisation constituted the system of inter-personal relations which formed within an institution to effect the decisions of the formal organisation.²

Wynn defined organisation as "step one in the administrative process with the purpose of distributing and clarifying authority and responsibility consistent with the purposes of the institution".³

He discussed formal and informal organisation and used Griffiths

¹Daniel E. Griffiths, Organizing the Schools for Effective Education (Danville, Illinois: The Interstate Printers and Publishers, Inc., 1962), p. 3.

²Ibid., p. 8.

³Richard D. Wynn, Organization of the Public Schools (Washington, D. C.: The Center for Applied Research in Education, 1964), p. 30.

definitions but felt that informal organization was more complex and not as easily grasped as Griffiths made it sound.⁴

Knezevich stated the purpose of organization to be a systematic means of differentiating and coordinating the resources to attain the objective, goals, and purposes of the group. He felt that through organization one could harness the energies of many individuals and capitalize on individual differences. This definition was referred to later as formal organization. Knezevich defined informal organization as interactions not intended by the formal organization and felt it was a natural result of human social desires. He felt it could be good or bad depending on how closely the goals of the informal organization followed those of the formal organization.⁵

Morphat regarded organization as hard to define and preferred to give examples of issues in organization rather than a formal definition. One issue was that of formal and informal organization. He defined formal organization as a structure that provided for institutional decision-making and was a long term or extended thing. Informal organization was regarded as a short term face to face relationship.⁶

Kimbrough dealt mainly with the importance of informal organization and the fact that it was generally discounted in discussions of institutions and decision-making. Contrary to popular belief he felt that it was the informal relationships deeply entrenched in the schools that were the real power base.⁷

⁴Ibid., pp. 45-49.

⁵Stephen J. Knezevich, Administration of Public Education (New York: Harper and Bros., Publ., 1962), pp. 56-57.

⁶Edgar L. Morphat, Educational Organization and Administration (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967). pp. 87-88.

⁷Ralph B. Kimbrough, Political Power and Educational Decision-making (Chicago: Rand McNally Company, 1964). Chapter 12.

Minar on the other hand stated that his surveys showed that although decision-making did take place outside the formal structure it was much less than most people thought. He pointed out that most all cases which involved informal organization were situations involving personalities or political matters.⁸

A second issue in organization was that of the tall (centralized) and flat (decentralized) organization. Griffiths and Wynn defined a tall institution as many layered from top to bottom and narrow in breadth. They agreed that a tall organization tended to be more structured and inflexible. The flat organization was just opposite having few layers but having a broad span at each level. Control was tighter with the tall organization but participation by members was restricted. Both agreed that the structure an institution followed depended on its size and function but that a compromise between the two was most desirable.⁹

Kneesevich agreed with Griffiths as far as the definition of tall and flat organization. He felt that the tall structure was more adaptable to an institution with a great turnover of personnel whereby a flat organization was better where turnover was small.¹⁰

Jenowitz discussed military school organization and made the following points. He felt that school structure tended to be tall and centralized because of the need for standardized procedures. This was necessitated by the frequent turnover of personnel and the tremendous size of the overall military school system. He felt that this presented an organizational oriented su-

⁸David W. Minar, Education Decision-Making in Suburban Communities (Northwestern University: 1966) pp. 59-64.

⁹Griffiths, Op. Cit., p. 41-49; and Wynn, Op. Cit., Chapter 2.

¹⁰Kneesevich Op. Cit., p. 69.

thority rather than the commonly considered personal authority of civilian institutions.¹¹

A fourth issue of organization was that of span of control. Griffiths referred to it as the optimum number of persons that could be adequately supervised by one man. He concluded that there was no certain number which could be used as a minimum or maximum but that it was limited by the time and abilities of those concerned.¹² Knezevich added that there were five factors that influenced span of control and that they were (1) time, (2) mental capacity and adaptability of the supervisory individual, (3) complexity of the situation, (4) other duties of the supervisor and the subordinate, and (5) the experience and ability of the subordinate.¹³

Morphet agreed in part with both Griffiths and Knezevich but felt span of control was applicable to some institutions and not to others. He also felt this controversial principle could be applied in one part of an institution and not in another.¹⁴

Harlow favored a short chain of command in the schools with a very large span of control. He felt that this could be accomplished because of the intelligence, competency, and traditional independence of the teacher.¹⁵

Another issue in organization was that of line and staff relationships. Griffiths defined line organization as the direct flow of authority

¹¹Morris Jenowitz, The New Military. (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1964). pp. 30-55.

¹²Griffiths, Op. Cit., p. 37.

¹³Knezevich, Op. Cit., pp. 67-68.

¹⁴Morphet, Op. Cit., p. 96.

¹⁵James G. Harlow, Educational Administration: Selected Readings, Ed. Walter G. Heck (Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc. 1965) p. 30.

upward or downward. Staff organization was defined as horizontal in nature with no authority. It existed to advise and support the line organization. Line officers were considered generalists while staff officers were specialists. He felt that all organizations were based on the line and staff concept. He noted the severe criticisms by many authors that this type of organization led to an autocratic administrative process but concluded that when all was considered it was the only type of structure available and it depended on the administrator's use of the system as to whether it created a democratic or autocratic reputation.¹⁶

Morphet did not agree with the viewpoint that the line and staff operation was the single prevalent concept. He felt that there were two specific forms of organization--the traditional monocratic approach which he felt was autocratic in nature and the new, emerging pluralistic approach which was democratic in nature. However differently he viewed these concepts initially he conceded that a compromise between the two was necessary in school organization.¹⁷

Lepawsky felt that the line and staff relationship was the most common organizational concept and the basis for most other variations. But he said there was no such thing as a pure line-and-staff organization and therefore it should be used only as a guide.¹⁸

The single versus multiple head was another issue discussed and most agreed with Morphet when he said that the effectiveness of an organization

¹⁶Griffiths, Op. Cit., pp. 23-28.

¹⁷Morphet, Op. Cit., pp. 99-100.

¹⁸Albert Lepawsky, Administration: The Art and Science of Management (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc. 1960) pp. 290 and 321.

was enhanced when every person knew to whom he was responsible.¹⁹ Knezevich took exception to this and felt that education was different than most institutions and that dual supervision or control was possible if not practical.²⁰

Perhaps the most often mentioned issue was that of the organizational chart. Randell expressed the thoughts of several authors in the discussion of this mythical concept. He felt the organizational chart was a good guide but the attempted use of it as a decision-maker was foolhardy since it was likely out of date by the time it was published.²¹ Hansen felt the organizational chart could not be trusted as it was inflexible and didn't take informal organization into account.²²

The final issue of organization to be discussed was that of decision-making. McCamy defined decision-making as the complex of human associations, events, and words leading to and including a conclusion for a program of policy or operation. He reasoned that no one made a decision alone but was influenced by people, advice, affection, and fear. Personal factors involved in decision-making were: (1) the prestige and economic security of the individual involved in relation to others, (2) the knowledge of the individual, and (3) the responsibility towards the public and other groups that the individual felt.²³

¹⁹Morphet, Op. Cit., p. 95.

²⁰Knezevich, Op. Cit., p. 64.

²¹Clarence B. Randell, The Folklore of Management (Boston: Little, Brown, and Co., 1961). pp. 21-28.

²²Kenneth H. Hansen, "Design for Decision", National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, LI (November 1967), pp. 63-68.

²³James L. McCamy, "Analysis of the Process of Decision-Making", Public Administration Review, VII (Number One, 1947), p. 41.

Hansen stated that the art of decision-making was very old but that the involvement of many people in the process was new. He felt that the process had always been difficult and was becoming more so because the schools were larger and more complex. In addition, the great urge for a voice in democratic decision-making by the teachers had created a new situation.²⁴

Campbell approached organization and decision-making from the angle that it was impossible to please everyone all the time. He felt that the wise person, especially the administrator, should become acquainted with the organization, the persons involved, and hit a happy medium designed to do the best job for the institution.²⁵

Sechs discussed the democratic way of life and reasoned that this must be applied to the educational system. He felt that democratic decision-making was more ambiguous than the ordered autocratic system, but felt it to be worth the price because faith in man was a desired characteristic of good administration. Sachs continued that routine matters should be handled by the administrators while the more important decisions affecting the workers should be delegated to them. These decisions involved personnel administration and curriculum development.²⁶

Morphet said that the board of education and the top administrators set the tone for the type of organization and decision-making found in a school. The more the responsibility was delegated to the people involved the more response and interest would be obtained in the over-all process.

²⁴Hansen, Op. Cit., p. 64.

²⁵Roald F. Campbell and others, Introduction to Educational Administration (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1958). p. 18.

²⁶Benjamin M. Sechs, Educational Administration: A Behavioral Approach (Boston: Mifflin Co., 1966) Chapter 6.

This led to a democratic situation which was the most desirable. He felt that the reverse was also true. Little or no delegation would result in an autocratic situation, little interest would develop on the part of the workers, and a lower morale would exist among the workers.²⁷

Griffiths set forth the premise that the crux of all issues in organization was the process of decision-making. Using this assumption he set down the following six guidelines:

1. The role of the administrative staff in an institution is to create an organization within which the decision-making process can operate effectively. The organization should permit decisions to be made as close to the source of effective action as possible.
2. The administrative staff of an educational institution should be organized to provide individual staff members with as much freedom for initiative as is consistent with efficient operation and prudential controls. Hierarchical levels should be added to the organization with caution, and only when deemed imperative to maintain reasonable control over the institution.
3. The administrative functions and the sources of decision-making in an institution should be organized to provide the machinery for democratic operation and decentralized decision-making.
4. The purpose of organization is to clarify and distribute responsibility and authority among individuals and groups in an orderly fashion consistent with the purposes of the institution. The structure of the institution is determined by the nature of its decision-making process and the organization of the institution should be established to provide for the most effective operation of this process.
5. An institution should be organized with a unitary source of decision-making at its head. Authority and responsibility delegated by the chief administrator should result in a unitary pattern of decision-making levels among all subordinates in the institution.
6. The administrative organization, by its very structure, should provide for the continuous and cooperative evaluation and redirection of the organization from the standpoint of adequacy (the degree to

²⁷Morphet, *Op. Cit.*, pp. 150-155.

which the goals are reached) and efficiency (the degree to which goals are reached relative to the available resources).²⁸

These guidelines placed emphasis on the following concepts of organization:

1. A broad span of control.
2. A flat organization.
3. A decentralized organization.
4. Unitary control.
5. The specialist as a staff officer.
6. The purpose of the institution as the primary criterion for organization.
7. The building unit as the basis of school organization.²⁹

II. ORGANIZATION OF THE SCHOOLS

Putting theory into practice the writer examined the literature concerned with the organization of the two schools. Areas of concern were the board of education, the superintendent and his central office staff, and the secondary school itself.

Griffiths,³⁰ Wynn,³¹ and Knezovich³² all provided organizational charts from which the school district and secondary school organization was adapted. These charts, their accompanying discussion, and other references

²⁸Griffiths, Op. Cit. pp. 60-70.

²⁹Ibid., p. 72.

³⁰Griffiths, Op. Cit., p. 97.

³¹Wynn, Op. Cit., Chapter III.

³²Knezovich, Op. Cit., p. 75.

provided the basis for the following discussion. Writings of each author were examined in turn to provide a comprehensive look at his ideas. Discussion of specific Ordinance Center and School Regulations were limited in this section as they were used extensively in Chapter III.

Griffiths provided a most complete discussion of the various administrative and staff positions in the school district and the secondary school. He looked upon the board of education as the top level policy-makers in the district who were responsible to the people for effective education in the community. They were not looked upon as professional educators but simply as lay overseers. The superintendent was appointed by the board of education as the chief executive responsible to them for the operation of the school district. He was to regulate decision-making, obtain personnel, maintain effective community relations, and provide funds and facilities for the school district.

Griffiths felt the principal was just below the superintendent in a line position and was responsible for his particular building just as the superintendent was responsible for the district. He felt the principal should have the primary jobs of instructional supervision, selection, and development of personnel. Management of the school to include scheduling, activities, transportation, etc. were important but could be delegated to a large degree.

He felt that all other employees had staff functions and were responsible to certain line officers for their actions. Those positions recommended as responsible to the superintendent were the assistant superintendents for instruction, personnel, and business. In turn, coordinators, directors, and/or supervisors in various health and subject areas were responsible to the assistant superintendents. Within the secondary school Griffiths saw the

assistant principal and the department heads as staff personnel.³³

Wynn felt that secondary schools were very diverse, very difficult to describe, and very different in organization. He felt the superintendent and the principal were definitely line oriented while the central office staff (superintendent's) and the department heads were staff oriented.³⁴

Campbell felt that the central office staff had gained in size and influence during the past few years. He looked upon their job as one of teacher involvement and the more the better. Paradoxically, he felt that the school principal should have complete building autonomy and should work closely with his teachers.³⁵

Knezevich discussed the central office staff, the principalship, and duties of the various positions. He agreed with Griffiths on most all points and expanded his thoughts about the vice principal and the department heads. He felt that if there was only one vice principal he would likely be a line officer but if there was more than one a division of labor would take place and the vice principal(s) could be staff. The department head had the authority and responsibility given him by the principal. This could be large or small but he recommended that it not force the department head into a line position.³⁶

Pleth brought out a new concept of organization which was called the school within a school. It consisted of splitting up a large secondary school into approximately three separate schools on one campus. This was done

³³Griffiths, Op. Cit., Chapters 10-13.

³⁴Wynn, Op. Cit., Chapter III.

³⁵Campbell, Op. Cit., Chapter 8.

³⁶Knezevich, Op. Cit., Chapters 9-10.

in an attempt to keep the schools smaller from the viewpoint of the pupil.³⁷

United States Army Ordnance Center and School Regulation 10-1 covered the organization of the military service school in its entirety. This document was used exclusively for the discussion of military school organization and job descriptions.³⁸

Hack felt that a secondary school needed a short chain of command of one to three people depending on size. He disagreed with previous authors in that department heads were in his opinion part of the chain and should function as mid-management. He also felt that the span of control in school organization should end could be large because of the intelligence, specialization, and traditional independence of the teacher.³⁹

Chamberlain and Mickelson approached the subject of organization from the teachers' viewpoint. They felt that the teachers knew that they were on the bottom of the hierarchy but should have a significant role in school organization and decision-making. Areas intended for teacher leadership were curriculum development and faculty meetings. Administrators should be resource persons and not bosses.⁴⁰

Trump proposed that the secondary principal be given administrative assistants in the areas of school business, activities, personnel, transportation, and guidance. The number was to be limited by the size of the school.

³⁷Karl R. Plath, Schools Within Schools: A Study of High School Organization (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1965) Chapter I.

³⁸Ordnance Center and School Regulation 10-1, (Aberdeen Proving Ground, Maryland, 1965), p. 1-34.

³⁹Walter G. Hack and Others, Educational Administration: Selected Readings (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1965), pp. 30-35.

⁴⁰Leo M. Chamberlain and John M. Mickelson, The Teacher and School Organization (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc. 19) pp. 42-45.

The aides would not be assistant principals per se and would not need a great amount of administrative training. Their function was to relieve the principal of menial tasks so that he could devote the majority of his time to instruction.⁴¹

Seymour stated that the principal had lost his position as instructional leader because he became involved in the minutiae of school operation. He viewed elimination of this predicament as a must and suggested the appointment of an assistant principal as coordinator of everything but instruction. This left the principal free to devote the bulk of his time to instruction and curriculum.⁴²

Heim recommended that the assistant superintendents be line officials. He recommended three of these in the areas of personnel, instruction, and business. Each would have line authority over the principal in his respective area of responsibility. Supervisors and/or coordinators who worked for the assistant superintendents would be considered as staff personnel and would work with the principals, department heads, and teachers on a staff basis only. He said that School District 383 did not have an organizational chart as such but recommended that one be developed.⁴³

Bishop felt that the menial duties of administration should be taken from the principal by an assistant principal. He also recommended that in subject areas where three or more teachers were involved that a coordinator

⁴¹J. Lloyd Trump, "Help for the Principal", National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, LI, (May, 1967) pp. 37-42.

⁴²Howard C. Seymour, "The Principal as the Instructional Leader", National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, LI, (Nov. 1967) pp. 17.

⁴³Opinion expressed by Dr. Max O. Heim in a personal interview, Manhattan, February 27, 1968.

(department head) should be appointed. These positions should be staff in nature as the individual teacher should always have direct access to the principal.⁴⁴

III. DECISION-MAKING PROCESSES IN PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT

The writer examined the area of school personnel administration and found a wide variation of tasks and responsibilities defined by the authors - especially between the two types of schools. To provide a better comparison the writer selected the most important areas common to both schools for the discussion. The review centered around: (1) a definition of personnel administration; (2) organization; (3) selection, assignment, and orientation; (4) in-service training; (5) evaluation; and (6) promotion.

Fawcett defined personnel administration as "that staff function of organizational management designed to attract, secure, develop, and retain the skills, attitudes, and knowledge essential for the accomplishment of the goals of the organization".⁴⁵ Van Zwoll looked at personnel administration as "a complex of specific activities engaged in by the school district to secure the greatest worker effectiveness consistent with the organization's objectives".⁴⁶ Morphet felt that originally personnel administration was thought of as only selection, placement, and retention, then moved to employee manipulation, and was finally considered as a series of procedures through which

⁴⁴Opinion expressed by Mr. Herbert Bishop in a personnel interview Manhattan, February 27, 1968.

⁴⁵Claude W. Fawcett, School Personnel Administration (New York: The MacMillan Company, 1964). p. 1.

⁴⁶James A. Van Zwoll, School Personnel Administration (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1964). p. 3.

the enterprise established common goals.⁴⁷

Knezevich approached personnel administration from the functional standpoint. He stated that it could be defined as the problems facing the administrator in the areas of recruitment, selection, assignment, orientation, payment, promotion, and stimulation of the school staff.⁴⁸

Ordnance Center and School Regulation 600-7 defined personnel management as a delineation of responsibilities relative to the assignment and welfare of military personnel and the hiring, assignment, transfer or promotion of civilian employees within the Ordnance School.⁴⁹

In further discussion all five previously mentioned references elaborated upon the functions of personnel administration. All looked upon selection, assignment, orientation, in-service training, evaluation and promotion as the key areas involved. In addition, each mentioned one or more functions not discussed in this report.

Organization of the personnel administration function was a second area examined by the writer. Surprisingly, all major references visualized the organization in virtually the same way. Each, of course, had his own variation but it was relatively minor. Gibson⁵⁰, Fawcett⁵¹, Knezevich⁵²,

⁴⁷Morphet, Op. Cit. p. 410.

⁴⁸Knezevich, Op. Cit. p. 356.

⁴⁹Ordnance Center and School Regulation 600-7 (Aberdeen Proving Ground, Maryland: May 1967).

⁵⁰Oliver R. Gibson, and Herold C. Hunt, The School Personnel Administration (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1963) pp. 86-96.

⁵¹Fawcett, Op. Cit., pp. 142-148.

⁵²Knezevich, Op. Cit., Chapter 12.

and Van Zwoll⁵³ agreed that size of the school system determined the final organizational concept and in the case of the schools discussed the personnel administrator should be a member of the chief executive's staff. They recommended that he assume the role of either an assistant superintendent or director depending on the terminology used by the particular school district. Each felt that the office should be staffed by a professional individual trained both in education and personnel management. This was necessitated by the rapid growth in size and complexity of the nation's schools. Knesevich elaborated on this facet as he stated that in 1960 there were over two million school employees and that an additional 350,000 would be needed by 1970. Added to this was a rising tide of teachers turning to new professions. Another common opinion was that the personnel administrator could not perform the entire mission by himself. Supervisors and/or principals at all levels needed to do their part in coordinating and cooperating in this large endeavor.

Van Zwoll went on to point out that the personnel administrator was half way between the teachers and the management and, therefore, had to look out for both parties. Morphet went even further when he stated that personnel administration was the most important area of administration to the teacher. This was true because it affected the personal welfare of the teacher and as such was of immediate interest. He felt that because it was so important the teachers should actually have a voice in the policy-making aspects of it.⁵⁴

Selection, assignment, and orientation of personnel was a third issue

⁵³Van Zwoll, Op. Cit., Chapter 2.

⁵⁴Morphet, Op. Cit. pp. 410-411.

considered within the realm of personnel administration. Again most references had similar ideas. Van Zwoll felt that policy should be established by interested parties. This included the board of education, superintendent, personnel administrator, principals, and teachers. The policies should be fair, in keeping with our democratic ideals, and have the goals of education in mind. Selection, assignment, and initial orientation should be made by the central office staff in coordination with the building principals who ultimately get the people.⁵⁵

Fawcett emphasized the importance of the availability of job descriptions for the personnel people to use. This would simplify the selection and assignment policies to a great degree. Important steps in the process were: (1) evaluation of supply sources, (2) gathering of data, (3) evaluation of data, (4) interview, and (5) assignment. All were done by the central office staff except the interview which was a combined effort.

He regarded orientation as a three phase process--pre-job, pre-school, and continuous. The pre-job orientation was conducted by the personnel administrator when the individual was contacted and/or interviewed for a job. This was a basic introduction to the community, school, and position. The pre-school orientation was accomplished by the building principal prior to the opening of school. This included a thorough orientation to the school and school policies. The continuous orientation was to be provided by the principal and supervisors during the year to further assist the new employee in the adjustment process.⁵⁶

⁵⁵Van Zwoll, Op. Cit. pp. 105, 106, and 109.

⁵⁶Fawcett, Op. Cit. pp. 25-47.

Gibson felt that the personnel administrator should be the key man in all selection and assignment. He did not make all the decisions but would be the focal point for requisitions by principals, recruitment, interview, and selection.⁵⁷

Ordnance Center and School Regulation 612-1 outlined the procedures for processing, assignment, and orientation of new personnel. Selection was a function of a higher headquarters so the school itself was involved only in final assignment and orientation. Final assignment was made by the secretary based upon the needs of the school. All decisions were subject to review by the command group. Orientation was carried out by the personnel section and by an assigned sponsor.⁵⁸

The issue of in-service training was mentioned by most references that discussed personnel administration. Knezevich felt that a teacher was only partially trained when he graduated from college. He, therefore, must be stimulated to improve because of the great increase in knowledge, teaching materials, and teaching methods. This could be accomplished through libraries, subject area supervisors, demonstrations, faculty meetings, advanced education, and free time.⁵⁹ Gibson agreed with Knezevich but felt that the area of in-service training was the job of several people besides the personnel administrator. These included the principal and the people in charge of curriculum development.⁶⁰

⁵⁷Gibson, Op. Cit. p. 174.

⁵⁸Ordnance Center and School Regulation 612-1 (Aberdeen Proving Ground, Maryland: 1966).

⁵⁹Knezevich, Op. Cit. p. 370.

⁶⁰Gibson, Op. Cit. p. 225.

Ordnance Center and School Regulations placed the responsibility for in-service training on the director of instruction. He was required to present a two week course designed to reacquaint all personnel with the school and specific instructional techniques desired. In addition to this a continuous instructor training school was operated to qualify instructors as intermediate and master teachers.⁶¹

Another area of great importance to teachers was that of evaluation because the results of such evaluation often meant more money or rewards. Gibson defined evaluation as a comparison of outcomes with desired standards. He stated that there was a problem in evaluation because measurement was subjective in nature.⁶² Fawcett felt that the personnel administrator in cooperation with an advisory panel on personnel matters should develop policies for evaluation. These policies should reflect a basic faith in people, should stress both the positive and the negative, and should be accomplished by the principal and the individual evaluated in a face to face relationship.⁶³ Knasevich pointed out that evaluation was undertaken for the purpose of improving service. He felt that it should not be tied directly to pay because of the tensions involved. It should be accomplished by the principal of the school under cooperatively developed policies. Evaluation was based on: (1) classroom observation, (2) self-ratings, (3) work on committees, (4) work with students and parents, (5) self-improvement, and (6) records of achievement.⁶⁴

⁶¹Ordnance Center and School Regulation 350-6 and 350-7 (Aberdeen Proving Ground, Maryland: 1967).

⁶²Gibson, Op. Cit. p. 251.

⁶³Fawcett, Op. Cit. pp. 55-66.

⁶⁴Knasevich, Op. Cit. p. 426.

Ven Zwoil, on the other hand, felt that the personnel administrator had no place in evaluation except to maintain the personnel records. He placed it solely in the hands of the principal and subject area supervisors.⁶⁵

Evaluation in the military was tied closely with promotion. Department of the Army required ratings on all personnel yearly or with a change of immediate supervisor. These ratings were forwarded to master personnel files and kept for promotional and future assignment considerations.⁶⁶

The final issue associated by the writer with personnel administration was that of promotion. Ven Zwoil discussed this in great detail. Again, as he and the other authors have stressed before, there had to be a definite and cooperatively developed promotion policy. It must be fair to all and able to stand up against observation and exposure. He felt that the man must be matched to the job and the best qualified individual was the one to be selected. This could be accomplished by testing examination of records, experience, seniority, etc.⁶⁷ Morphet stressed, also, the best man for the job philosophy. He felt this should be the case whether considering persons inside or outside of the system.⁶⁸

Promotion policies for military personnel were centralized at Department of the Army level. An individual was assigned based upon his grade and was not normally assigned for a period long enough to require major changes in assignment due to promotion.

⁶⁵Van Zwoil, Op. Cit. p. 402.

⁶⁶Ordinance Center and School Regulation 623-100 (Aberdeen Proving Ground, Maryland: 1966).

⁶⁷Van Zwoil, Op. Cit. pp. 263 and 264.

⁶⁸Morphet, Op. Cit. pp. 415, 416.

IV. DECISION-MAKING PROCESSES IN CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

The writer noted that the authors repeatedly stressed the need for active curriculum development. This was necessary because of the rapid increase in the amount of knowledge available, a better understanding of learning situations, and a big improvement in teaching methods. To gain a general but informative insight into this problem as it related to decision-making processes the writer examined: (1) the organization for curriculum development, (2) procedures and processes of change, and (3) the necessity and procedures for evaluation. As with organization and personnel administration, the literature concerning the Ordnance Center and School was restricted in this section because it will be discussed in Chapter V.

The first area observed was that of organization. As with personnel administration it appeared that a definite program had to be developed and the best place to start was with the basic organization of the school. Neagley and Evans felt that each school district had primary responsibility for curriculum development because of individual district differences and the opportunity for community, district, and teacher personnel to work together for acceptable curriculum for their own schools. He recommended that the superintendent provide leadership in this area but delegate staff responsibility to an assistant superintendent for instruction who would coordinate the effort. To assist him at district level he proposed six curriculum directors who were experts in the areas of English, mathematics, science, social studies, languages, and art. These people formed the central office staff which had the job of assisting the building principal and teachers in the task of improving and evaluating the curriculum.⁶⁹

⁶⁹Ross L. Neagley and M. Dean Evans, Handbook for Effective Curriculum Development (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967) pp. 24-75.

Hein recommended that an assistant superintendent for curriculum development be hired by the school district to lead and coordinate this process. He felt the key element in curriculum development should be the district-wide curriculum council. This was composed of teachers who represented each of the individual schools' curriculum groups and supervisors from the central office staff. Membership was based on interest, was for two or three year terms, and was teacher chaired.⁷⁰

Bishop felt that curriculum development was the function of the principal and his teachers. These individuals were closest to the problem, were the ones who would implement the change, and therefore, were most interested in it. He felt that the central office staff and the curriculum council was a rubber stamp effort for the teachers and a means to insure district coordination.⁷¹

Grieder felt that curriculum development was becoming increasingly a part of administration. The administrator did not get involved in the specific problems--this was the teacher's job--but provided leadership, time, money, and encouragement to those directly involved. Grieder, as did Neagley and Evans, outlined the jobs of the various formal groups within the school district. Grieder further advocated the formation of additional groups to work exclusively with the curriculum problem. These included a district curriculum council, building or school curriculum committees, and special committees. The district council was made up of representatives from all schools in the district, from major subject areas, and from the community at large. It had the responsibility of planning and coordinating curriculum

⁷⁰Hein, Op. Cit., Personal Interview.

⁷¹Bishop, Op. Cit., Personal Interview.

development in the district under the guidance of the assistant superintendent for curriculum. The building committees were responsible for coordinating the curriculum development at that level and were led by the building principal. Special committees were appointed to deal with urgent problems that necessitated a special effort. All except the special committee were permanent institutions.⁷²

Campbell⁷³ and Knezevich⁷⁴ both supported Grisdler in the assumption that the administrator had a very great responsibility in providing a proper atmosphere for curriculum development. Both also agreed with the necessity to create groups outside of the formal organization to deal with the problem of curriculum.

Anderson pointed out that the teacher was the most important element in curriculum development as he was closest to the situation. Others were certainly involved but their decisions often hamstrung the teacher to the point that he was ineffective or lost interest. Anderson later discussed several factors outside of the school district itself that affected curriculum development. These included particular interest groups within the community, state laws, federal programs, and individuals or foundations engaged in educational activities or criticisms.⁷⁵

Gross discussed additional influences to be reckoned with in curri-

⁷²Calvin Grisdler and others, Public School Administration (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1961) Chapter 8.

⁷³Campbell, Op. Cit., p. 97.

⁷⁴Knezevich, Op. Cit., Chapter 13.

⁷⁵Vernon E. Anderson, Principles and Procedures of Curriculum Development (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1965) pp. 56-75.

culum development. These included the PTA, taxpayers, city council, businesses, and the politicians.⁷⁶

Schools for the Sixties publication placed emphasis on using the democratic process in the area of curriculum. It pointed out that the more people involved the better accepted the solution would be. There were three types of decisions that had to be made. These were instructional decisions, institutional decisions, and societal decisions. The first was made by the teacher and included planning units of work and developing learning situations. The second decision was made by administrators, supervisors, and qualified teachers and included curricular sequences, subject fields, and subject relationships. The third decision was made by school boards, lawmakers, and the federal government and involved financing, teacher education, land, and minimum requirements. The more of these decisions that could be made locally the better off the schools would be.⁷⁷

Goodman pointed out that the organization for curriculum development was different in the military and civilian schools. He felt that in the civilian school it was relatively stable and slow changing and as such was not well organized. However, in the military it was not stable and often changed drastically in short periods of time. Therefore, definite formal organization had to be established to cope with this problem.⁷⁸

A second area of curriculum development discussed was that of the

⁷⁶Neal Gross, Who Runs Our Schools? (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1958) p. 50.

⁷⁷Schools for the Sixties, A Report of the Project on Instruction (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, 1963) pp. 12-20.

⁷⁸Samuel M. Goodman, Curriculum Implications of Armed Services Educational Programs (Washington: American Council on Education, 1947) pp. 31-34.

process of change. Neagley had the best discussion in regard to this area. He divided the process into three basic steps. They were the identification of values held by the society, the community, and the schools; the identification of experiences of behavior that would result in a desired learner change; and the actual mechanical process by which the curriculum organization implemented the desired values or experiences. He felt that the first two steps should be solved by the district curriculum council and the last one by the central office staff, the principals, and the teachers working together. This included an examination of current offerings for omission, obsolescence, overlapping, and trends; organization of content for proper scope and sequence; and the preparation of a clear and concise curriculum guide to the objectives, content, learning experiences, and instructional resources.⁷⁹

McNeil agreed with Neagley on how the process should work but disagreed that it in fact worked in that fashion. He stated that too often the schools had a habit of judging on personal or internal validity. This meant that the curriculum was changed because it benefited the teacher or because of "good deals" on books or teaching aids and did not necessarily benefit the learner.⁸⁰ Knapp felt that curriculum change was motivated by things external to the system rather than the good intentions of the schools. He referred to federal influence and so-called experts in education that advocated changes in the curriculum. Because of pressures or because "it was the

⁷⁹Neagley, Op. Cit. Chapter 6.

⁸⁰John D. McNeil, Curriculum Administration: Principles and Techniques of Curriculum Development (New York: The MacMillan Company, 1963) p. 91.

thing to do" schools followed suit without a question.⁸¹ Grieder⁸² and Campbell⁸³ stressed the democratic approach to curriculum development. They felt that each member of the school staff had a role to play both on an individual basis and as a member of a team. Curriculum development was so important that all qualified participants had an equal say in the process.

Goodman discussed the emergence of the specialist as a key figure in military school curriculum development. He was a member of the commander's staff and as such was the primary individual involved. If a new course or class was to be offered he and his immediate staff were responsible for writing the new course. Coordination with instructors was made rather infrequently.⁸⁴ Goodman also remarked that the specialist and his staff were responsible for the preparation of a study guide and special texts for the course if needed. This was usually overdone but was entirely satisfactory.⁸⁵ Clark and Sloan, on the other hand, felt that the military system of writing out the plan of instruction, the course outline, and the lesson plans in great detail was excellent and something that the civilian schools should consider.⁸⁶

Several Ordnance Center and School Regulations referred to this subject but will be quoted in Chapter V.

⁸¹Dale L. Knepp, Readings In Curriculum, Glen Hoss and Kimball Wiles ed. (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc. 1965). p. 74.

⁸²Grieder, Op. Cit. p. 261.

⁸³Campbell, Op. Cit. pp. 92-97.

⁸⁴Goodman, Op. Cit. Chapter VII.

⁸⁵Ibid., Chapter VIII.

⁸⁶Harold F. Clark and Harold S. Sloan, Classrooms in the Military (Columbia University, New York: Bureau of Publications, 1964). pp. 91-92.

A third area of curriculum development of concern to the writer was that of evaluation. McNeil stated that the schools simply had no basis for determining how effective their program was unless they developed a system of appraisal. He said that this was not an easy thing to accomplish for two reasons. First of all, people tended to fear evaluation as it threatened the status quo or the favored ideas held by the school personnel. Secondly, appraisal or evaluation was difficult. Just how should one go about checking or measuring the effectiveness of a program? One method that was commonly used was to examine the procedures used in curriculum development activities and instruction. McNeil disagreed with this because proper use of procedures by committees or teachers did not guarantee proper learning responses by the student. "After all the proof was in the pudding." He favored methods to gain objective, measurable results. These took two forms: (1) student tests to see if pupils were indeed progressing according to the standards set up and (2) repeated checks on the personnel involved in curriculum development to insure that atmosphere, time, and actions were such to bring about a continuous evaluation of the school program.⁸⁷

Neagley, on the other hand, felt that the problem of evaluation was not so much at the student end where assessment could be readily made, but at the other end--that is the development of policy, goals, and values by the central office and the curriculum committees. He claimed that very few schools knew enough about their goals and aspirations to evaluate or appraise anything.⁸⁸ Grieder supported this theory and stressed the need for a cold,

⁸⁷McNeil, Op. Cit. pp. 115-118.

⁸⁸Neagley, Op. Cit. pp. 274-276.

hard look at organization and policies for curriculum development, delegation of responsibility, and continuity in the process.⁸⁹

Knapp⁹⁰, Morphat⁹¹, and the School's for the Sixties publication⁹² discussed the need for a large involvement of personnel at the local level. These included the administrators who provided the atmosphere, time and facilities; the central office staff who provided support and guidance; the teachers who provided the experience factor; and the lay people who donated what talents and ideas they had. All felt that the permanent organizations established for curriculum development should handle evaluation also. This permitted a self assessment which is as it should be. Frymier disagreed by stating that an evaluation effort is best accomplished by an outside agency which could be more objective in its appraisal. He pointed out that national assessment may be the answer because schools have continually failed to adequately police their curricula.⁹³

Several Ordinance Center and School Regulations outlined evaluation procedures at the school end are noted in the discussion in Chapter V.

⁸⁹Grieder, Op. Cit. p. 208.

⁹⁰Knapp, Op. Cit. p. 75.

⁹¹Morphat, Op. Cit. pp. 368, 369.

⁹²Schools for the Sixties, Op. Cit. p. 51.

⁹³Jack R. Frymier, "Curriculum Assessment", Educational Leadership, November 1966, pp. 124-128.

CHAPTER III

ORGANIZATION OF THE SCHOOLS

The institutions discussed in this chapter were considered to be representative establishments in their particular areas of endeavor. The United States Army Ordnance Center and School was, of course, an actual training facility and the organizational chart shown was reproduced from the master copy used by the school.

The typical secondary school and district, on the other hand, did not represent any particular institution but contained many of the desirable features found in the secondary schools of today. Therefore, the organizational chart shown and the accompanying discussion were hypothetical in nature.

I. THE UNITED STATES ARMY ORDNANCE CENTER AND SCHOOL

This military service school was located at Aberdeen Proving Ground, Maryland and had as its primary mission to provide for education and training of selected United States and foreign military and civilian personnel in the fields of material, material maintenance, and general Ordnance operations. A second mission included serving as the principal advisor to the Commanding General of the United States Continental Army Command with respect to all matters pertaining to organization, doctrine, training, procedures, and techniques of the Ordnance Branch. Finally, the school was charged with supporting active Army, National Guard, and Army Reserve components as directed by the Continental Army Command Commander.¹

¹Ordnance Center and School Regulation 10-1 (Aberdeen Proving Ground Maryland, August 1967), p. 5.

To accomplish the above mission the school was organized as shown in Figure 1 on page 36. As an aid in understanding the line and staff relationships a system of boxes and circles was developed to show these respective positions--boxes representing the line officers and circles representing the staff officers. The same system was followed in the discussion of the typical secondary school.

The writer examined the overall structural concept prior to breaking the organization down into its component parts. Initial observation revealed what might be termed as a typical military organization. At the top of the chain was the command group. This was headed by the Commanding General and included the Assistant Commanding General and his Executive Officer. Although the group was shown in one box it represented three levels of authority. These levels were, however, closely related.

The second distinguishable level shown on the chart was that of the commander's coordinating staff. They were responsible to the command group for the general operation of the school. On the same level as the coordinating staff but operating in a line position was the director of instruction. This individual was responsible to the commander for the instruction within the school. Below him in the hierarchy were the chiefs of the major training departments who were line officers. Finally, below these chiefs were the instructors.

From the Commanding General to the instructors there were six line positions. This, combined with a relatively short span of control at each level, was characteristic of a tall and centralized organization. All discussion of the school was based on Figure 1.

The command group consisted of three major positions. The Commanding General was responsible for the overall operation of the school to include

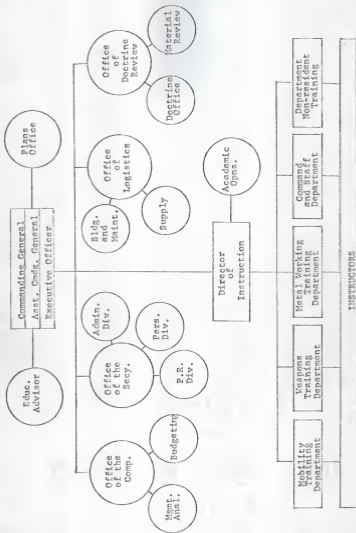


Figure 1

Organizational Chart, United States Army Ordnance Center and School.*

*Ordnance Center and School Regulation 10-1 (Aberdeen Proving Ground, Maryland: Aug. 1967) p. 4.

financial considerations, administration and personnel, maintenance and supply, doctrine review, and the major area of instruction. The Assistant Commanding General was responsible for advising the Commanding General and acting for him in case of absence. The Executive Officer acted as the key man in the command structure and reviewed all matters moving up or down the chain of command and recommended or took appropriate action for the commander. He also acted as the chief of the commander's coordinating staff for development of basic policies, programs, and controls for the school.

Two additional positions considered as part of the command group or as members of the staff were the educational advisor and the plans office. The educational advisor was a civilian educator. He provided the Commanding General and his staff with professional advice concerning educational developments, policies, procedures, instruction, course design, techniques, evaluation, and the civilian educational community. The plans office was charged with the mission of developing long range plans concerning organization, workload, facilities, objectives and resources of the school.²

The main coordinating staff had four major sections. These included the Offices of the Comptroller, Secretary, Logistician, and Doctrine officials. Each had a mission designed to support the commander in the operation of the school.

The Comptroller's Office had the job of advising and assisting the commander on matters that pertained to command programming, financial management, and review and analysis of supervisory operations. To accomplish this the office was divided into two sub-groups shown as the management analysis and budgeting offices.³

²Ibid., p. 10-13.

³Ibid., pp. 15-17.

The Secretary's office had the assigned mission of directing, controlling, and supervising all administrative services of the school. This included routine administration and correspondence, personnel operations, and public relations. This section was also responsible for foreign and civilian students while in residence, security, and visitor control.⁴

The third of the coordinating staff sections was that of logistics. It was responsible for the support and maintenance of all buildings and grounds and for the procurement and utilization of all supplies and services needed by the school to accomplish its mission. This included all devices and training aids requested by the instructional departments.⁵

The fourth and final section of the coordinating staff was the office of doctrine review. This unit served as the focal point for the determination of current and future doctrine to be taught in the Ordnance School. Coordination with agencies within and without the school was authorized. In lay terms this office was charged with the responsibility of curriculum study, change, and implementation.⁶

The director of instruction was located in a line relationship just below the command group. As the name implied this office had the primary responsibility of supervising the instructional program of the school. This included preparation of programs of instruction, in-service education and training of instructors, evaluation of instruction, scheduling, and evaluation of course material. This included both resident and non-resident training. A subordinate staff section dealing with academic operations as-

⁴Ibid., pp. 18-23.

⁵Ibid., pp. 25-31.

⁶Ibid., pp. 38-40.

sisted the director of instruction in this very important job. (See Figure 1).⁷

Below the director of instruction in line positions were the chiefs of the various training departments. Below the chiefs in each section were the instructors. Each section was charged with the responsibility of training students in the particular courses of study delegated to it.⁸

II. THE MODEL SECONDARY SCHOOL

The typical secondary school and district was developed from the recommendations and ideas discovered in a review of the literature. This model activity was drawn up as Figure 2 on page 41 and represented a desirable structure for a district of 4000-4500 pupils. All discussion of the typical secondary school was referred to Figure 2.

Preliminary examination revealed a very similar model to the one in Figure 1 when the various functions were arranged in a logical or comparable order. If the board of education was deleted from the line structure the writer found comparable functions at the superintendent level (command group), the assistant superintendent level (coordinating staff) and at the instructional level. Also, revealed was a chain of command represented by three line positions in the civilian school and six in the military school.

The first section or group examined was the board of education although it was deleted for comparison of the two institutions. The mission of the board was to serve as the community's legal instrument for operating the schools. In addition, the board was to establish policy, goals and programs for the district school system.

⁷Ibid., pp. 41-50.

⁸Ibid., pp. 52.

To aid the board of education in this job it appointed an executive to carry out the policies, goals, and programs for them and to operate the schools on a full time basis. This was the superintendent of schools. His job was to regulate decision-making, obtain personnel, maintain effective community relations, and provide funds and facilities for the district.⁹

To assist the board of education a school-community council was established to provide advice with regard to community feelings on education. It was composed of interested citizens who represented most all sections of the district. To assist the superintendent a teachers' council was formed to advise with regard to activities within the confines of the schools. Representatives were selected from all major departments in the secondary schools and from all grades in the elementary schools.

Below the superintendent in Figure 2 was the superintendent's central office staff. This organization was composed of three assistant superintendents which acted in a similar capacity to the coordinating staff in the Ordnance School. For the example an assistant superintendent for business and facilities, an assistant superintendent for personnel, and an assistant superintendent for instruction were selected. All acted in a staff capacity but had broad coordination powers with the building principals and teachers. This was shown on Figure 2 with broken lines.

The assistant superintendent for business and facilities was responsible for the administration of funds, the school plant, custodial operations, maintenance, food service, and transportation. To assist him he was given three coordinators responsible in the areas of business, buildings and grounds, and transportation. This office acted in about the same capacity as the comptroller, secretary, and logistic sections of the military school.

⁹Griffiths, Op. Cit. pp. 77-146.

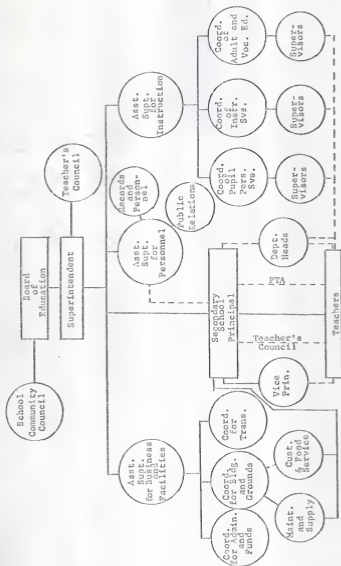


Figure 2

School District and Secondary School Organization

The assistant superintendent for personnel was charged with the responsibility of recruiting, records and maintenance, salaries, selection, retention, promotion, and release of personnel. The last four responsibilities were undertaken in very close coordination with the building principals. The area of public relations also fell to this individual. Again, coordination with building principals was a necessity. This position closely resembled the job done by the secretary's office in the military school.

The assistant superintendent for instruction was the third member of the superintendent's staff. In reality he would likely be the first selected as his responsibility included the entire area of instruction and curriculum. This section compared to the director of instruction in the military school. To assist him he was given three coordinators. The coordinator of pupil personnel services was responsible for supervising the doctors, dentists, nurses, speech therapists, and counselors and their operations in the schools. The coordinator for instructional services had the responsibility for providing specialists to assist the principals and teachers with instruction. Areas included were mathematics, language arts, science, home economics, industrial arts, physical education, and audio-visual aids. The coordinator for adult and vocational education had the responsibility for those particular programs. He was a generalist in the sense that he handled all phases of both operations.

Operating in a line relationship with the superintendent was the secondary school principal. He was responsible to the superintendent for all activities that occurred within his domain. These included personnel problems, instruction, curriculum planning and development, transportation, extra-curricular activities, athletics, and in-service education to name a few. To

assist him he had an assistant principal who handled most of the routine operations and activities outside of instruction. He also had department heads in subject or curricular areas where three or more instructors were present. With relationship to the teachers both the assistant principal and the department head were considered staff personnel only with no line control. The principal maintained a direct line to his teachers which insured a direct involvement with his staff in the primary issues of interest-- curriculum and instruction. Figure 2 pointed out by the use of broken lines the great number of coordination or team efforts necessary to get the job done. These functions were represented by the chiefs of the training departments and their subordinate instructors in the Ordnance School.

Several other aids useful to the principal and teacher were (1) a teacher council representing key elements of the faculty and (2) the traditional Parent-Teacher Association. Both were deemed effective in advising the principal with regard to school business. Out of these basic relationships were established committees and groups for study in the areas of personnel, curriculum, and instruction.

CHAPTER IV

DECISION-MAKING PROCESSES IN PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION

The United States Army Ordnance Center and School and the civilian district and secondary school provided for management of human resources in much the same way as any large institution. Figures 1 and 2 on pages 36 and 41 showed the administrative management of personnel to be a staff function of an assistant to the chief executive which involved the selection, assignment, orientation, in-service training, evaluation, and promotion of people who made up the working parts of the institution. In this chapter the writer developed and discussed this function in the two schools with relationship to organization and decision-making.

I. UNITED STATES ARMY ORDNANCE CENTER AND SCHOOL

Figure 1 on page 36 outlined the organization of the Ordnance School. The personnel office was located within the confines of the office of the Secretary which in turn was the primary administrative section on the commander's staff. Discussion in Chapter III revealed that the Secretary and/or his personnel officer were the key individuals in personnel management and operated in a similar way to the assistant superintendent in the civilian school district as far as personnel matters were concerned.

The writer discovered that the problem of selection was greatly reduced at the Ordnance School. All military personnel were sent to the school by the Office of Personnel Operations at Department of the Army level. Therefore the selection problem was vastly reduced and included only a limited number of civilian employees at the school. Even this was reduced in scope as there was a civilian employment office that fulfilled this function for the government.

Therefore, the major selection task of the school Secretary was to provide notice of civilian vacancies and job descriptions to the civilian personnel office.

The area of assignment and orientation were major concerns of the Secretary. When notified of an impending arrival the Secretary reviewed the individual's advance record file to determine grade and area of specialty. He then recommended a specific assignment. In the case of Captains, Lieutenants or the lower six enlisted grades routine approval was given by the school's executive officer. For Majors and above, and for senior non-commissioned officers specific approval of assignments was made by the Commanding General or his assistant. (See Figure 1). Assignment to a department rather than a specific job within that department was the exception rather than the rule. The department heads had little voice in the assignment procedure. The director of a training department or staff section could appeal an assignment but close contact with the chain of command had to be maintained.¹

At the same time the assignment machinery began to function so did the orientation procedure. When notified of an incoming individual the Secretary prepared a letter of welcome to be signed by the Commanding General. He then requested that the personnel section send within one week an orientation packet to the individual. This included literature about the Ordnance Center and School, the military post, the civilian community, and the housing situation. When completed it contained in excess of twenty items or booklets. Concurrently the Secretary also designated a sponsor for the incoming person. The sponsor was selected from within the department and/or section where the

¹Ordnance Center and School Regulation 612-1 (Aberdeen Proving Ground, Maryland: July 1963). pp. 2.

incoming individual would work. The sponsor was charged with the responsibility of writing to the selectee on a more personal basis and with aiding him in the move to the new post and new job. Efforts included answering questions, preparation of living quarters, and tours of the post and school.

The new arrival was also interviewed and oriented by his immediate supervisor(s) and attended social events designed to welcome new arrivals.²

In-service training was emphasized to a great extent at the Ordnance School. Aside from extended orientation activities the in-service training took three forms. Part one was a two week instructor training course conducted by the school. All instructors and instructor supervisors were required to participate prior to assuming their duties. The course reviewed the theory of instruction, the methods used, and concluded with a series of practical exercises for the prospective teachers.³

The second part of in-service training was the faculty improvement plan which amounted to a continuous development program for those assigned to the school and pertained specifically to all instructor personnel. Instructors were continuously observed and rated in their teaching abilities. As they progressed in competence they moved from assistant, to intermediate, to master instructors. Requirements were purposely stiff to adequately separate the instructors according to abilities.⁴

The third program was one of professional development. This covered

²Ibid., pp. 3,4.

³Ordnance Center and School Regulation 350-6 (Aberdeen Proving Ground, Maryland: September 1967) pp. 1,2.

⁴Ordnance Center and School Regulation 350-7 (Aberdeen Proving Ground, Maryland: September 1967) pp. 1,4.

the areas of additional civilian and military education to improve individual educational levels. It included plans for off duty civilian schooling paid for by the government and released time military training at the Ordnance School or another military school. Favorable consideration for participation was given in most all cases.⁵

Evaluation of personnel was found to be a continuous process at the Ordnance School as it was in the civilian school. Evaluation took several forms. First of all, instructors were evaluated at least weakly as part of the in-service training program. These evaluations were made by members of the director of instruction's staff and were made available to the immediate supervisor for consideration. In addition to this each officer or non-commissioned officer was rated at least yearly by the Army's efficiency reporting system. This evaluation compared him with each and every other person of his grade and position. These reports were then sent to the Department of the Army to be used in promotional and assignment considerations. Counseling sessions normally accompanied the writing of these reports but were not required.⁶

Promotion of an individual was beyond the authority of the Ordnance School for all practical purposes. This was handled by Department of the Army for all personnel except those of lower enlisted rank whose promotions were based upon a recommendation by the section chief and the quota available. Promotion of officers and non-commissioned officers was based on time in service, qualifications, and efficiency ratings.

⁵Ordnance Center and School Regulation 350-30 (Aberdeen Proving Ground, Maryland: May 1966) pp. 1-6.

⁶Ordnance Center and School Regulation 623-100 (Aberdeen Proving Ground, Maryland: November 1966) pp. 1-5.

Organization and decision-making in personnel management followed the organizational chart very closely. This was caused by the myriad of standard operating procedures developed by the school to insure uniform operation. In excess of one hundred regulations covered the entire spectrum of possible contingencies and were contained in eight by ten folders nearly four inches thick. The major reason offered by the school for this was the tremendous turnover of personnel. A normal tour of duty was three years but could vary either way. Outside of a minority of civilian employees no person stayed more than four years. Constant change at all levels forced the development of a fixed and rather inflexible operation. Civilian educators would likely cringe at the thought, however great the necessity for it in the case of a military school.

Another reason for the rigid structure and procedure stemmed from the traditional military approach to organization and decision-making which was the autocratic concept and a centralized institution. This resulted mainly from field and combat operations where firm and unflinching control was a necessity.

II. THE MODEL SECONDARY SCHOOL

Figure 2 on page 41 outlined the organization of the typical or model secondary school and surrounding school district. The formal job of personnel management was held by the assistant superintendent for personnel administration who was a primary staff officer of the chief executive. Discussion in Chapter III revealed his general concept of operation and relationships with superordinate, coordinate, and subordinate personnel. This relationship will again be examined with regard to more specific duties, namely: selection, assignment, orientation, inservice training, evaluation, and promotion.

Based upon a review of the literature the writer considered that selection and assignment were the primary jobs of the personnel administrator. This did not mean that he developed all policy or made all decisions as to who was hired or who was not. He was simply the center figure in the cooperative process that was carried out by a number of people. Policy was established by a joint committee on personnel affairs. Members of this group included the superintendent, the personnel administrator, building principals, and representatives of lay and teacher organizations. Once policy had been established the personnel administrator determined by resignations and contract refusals what the needs of the school would be. This accomplished, he commenced a search for qualified replacements. Prospective employees were required to fill out applications and return them to the personnel administrator. Those surviving the initial screening process would be asked to submit a formal (expanded) application and to be present for an interview. Those acceptable after the interview would be sent to the building principal for final acceptance. If he approved, the applicant would then be offered a contract as soon as possible for the following year.

In the secondary school, assignment was a part of the selection procedure because the whole process of selection had been carried out to fill a particular job. When offered the contract the applicant knew the job he was offered and the responsibilities expected of him if he accepted. Nothing could jeopardize the morale and relationships of a new teacher more than to get stuck with something to which he or she had not agreed.

Orientation should be a three phase operation carried on by three separate groups or individuals. The first orientation should be a pre-job orientation accomplished in conjunction with the selection process. This should be a function of the personnel administrator and involve general information about the school, job, and community. The second phase should

be a pre-school orientation accomplished by the principal and a designated sponsor teacher. It should be carried out in the week(s) prior to the opening of school and should cover in detail the policies, programs, philosophies, and activities of the school. It should also involve assistance in getting settled, tours of the school and community, and opportunities for social involvement with the faculty and administration. A third form of orientation needed was that of a continuing nature. This was designed to help the new employee meet and solve the problems that arose during the school year. The writer felt that this was especially important to the new or beginning teacher. Although orientation was thought of here in a definite pattern or form it did not preclude variations due to individual differences or preferences. A comparison of these procedures with those of the military school showed similar patterns but less personal involvement prior to job assumption.

In-service education in a civilian school was less formal than that in the military school. References disagreed as to who should have primary responsibility. The writer felt that the principal should be the controlling factor here with assistance from the personnel administrator and the subject area supervisors. He needed a definite program established in cooperation with the teachers and the supervisors. Teacher involvement in in-service education went a long way toward a successful program. Methods of in-service training included faculty meetings, workshops, committee work, and demonstrations.

Evaluation was found to be much less formal in the civilian school and was not directly associated with salary or promotion. This task was performed by the principal and based upon his own observations, those of the supervisors, and those of the person being evaluated. Positive as well as negative considerations were discussed. This informality in evaluation stemmed from the tra-

ditional concept of academic freedom. The writer felt that in this area as well as the others definite policies needed to be developed which outlined the procedures and considerations used in the evaluation process.

The final consideration in the personnel administration of the civilian school was that of promotion. Unlike the military school, the civilian institution had a primary responsibility in this regard. Promotion was handled by the assistant superintendent for personnel in keeping with locally and cooperatively developed policies. The "best man for the job" idea was the most basic consideration. Caution should be taken in this area because the teacher held the most important job in the school as it was. Promotion served to move the teacher out of or partially out of the teaching ranks and the good teacher often did not make the best department head, supervisor, or administrator.

The personnel organization and decision-making in the school centered around the personnel administrator. However, he was the focal point for a cooperative effort by many people. As shown in Figure 2 on page 41 there were many broken lines showing a coordination effort. The formal line structure served only as a guide for operation.

The school operated in a democratic manner with cooperative group effort the key at most all levels. This was caused by several facts. First of all, the schools tended to be a direct reflection of society, and secondly, there was a traditional independence and freedom of academic personnel.

CHAPTER V

DECISION-MAKING PROCESSES IN CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

The primary mission of the Ordnance Center and School and the model secondary school was to educate the students within them according to established policies, goals, and programs. What was the organization for curriculum development? What were the procedures for change? How were they gauged to be effective? These questions were considered and answered in the following chapter.

I. THE UNITED STATES ARMY ORDNANCE CENTER AND SCHOOL

Organization for change presented little problem for the Ordnance School. Chapter III pointed out that it had a permanent staff section for curriculum development and control. A brief review of Figure 1 on page 36 showed the office of doctrine review to be a primary staff section with the mission of curriculum study, development, and implementation. The office was divided in two parts. The doctrine review division served as the focal point for determination, development, and dissemination of current or future doctrine to be taught by the school. It also made periodic checks and resulting recommendations for changes or revisions in the current offerings. The material review division was charged with the responsibility of monitoring Army material development activities and developing and integrating the material into the course offerings. Addition or inclusion of new material or techniques required only the approval of the command group. If this was given, the director of instruction and ultimately the training departments implemented the change. There was no provision made for instructor involvement

on a formal basis. Informal consultation likely occurred.¹

The process of curriculum change related closely to the formal organization discussed and was quite autocratic in nature. The Ordnance School seldom originated a complete course change. This was normally done by Department of the Army and accompanied new Army thinking or developments. If it was determined that the Ordnance School was the responsible agency for instruction then the office of doctrine review prepared the course, the office of the comptroller provided the funds, the office of logistics provided the facilities, and the director of training (ultimately a department of training) provided the instruction. Changes in existing courses were made by the school itself subject to approval by the command group and current army regulations. Changes in instructional or learning situations also required the approval of supervisory personnel. The extent of the change determined the level of approval. Participation by instructors was on a subordinate--not equal--basis.² In general, most all curriculum change and development was done at the staff level and was subject to approval by the command group. Participation on a democratic basis was not in the cards.

The third area of curriculum development discussed by the author was that of evaluation. It was provided for in several ways which instituted a very thorough review. First of all, the director of training was charged with the responsibility of evaluating the instructors and course offerings on a periodic basis. These results were passed up and down the chain of command and occasionally resulted in curriculum or instructor changes.³ A second

¹Ordnance Center and School Regulation 10-1 (Aberdeen Proving Ground, Maryland: August 1967) pp. 39,40.

²Ibid., pp. 42-44.

³Ordnance Center and School Regulation 350-17, (Aberdeen Proving Ground, Maryland: August 1967).

method of evaluation was that of periodic department meetings held for the purpose of discussing instructional or course problems. Occasionally, these meetings also resulted in changes.⁴ A third method was that of student end-of-course evaluations. These were both objective and subjective in nature and often provided incentives for change.⁵ The fourth and best method of evaluation was that of course feedback. Students who had graduated from military occupational specialty courses or basic officer courses were given rating sheets to take to their next commanding officer. Three months after the former student was in his new job the commander rated his performance in regard to proper training and sent it back to the Ordnance School. This provided the school with a follow-up on their students and a fine method for determining the adequacy of the curriculum.⁶

II. THE MODEL SECONDARY SCHOOL

The typical or model secondary school unlike the military school operated on the basis of cooperative group effort with many people involved. To properly discuss the curriculum effort in organization, process, and evaluation the entire district had to be examined.

Organization for curriculum development had to follow basically the pre-defined organization of the school system. Figure 2 on page 41 showed this structure, the lines of formal authority, and those of coordination. The superintendent was the one individual responsible for curriculum develop-

⁴Ordnance Center and School Regulation 350-23 (Aberdeen Proving Ground, Maryland: September 1967).

⁵Ordnance Center and School Regulation 350-4 (Aberdeen Proving Ground, Maryland: September 1967).

⁶Ordnance Center and School Regulation 350-19 (Aberdeen Proving Ground, Maryland: September 1967).

ment, but because of his large job he delegated staff responsibility to an assistant superintendent for instruction. The assistant superintendent had as members of his staff directors or supervisors in all major subject areas. These included mathematics, English, science, foreign languages, social studies, and art. Additional supervisors in the areas of speech therapy, vocational education, reading, etc. were provided where possible. The purpose of the central office staff was to assist the principals and their classroom teachers in instructional improvement.

The individual building principal was responsible for curriculum development within his building. It was his job to provide the atmosphere, time, and encouragement for his teachers to create curriculum change. The teacher was closest to the learning situation and as such had the best understanding of what changes were needed. To coordinate curriculum development within the buildings a committee should be established on a permanent basis.

To coordinate activities for the entire district a curriculum council should be formed. This organization, too, should be permanent in nature and composed of representatives from the building committees, the central office staff, lay representatives, and the assistant superintendent for instruction. Here major changes or recommendations that affected the district as a whole could be aired and discussed. Here, too, policy, goals and procedures for curriculum development within the system could be made.

Procedures for change followed the basic organization just discussed. The curriculum council developed the overall policy and goals of instruction and curriculum development. These were passed to all administrators and teachers to indicate proper methods of attacking the problems. After dissemination of these policies and goals the impetus of curriculum change fell to the principals and ultimately the teachers within the secondary school.

As changes at the building level developed they were discussed and approved by the coordinating committee. If the changes effected only an individual teacher or department and required no funds or materials from the district they were put into effect within the school. If the ideas or proposed changes were likely to have a larger effect then they were taken to the district curriculum council for discussion and approval. The central office office staff provided guidance to the teachers and liaison with the assistant superintendent for instruction.

Evaluation procedures were more difficult than in the military school. This was due to the subjective content of public school instruction versus the emphasis of the teaching of skills in most Ordnance Center and School courses. This, in turn, made the measurement of success or failure harder to obtain.

The district council was responsible for development of evaluation policies and goals. Once these were established it was the job of the individual school to conduct its own evaluation procedures. The exception to this would be district wide testing using standardized tests.

The writer felt that evaluation of curriculum programs should be local in nature. Each school district had its own ability to support its schools and its own ideas on how to run them. With this the case they no doubt had the interest to maintain them at a proper level. However, care should be taken by those individuals responsible for curriculum development to insure in-breeding or laxity does not occur. Should this happen and the schools fail to keep in step with the national or state norms then a program of national or state assessment might well be in order.

CHAPTER VI

IMPLICATIONS

This report discussed in detail the organizational structure and certain decision-making processes of the United States Army Ordnance Center and School and a model secondary school. As might have been expected many similarities existed but definite differences were also present.

The organizational structure of the two schools was found to be quite similar. This was clearly indicated by the organizational charts on pages 36 and 41 which showed that the administrative, staff, and instructional functions matched up well. A closer examination, however, revealed many differences in the operations within this structure. The military school presented a taller picture in that there were six levels of line authority between the Commanding General and the instructors. The secondary school on the other hand had only three levels of line authority from top to bottom and a broader span of control which made for a flatter organization. A review of regulations (manuals) at the Ordnance School and the handbook of a typical secondary school district indicated that operations were defined in much greater detail and that the formal structure was more closely followed in the operations of the military school. All of the above items made for a better organized, better defined, but more autocratic and inflexible structure in the military school than in the civilian school. The underlying cause for this rigidity was due to the inevitable turnover of all military personnel in the period of two to four years. For the sake of continuity standard operating procedures were a definite necessity.

The civilian school reflected to a greater extent the democratic society of which it was a part. This was due primarily to its close proximity to its

base of support and control--the local taxpayers. The military school was far removed from this base and was part of a larger system. Therefore, it reflected more of the traditional autocratic military philosophy and less direct influence by the people outside of the military.

Decision-making processes in personnel administration looked similar when viewed in relation to the organizational chart. Personnel administration in both schools was a function of the chief administrator's staff. Here again, the military school and its centralized organization reflected an autocratic approach while the civilian school used a more cooperative effort which involved many people. This was apparent in the Ordnance School with the rigid, well defined regulations governing assignment, orientation, and in-service training. The who, the what, the where, and the when of these functions were all spelled out in fine detail leaving little leeway for individual differences.

The problems of evaluation and promotion pointed out other differences in the two systems. In the Army evaluation and promotion were centralized processes directed by Department of the Army Headquarters. As long as a person remained in the Army he was subject to these processes. To the military man his evaluation was almost a life or death matter in that his promotions and salary were directly tied to it. In addition, promotion was a great status symbol in a sub-society where status was an important element. The emphasis given to these functions made for an ordered atmosphere with fairly strict adherence to policy which would go far to insure an acceptable rating. In the civilian school evaluation and promotion was a local affair and was not looked upon with such importance. Seldom were evaluations tied to promotion or salary. Promotions, although desirable, were not critical because of the general lack of hierarchy and rank consciousness in the

civilian schools. These factors ultimately made for a less formal atmosphere and more individuality.

Decision-making processes in curriculum development were very different in the two schools. Here again was reflected the highly organized and highly centralized approach valued by the military school. The Ordnance School provided for curriculum development and change through a permanent staff section. Little or no instructor influence was prevalent. The civilian school, on the other hand, used the democratic approach to curriculum development. Administrators, supervisors, and teachers were all involved in a rather informal way and on an equal basis to influence change. Evaluation of instruction was more adequate in the military school because it was easier to measure. Since the majority of instruction at the Ordnance School involved the teaching of skills it was not difficult to ascertain whether these skills had been mastered at the end of a course of instruction. In the civilian school appreciation, attitudes, and ideals were important as well as certain skills. Measurement of these were much more difficult if not impossible on a periodic basis.

Both schools had their positive attributes and their negative ones. Each could gain something by incorporating the strong points of the other. The military school could incorporate more of the democratic processes into its school operation to better utilize the talents and ideas of more of its staff. This, in turn, would create a greater personal interest in the operation of the school. The civilian school could well incorporate some of the better organizational aspects of the military school to overcome some of the haphazard practices in personnel administration and curriculum development. These include well defined areas of responsibility and emphasis on improvement of instruction through directed, well planned in-service training and stronger more meaningful evaluations.

In summary it should be recognized that both schools have developed over a long period of time. Most idiosyncrasias found in each school were there for a purpose and most policies had a definite reason for existence. Therefore, care must be taken not to make arbitrary decisions about what is right without a proper investigation of the facts and a consideration for the relative problems of both schools.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

A. BOOKS

- Administration Handbook. Manhattan: Unified School District No. 383, 1967-68.
- Anderson, Vernon E. Introduction to Educational Administration. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1958.
- Campbell, Roald F. Introduction to Educational Administration. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1958.
- Chamberlain, Leo M., and John M. Michelson. The Teacher and School Organization. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963.
- Clark, Harold F. and Harold Sloan. Classrooms in the Military. Columbia University, New York: Bureau of Publications, 1964.
- Fauce, Roland C. Secondary School Administration. New York: Harper and Brothers Publishers, 1955.
- Fawcett, Claude W. School Personnel Administration. New York: The MacMillan Company, 1964.
- Gibson, R. Oliver, and Harold C. Hunt. The School Personnel Administrator. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1965.
- Goodman, Samuel M. Curriculum Implications of Armed Services Educational Programs. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1947.
- Griader, Calvin, and others. Public School Administration. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1961.
- Griffiths, Daniel E. Human Relations in School Administration. New York: Applton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1956.
- _____. Organizing Schools for Effective Education. Denville, Illinois: The Interstate Printers and Publishers, 1962.
- _____. Administrative Theory. New York: Applton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1959.
- Gross, Neal. Who Runs Our Schools? New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1958.
- Hack, Walter G., and others (ed.). Educational Administration: Selected Readings. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1965.
- Janovitz, Morris. The Professional Soldier. The Free Press of Glencoe, Illinois, 1960.
- _____. (ed). The New Military. Russell Sage Foundation, 1964.
- Kimbrough, Ralph B. Political Power and Educational Decision-Making. Chicago: Rand McNelly and Company, 1964.

- Knezavich, Stephen J. Administration of Public Education. New York: Harper and Brothers Publishers, 1962.
- Kyta, George C. The Principal at Work. Boston: Gunn and Company, 1952.
- Lapavsky, Albart. Administration: The Art and Science of Management. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1960.
- Masland, John W., Soldiers and Scholars. New York: Princeton University Press, 1957.
- McNeil, John D. Curriculum Administration: Principles and Techniques of Curriculum Development. New York: The MacMillan Company, 1965.
- Minar, David W. Educational Decision-Making in Suburban Communities. Evanston, Illinois: Cooperative Research Project 2440, Northwestern University, 1966.
- Morphat, Edgar L. and others. Educational Organization and Administration. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1959 and 1967.
- Neagley, Ross L., and N. Dean Evans. Handbook for Effective Curriculum Development. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1967.
- Plath, Karl R. Schools Within Schools: A Study of High School Organization. New York: Bureau of Publications, Columbia University, 1965.
- Randall, Clarence B. The Folklore of Management. Boston: Little, Brown, and Company, 1961.
- Sachs, Benjamin M. Educational Administration: A Behavioral Approach. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1966.
- Schools for the Sixties. A Report of the National Education Association. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1963.
- Van Zwoll, James A. School Personnel Administration. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1964.
- Wilas, Kimball and Glen Hass (ed.). Readings in Curriculum. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1965.
- Wynn, D. Richard. Guides to the Solution of Administration Staffing Problems. Danville, Illinois: The Interstate Printers and Publishers, 1958.
- _____. Organization of Public Schools. Washington, D.C.: The Center for Applied Research in Education, 1964.

B. PERIODICALS

- Brown, Alan F. and John H. House. "The Organizational Component in Education," Review of Educational Research. American Educational Research Association, Vol. 37, October 1967, p. 399.

Fogarty, Bryca M., and Russell T. Gragg. "Centralization of Decision-Making and Selected Characteristics of Superintendents of Schools," Educational Administration Quarterly, Volume 2, Winter, 1966, pp. 62-72.

Frymier, Jack R. "Curriculum Assessment," Educational Leadership, Volume 24, November 1966, pp. 124-128.

Golembiewski, Robert T. "Personality and Organizational Structure: Staff Models and Behavioral Patterns," Academy of Management Journal, September 1966, pp. 217-232.

Hansen, Kenneth H. "Design for Decision," National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, Volume 51, November 1967, p. 64.

McCamy, James L. "Analysis of the Process of Decision-Making," Public Administration Review, Volume 7, No. 1 (1947), p. 41.

Saymour, Howard C., "The Principal as the Instructional Leader," National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, Volume 51, No. 322, November 1967, p. 17.

Trump, J. Lloyd. "Help for the Principal," National Association of Secondary Schools Principals Bulletin, Volume 51, No. 319, May, 1967, p. 32.

Whalan, Harry L. "A Principal's Role in Curriculum Development," National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, Volume 51, No. 322, November 1967, p. 41.

C. GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS

Ordinance Center and School Regulation 10-1. Aberdeen Proving Ground, Maryland: September, 1965.

Ordinance Center and School Regulation 350-4. Aberdeen Proving Ground, Maryland: September, 1967.

Ordinance Center and School Regulation 350-6. Aberdeen Proving Ground, Maryland: September, 1967.

Ordinance Center and School Regulation 350-7. Aberdeen Proving Ground, Maryland: September, 1967.

Ordinance Center and School Regulation 350-17. Aberdeen Proving Ground, Maryland: August, 1967.

Ordinance Center and School Regulation 350-19. Aberdeen Proving Ground, Maryland: September, 1967.

Ordinance Center and School Regulation 350-23. Aberdeen Proving Ground, Maryland: September, 1967.

Ordinance Center and School Regulation 350-30. Aberdeen Proving Ground,
Maryland: May, 1966.

Ordinance Center and School Regulation 600-7. Aberdeen Proving Ground,
Maryland: May, 1967

Ordinance Center and School Regulation 612-1. Aberdeen Proving Ground,
Maryland: July, 1963.

Ordinance Center and School Regulation 632-100. Aberdeen Proving Ground,
Maryland: November, 1966.

A COMPARISON OF THE ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE AND
THE DECISION MAKING PROCESSES IN A UNITED
STATES ARMY SCHOOL AND A TYPICAL
MODERN SECONDARY SCHOOL

by

ROBERT LOUIS WENDT
B. S., Washington State University, 1960

AN ABSTRACT OF A MASTER'S REPORT
submitted in pertiel fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree

MASTER OF SCIENCE
College of Education

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
Manhattan, Kansas

1968

The purpose of this study was to compare the organizational structure of the United States Army Ordnance Center and School with that of a typical modern secondary school, and to examine the decision-making processes in personnel administration and curriculum development as they related to the organizational structure.

The study was descriptive in most all aspects. Material concerning the Ordnance Center and School was obtained from its administrative offices while that dealing with the secondary school was obtained from the Kansas State University Library, professors in the College of Education, and key personnel in the Manhattan School District. In excess of sixty books, periodicals, and Ordnance School Regulations (Manuals) were used as a background.

The organizational structure of the two schools was found to be quite similar with the administrative, staff, and instructional functions having much in common. Within this structure, however, procedures varied to a great degree. The military school presented a tall and narrow organization with six levels of line officials between the top and the bottom. The span of control at each level was restricted to approximately four or five persons. These factors accompanied by well defined regulations made for a well organized but more autocratic and inflexible operation. This was a necessity in the military school because of the possible loss of continuity in operation due to the large turnover of personnel. The civilian school, on the other hand, was characterized by only three levels of line officials from top to bottom and a broader span of control. Emphasis was placed upon the democratic process, and less well defined patterns of operation. This resulted from a more stable situation and the close proximity of the civilian school to the democratic society that it reflected.

Decision-making processes in personnel administration within both schools

looked similar when viewed from the organizational chart. However, the processes differed in actual practice. The military school reflected the autocratic, well directed approach to assignment, orientation, and in-service training of its personnel. The who, what, where, and when were all carefully spelled out in the standard operating procedures. Evaluation and promotion were part of an army-wide process and carried with them great importance to the military person. Success, failure and prestige in his chosen field rested on the outcome of these functions. The civilian school had a less well defined system of assignment, orientation, and in-service training which provided for some inefficient operation. Evaluation and promotion were of lesser importance thus creating a freer, more individualized atmosphere. This was due to evaluation not being tied directly to promotion and salary, and a decreased emphasis on status or rank within the organization.

Decision-making processes in curriculum development were very different in the two schools. Here again, the highly centralized approach by the military school provided for a specific and permanent staff section in this area. Little or no cooperation was expected from sources outside this section. Evaluation of instruction was easier in the Ordnance School because of the nature of the courses of instruction. They dealt with specific skills which were relatively easy to measure. The civilian school used the democratic approach to curriculum development with administrators, supervisors, and teachers all playing a vital part to influence change. Evaluation was much more difficult because of appreciation, attitudes, and ideals along with skills had to be measured and this was very difficult if not impossible to do successfully on a continuing basis.

Both schools had their positive and negative attributes just as they had their similarities and differences. Each could likely learn something from the

other. However, before arbitrarily accepting or rejecting any idea for either school adequate consideration should be given to the purpose of the school and the framework within which it must exist.