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AN ANALYSIS OF NINE K-12 SCHOOL DISTRICTS THAT HAVE
ESTABLISHED MEMBERSHIP WITH THE COALITION
OF ESSENTIAL SCHOOLS

by

Shari A. Peters Kitchen

A Dissertation
Submitted to the
Faculty of The Graduate College
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the
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Department of Educational Leadership

Western Michigan University
Kalamazoo, Michigan
June 1999

AN ANALYSIS OF NINE K-12 SCHOOL DISTRICTS THAT HAVE
ESTABLISHED MEMBERSHIP WITH THE COALITION
OF ESSENTIAL SCHOOLS

Shari A. Peters Kitchen, Ed.D.

Western Michigan University, 1999

In the late 1970s, TedSizer, professor of education at Brown University, and a team of researchers traveled the country visiting dozens of secondary schools. The purpose of these visits was to understand the American high school by observing it firsthand. Sizer reported his findings in 1984 in *Horace's Compromise: The Dilemma of the American High School*.

In response to the compromises raised in *Horace's Compromise*, 12 schools volunteered to become the Coalition of Essential Schools. The Coalition rests on a set of nine Common Principles, which include intellectual rigor, simple and universal goals, personalized school, graduation by exhibitions of mastery, student-as-worker, tone of the school, staff, and budget.

This study identified the following issues of the nine K-12 school districts that have established membership with the Coalition: (a) how member school administrators and member school coordinators of the nine K-12 school districts interpret the nine Common Principles, (b) the subsequent structural changes the nine K-12 member schools undergo after becoming members of the Coalition, and (c) the subsequent pedagogical changes that the nine K-12 member schools undergo after becoming members of the Coalition.

Closed-form mailed questionnaires were sent to the 28 participants of this study. The statistical analyses used were the phi coefficient and the chi-square goodness-of-fit test.

The results revealed that both school administrators and school coordinators understood the meanings of the nine Common Principles. The results also revealed that subsequent structural changes have occurred since the nine districts have become members of the Coalition. Structural changes included block scheduling, common planning time for faculty, more opportunities for multiage programs, and abandonment of programs that are no longer useful.

The subsequent pedagogical changes that have occurred since the nine districts have established membership included increased use of alternative assessments, multiple opportunities to demonstrate achievement, use of cooperative learning activities, increased use of thematic studies, and increased opportunities for experiential learning.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Problem

In the late 1970s, with support from the National Association of Independent Schools, the National Association of Secondary School Principals, and several private foundations, TheodoreSizer, professor of education at Brown University, and a team of researchers traveled the country visiting dozens of secondary schools: small, midsize, large, urban, rural, suburban, public private, and parochial (Sizer, 1983a, 1983b, 1984c). The purpose of the visits was to try to understand the American high school by observing it firsthand. Sizer, former headmaster of Phillips Academy and former dean of the Harvard Graduate School of Education, and his colleagues were to use these informed observations as the basis upon which to suggest improvements for high schools (Sizer, 1983a, 1983b, 1984c). Sizer reported his findings in 1984 in *Horace's Compromise: The Dilemma of the American High School* (Sizer, 1984b).

Horace's Compromise was part of a “blizzard of reports and manifestos on education that swirled through America from April of 1983 through the end of 1984” (Sizer, 1984c, p. 222). The reports included *A Nation at Risk* by the National Commission of Education Excellence (1983), *The Paideia Proposal* by Adler (1982), *The Shopping Mall High School* by Powell, Farrar, and Cohen (1985), *The Last Little Citadel* by Hampel (1983), and *A Place Called School*, by Goodlad (1983).

The common theme among the reports and manifestos was concern over the uneven quality of secondary education afforded to young citizens (Sizer, 1992a). Although many of the reports called for remedies that increased regulations from central authorities, Theodore Sizer and colleagues instead puzzled over the obvious compromises of the basic structure of schools (Sizer, 1983c, 1984c).

One obvious compromise of the basic structure of schools is that, while community values and populations vary widely across the country, the basic structure of high school is strikingly common and is markedly similar to its 1890 founding model (Sizer, 1983c, 1984c). Additional compromises include students being grouped by age, the substance of learning being organized by academic departments, and the primary pedagogy of lecturing in one form or another using separate and distinct blocks of time. (Sizer, 1983c, 1984c). Further compromises consist of school running from Labor Day through mid June, student accomplishments measured by credits earned and time spent rather than by demonstrating mastery, and an unreasonable teacher/student ratio of 120–150 students per day (Sizer, 1983c, 1984c).

Sizer (1983c, 1984c) argued that many schools do offer special classes for students with special needs, students who are academically gifted, and those who are persistently troubled. However, the unspecial majority often remains anonymous and relatively unchallenged and docile in their classrooms. Too many students are not intellectually engaged, especially in complex, reasoning skills (Sizer, 1983c, 1984c). Also, the high school curriculum is overloaded and unwisely values mere coverage of subjects more than mastery of intellectual skills (Sizer, 1983c, 1984c).

In response to the compromises raised in *Horace's Compromise*, a number of high school educators agreed to band together and restructure their schools to

reduce the compromises school people and students make (Muncey & McQuillan, 1994;Sizer, 1984c). Together with Sizer, 12 schools in 1985 volunteered to become the Coalition of Essential Schools. The Coalition of Essential Schools rests on a simple set of nine “Common Principles” that are stated in deliberately general terms so that each school evolves a plan appropriate to its own setting (McEnroe, 1994; Sizer, 1984c). The nine Common Principles of the Coalition of Essential Schools are as follows:

1. Focus: The school should focus on helping adolescents learn to use their minds well. Schools should not attempt to be “comprehensive” if such a claim is made at the expense of the school’s central intellectual purpose.
2. Simple goals: The school’s goals should be simple: that each student master a limited number of centrally important skills and areas of knowledge.
3. Universal goals: The school’s goals should be universal, while the means to these goals will vary as the students themselves vary. School practice should be tailor-made to meet the need of every group or class of adolescents.
4. Personalization: Teaching and learning should be personalized to the maximum feasible extent. Efforts should be directed toward a goal that no teacher has direct responsibility for more than eighty students.
5. Student-as-worker: The governing practical metaphor of the school should be student-as-worker, rather than the more familiar teacher-as-deliverer-of-instructional-services.
6. Diploma by exhibition: Students entering secondary school studies are those who are committed to the school’s purposes and who can show competence in language, elementary mathematics, and basic civics. The diploma should be awarded upon a successful final demonstration of mastery for graduation—an “exhibition.”
7. Attitude: The tone of the school should explicitly and self-consciously stress values of unanxious expectation, of trust, and of decency.
8. Staff: The principal and teachers should perceive themselves as generalists first and specialists second. Staff should expect multiple obligations and feel a sense of commitment to the entire school.
9. Budget: Ultimate administrative and budget targets should include, in addition to total student loads per teacher of eighty or fewer pupils, substantial time for collective planning by teachers, competitive salaries for

staff, and an ultimate per pupil cost not to exceed that at traditional schools by more than 10 percent. (Sizer, 1984c, pp. 225–227)

More detailed information on each of the nine Common Principles will be described in Chapter II, Review of Literature.

From the initial group of 12 schools in 1985, the Coalition of Essential Schools has grown into an ambitious, national, school reform project of 256 membership schools who have focused on improving classroom teaching and learning. These member schools are seeking ways to implement new practices based on the Coalition's nine Common Principles (McEnroe, 1994; Sizer, 1984c). Most Essential Schools are secondary schools, although middle schools, primary schools, and K–12 districts have also joined. Of the 256 schools with established membership in the Coalition, only 9 are K–12 school districts. Four of the 9 schools are private K–12 schools, and 5 are public K–12 school districts.

The Coalition of Essential Schools was created to respond to the challenges raised in Sizer's 1984 publication, *Horace's Compromise: The Dilemma of the American High School* (Sizer, 1984c). The Coalition started as a national, high school reform initiative, but now there are middle schools, elementary schools, and nine K–12 school districts who have established membership with the Coalition. Numerous studies have been done on the original 12 charter schools and on high schools across the nation. (Cohen, 1994; McGreal & Dodds, 1994; Metzger & Podl, 1992; Muncey & McQuillan, 1993, 1994; Prestine, 1991; Prestine & Bowen, 1993), but information does not exist explaining the structural and pedagogical changes that the nine K–12 schools districts have had as they have implemented a high school initiative into a comprehensive K–12 reform effort.

Statement of Problem

Therefore, the purpose of this study is threefold. The first purpose is to understand how member school administrators and member school coordinators of the nine K–12 school districts interpret the nine Common Principles of the Coalition of Essential Schools. The second purpose is to identify the subsequent structural changes the nine K–12 schools have undergone since becoming members of the Coalition of Essential Schools, and the third purpose is to identify the subsequent pedagogical changes that the nine K–12 schools have undergone since becoming members of the Coalition of Essential Schools.

This information is crucial in beginning the study of the Coalition’s reform effort for entire K–12 schools or school districts, not just individual schools within a district. Studying these nine member school districts will lay the foundation for other K–12 districts willing to engage in comprehensive school district reform.

Definitions of Terms

Four key terms used by the researcher throughout this study are the nine *Common Principles* of the Coalition of Essential Schools, *member schools*, *structural changes*, and *pedagogical changes*.

1. The nine *Common Principles* are as follows:

1. Focus: The school should focus on helping adolescents learn to use their minds well. Schools should not attempt to be “comprehensive” if such a claim is made at the expense of the school’s central intellectual purpose.
2. Simple Goals: The school’s goals should be simple: that each student masters a limited number of centrally important skills and areas of knowledge.
3. Universal goals: The school’s goals should be universal, while the means to these goals will vary as the students themselves vary. School practice should be tailor-made to meet the need of every group or class of adolescents.

4. Personalization: Teaching and learning should be personalized to the maximum feasible extent. Efforts should be directed toward a goal that no teacher has direct responsibility for more than eighty students.

5. Student-as-worker: The governing practical metaphor of the school should be student-as-worker, rather than the more familiar teacher-as-deliverer-of-instructional-services.

6. Diploma by exhibition: Students entering secondary school studies are those who are committed to the school's purposes and who can show competence in language, elementary mathematics, and basic civics. The diploma should be awarded upon a successful final demonstration of mastery for graduation—an "exhibition."

7. Attitude: The tone of the school should explicitly and self-consciously stress values of unanxious expectation, of trust, and of decency.

8. Staff: The principal and teachers should perceive themselves as generalists first and specialists second. Staff should expect multiple obligations and feel a sense of commitment to the entire school.

9. Budget: Ultimate administrative and budget targets should include, in addition to total student loads per teacher of eighty or fewer pupils, substantial time for collective planning by teachers, competitive salaries for staff, and an ultimate per pupil cost not to exceed that at traditional schools by more than 10 percent. (Sizer, 1984c, pp. 225–227)

2. For the purpose of this study, the researcher has determined that *member schools* are the nine K–12 school districts that have established membership with the Coalition of Essential Schools.

3. For the purpose of this study, the researcher has determined that a *structural change* occurs if at least 90% of the member schools have undergone the structural change since becoming a member school. School structural changes include block scheduling, common planning time for faculty, longer instructional day for students, longer instructional year for students, abandonment of school programs that are no longer relevant, remodeling existing classrooms for more flexibility of programs, implementation of summer school programs, opportunities for multiage

groupings, and implementation of advance placement courses or dual enrollment opportunities.

4. For the purpose of this study, the researcher has determined that a *pedagogical change* occurs if at least 90% of the member schools have undergone the pedagogical change since becoming a member of the Coalitions of Essential Schools. Pedagogical changes include exhibitions of mastery for graduation, increased use of alternative assessments, multiple opportunities to demonstrate achievement, cooperative learning activities, implementation of thematic studies, increased implementation of learning centers or learning labs, portfolio defense, Socratic seminars, and increased opportunities for experiential learning.

Organization of Dissertation

This dissertation is organized into five chapters. The first chapter includes the statement of the problem, an introduction to the study, and definitions of terms. The introduction provides the background information necessary to understand the extent of the research. The second chapter is the review of literature. The literature review is divided into four sections. Chapter III discusses the methodology used in the study. The topics include the hypotheses, statistical analysis methods, research methodology, reliability of the survey instrument, validity of the survey instrument, population used for the study, Human Subjects Institutional Review Board, the data collection methods, and limitations of the study. Chapter IV includes the results and discussion of the research. In this chapter, the results of the statistical analysis will be examined and a discussion of the results will follow. The fifth and final chapter consists of the conclusion and recommendations determined from the research. This chapter summarizes the findings and recommends further research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The review of literature is presented in four sections. Section One provides an explanation of each of the nine Common Principles of the Coalition of Essential Schools' reform model. Section Two discusses the procedures that a school must accomplish to establish membership with the Coalition of Essential Schools. Section Three discusses the structural changes that a member school may initiate after becoming a member of the Coalition of Essential Schools. Finally, Section Four discusses pedagogical changes that a member school may initiate after establishing membership with the Coalition of Essential Schools.

The Nine Common Principles

"No two good schools are ever quite alike. No good school is exactly the same from one year to the next" (Sizer, 1989, p. 1). A good school is the special creation of its own faculty—its teachers, counselors, and administrators. These are its "permanent" folk (Sizer, 1989). A school has character if its key faculty feels collective responsibility for it, takes its standards and style seriously, and protects its reputation (Sizer, 1989).

Such a commitment arises only when a faculty feels a sense of authority and control over its own school. Thus, just as a good school properly reflects its community, a good school also shows the convictions of its central staff; convictions

that carry the authority of people who know that the school's reputation rests squarely on their judgment and strength (Sizer, 1989).

It is for this reason that the Coalition of Essential Schools has advanced its work as a set of commonly held principles, rather than as a "model" for schools to emulate. The Coalition is, in effect, a process, an unfolding among a widely diverse group of schools of structures, routines, and commitments appropriate to each, which are consistent with our shared principles (Sizer, 1989, p. 2).

The Coalition of Essential Schools rests on a simple set of Common Principles. Most are stated in deliberately general terms so that each school evolves a plan appropriate to its own setting (McEnroe, 1994; Sizer, 1984c). Sizer (1989) states, "Most are very familiar, hoary old chestnuts of pedagogical commitment" (p. 2). But what do these principles mean? Each principle will be examined for its significance.

Principle 1: Intellectual Focus—An Essential School should focus on helping adolescents learn to use their minds well. School should not attempt to be "comprehensive" if such a claim is made at the expense of the school central intellectual purpose. (Sizer, 1984c, p. 225)

In other words, American high schools should not attempt to be "comprehensive," a shopping-mall high school, where there is something for everybody, with different subjects at different standards. American high schools are set up in such a way that the subject is there if you want it, but you don't have to take it. This has created a mythology of American comprehensive education (Goodlad, 1983; Hampel, 1983; Powell, Farrer, & Cohen, 1985; Sizer, 1983). The hard fact is that comprehensive education is an illusion. The average classroom and its teacher is an island unto itself, rarely intruded upon by the school administrator. The teacher teaches for coverage rather than understanding, and not everything in the curriculum is offered in the classroom (Goodlad, 1983; Hampel, 1983; Powell, Farrer, & Cohen, 1985; Sizer, 1983a, 1983b). Also, the culture of an individual school influences

choices among the curriculum options that are available (Sizer, 1983, 1984). The “shopping mall” high school indeed has a limited number of stores, and the pressure to choose some over others is often very strong (Goodlad, 1983; Hampel, 1983; Powell, Farrer, & Cohen, 1985; Sizer, 1983a, 1983b).

The “shopping mall” high school is the system’s response to the truism that students differ. The reality is, though, that most students remain names or numbers but not people. The mall gives the appearance of respecting differences, but in fact is set up in such a way that a majority of the students remain essentially anonymous, and the teachers can never creatively and effectively address the promise of their particularity (Goodlad, 1983; Hampel, 1983; Powell, Farrer, & Cohen, 1985; Sizer, 1984c). There are too many of them facing each teacher for that instructor to know more than a handful well enough to teach them (Goodlad, 1983; Hampel, 1983; Powell, Farrer, & Cohen, 1985; Sizer, 1984c).

Critics usually brand the narrowing of a school’s program as a step toward rigidity, one providing less well for student differences than do the mall’s many courses. In fact, the opposite can be the case (Cushman, 1994b; Sizer, 1984c). Making intellectual habits the central foci of the school, simplifying the program, teaching each subject in more depth, and expecting all students to stay with a generally defined subject for a substantial time, can, if combined with the other eight Common Principles of the Coalition, create a program where teachers implement higher order thinking skills throughout the curriculum, instruction, and assessment (Cushman, 1994b; Sizer, 1983c, 1984c, 1992a).

Further, the process of creating a simpler program—the politics of subtracting or abandoning programs that are no long relevant or meaningful—can restore a necessary set of priorities for the resources of school, focusing on that which is the

most important function of school, the development of intellectual habits, even as legitimate student interests and diversity are respected (Cushman, 1994b;Sizer, 1984c).

The Illinois Alliance of Essential Schools (McGreal & Dodds, 1994) defined intellectual focus as schools focusing on higher level thinking skills so that students will be able to think analytically, skeptically, creatively, and critically to generate effective and appropriate responses. An intellectual focus is one in which students are constantly engaged in exercising their minds. Great emphasis is placed on the acquisition and application of higher order thinking skills (McGreal & Dodds, 1994). Schools should provide activities that enable students to “stretch” their minds in a disciplined and creative mode and master essential skills and areas of knowledge (Cushman, 1994b; McGreal & Dodds, 1994;Sizer, 1984c). Schools should produce students who can generate questions, search for answers, synthesize, and defend the results of their inquiry, and should center a student’s intellectual experience on the idea of being able to learn how to learn (Cushman, 1994b; McGreal & Dodds, 1994;Sizer, 1984c).

Principle 2: Simple goals—The school’s goals should be simple: that each student master a limited number of essential skills and areas of knowledge. While these skills and areas will, to varying degrees, reflect the traditional academic disciplines, the program’s design should be shaped by the intellectual and imaginative powers and competencies that students need, rather than necessarily by “subjects” as conventionally defined. The aphorism “less is more” should dominate. Curricular decisions should be guided by the aid of thorough student mastery and achievement rather than by an effort merely to cover content. (Sizer, 1984c, p. 225)

The second principle, “less is more,” is the toughest of the Coalition’s nine Common Principles to explain and to live by, because this principle is among the most closely reasoned and intellectually rigorous of the nine—and by far the most difficult and demanding to put into practice. Principle 2 asks that the complexity and

confusion of the existing curriculum be eased in order to provide a setting where students can learn a few things well and learn how to learn. All students would be enrolled at all times in all areas, but the obvious need for variety and student choice would be accommodated within each area. Principle 2 necessitates schools to limit and simplify their goals and create clearly defined curriculum expectations, so every student can master a limited number of essential skills and areas of knowledge rather than race to cover broader content in conventionally defined subjects (Cushman, 1994b;Sizer, 1984c, 1992a). It asks schools to redesign their academic offerings so they will center more around the intellectual and imaginative powers and competencies students need (Cushman, 1994b;Sizer, 1984c, 1992a).

Sizer (1984c) and Cushman (1994b) suggest that serious use of the mind takes time. If you have really high intellectual standards for kids, the curriculum overloaded with stuff has to give way. For example, to write well requires painstaking revision, just as reading deeply requires the time to go over text closely again and again.

Research results show overwhelmingly that knowledge acquired in conventional classrooms is short-lived and heartbreakingly fragile. Students may answer correctly on a short-answer quiz but not recall the same information in another, more authentic context. They often can repeat facts they have “learned” but cannot interpret or explain them (Cushman, 1994b;Sizer, 1992a). In traditional classrooms, students learn the “right answers” by rote, but they can’t connect them with real phenomena in the world around them. So in just memorizing the textbook causes of the Civil War, they can’t see past the next day’s text to make comparison with modern day Bosnia (Cushman, 1994b;Sizer, 1992a).

The crunch comes for many schools when they try to figure out how the philosophy of “less is more” can accommodate the many elective courses, from foreign languages to the arts, that have traditionally defined the good comprehensive high school. In *Horace’s School*,Sizer (1992a) proposed a curriculum organized into three areas:

1. Math and science (including technology, health, and physical education);
2. The arts (including literature in both our own and foreign languages), and with special responsibility for the school-wide obligation to coach students in “expression”;
3. History and philosophy, comprising history (and the allied social science disciplines that place it in a geographic, political, cultural, and economic context) and the exploration of principles as they relate not only to historical governance but to decision making both in school and in personal matters. (pp. 145–146)

The intersection of all three areas, Sizer (1992a) suggested, constitutes a fourth area of inquiry and expression for which all faculty take responsibility—teaching them not in a vacuum, but embedded in subjects of substantive importance. “The arts, for example, are not only important because of what they represent,” argued David Perkins of Project Zero. “They are important because of the ways in which they engage and develop human intellectual ability to judge, to assess, to experience a range of meanings that exceed what we are able to say in words” (Perkins, 1988, cited in Cushman, 1996a, p. 60).

The Illinois Alliance suggests that “less is more” means that each student should strive to master fundamental skills in specified areas of knowledge, classes should be redesigned with goals to a limited number of skills that students will be expected to master, and curriculum decisions should be guided by mastery and achievement rather than just covering content (McGreal & Dodds, 1994).

“Less is more” means that students cannot be expected to learn everything related to a specific subject; consequently, essential knowledge must be separated from nonessential knowledge (McGreal & Dodds, 1994). “Less is more” also suggests a narrow curriculum that offers little variability in academic courses to protect the school’s central intellectual purpose. McGreal and Dodds (1994) state that if we really believe children are in school to learn to think, then the “less is more” is an absolute necessity.

To nurture good habits of mind, schools must accept their responsibility to teach facts in context then to provide repeated and meaningful ways for students to practice using them. As soon as you define standards in terms of intellectual rigor rather than in precocity in rattling off facts, your coverage shrinks. Let teachers decide together how that plays out with each group of students. Let serious knowledge be used well. (Sizer, 1996a, p. 88)

Principle 3: Universal goals—The school’s goals should apply to all students, while the means to these goals will vary as those students themselves vary. School practice should be tailor-made to meet the needs of every group or class of adolescents. (Sizer, 1984c, p. 225)

Principle 3 folds neatly into both Principles 1 and 2. The complexity and confusion of the existing curriculum must be eased in order to provide a setting where all students can learn a few things well and learn how to learn. All students would be enrolled at all times in all areas, because the school’s goals must apply to all students (Alder, 1982, 1983; Sizer, 1984c).

Adler (1982) argues that to achieve the desired quality of democratic education, a one-track system of public schooling for all students for 12 years must aim directly at three main objectives and make every effort to achieve them. The first objective relates to that aspect of adult life which we call personal growth or self-improvement—mental, moral, and spiritual. Every child should be able to look forward not only to growing up but also to continued growth in all human dimensions throughout life. All should aspire to make as much of their powers as

they can. Basic schooling should prepare them to take advantage of every opportunity of personal development that our society offers (Adler, 1982, 1983).

In other words, every person deserves to “get it”—to learn well—as a simple right. People who are not prepared to use their minds and hearts in meaningful ways miss out on a rich life. A worthy, generous society must provide for the “getting of it.” (Sizer, 1996a, p. 36)

The second objective has to do with the individual’s role as an enfranchised citizen of this nation. Citizens are the principal and permanent rulers of our society. Those elected to public office for a term of years are transient rulers. They are in the service of the citizenry and responsible to the electorate (Adler, 1982, 1983).

The third reason the school’s goals must apply to all children is that all children need to earn a living in an intelligent and responsible fashion and function as intelligent and responsible adults within our society (Adler, 1982, 1983). Universal goals should apply to all students in a heterogeneous setting, recognizing diversity in ability levels and learning styles. To achieve these three goals, education must apply to all students and it must be general and liberal (Adler, 1982; McGreal & Dodds, 1994; Sizer, 1984c).

Principle 4: Personalization—Teaching and learning should be personalized to the maximum feasible extent. Efforts should be directed toward a goal that no teacher have direct responsibility for more than eighty students. To capitalize on this personalization, decisions about the details of the source of study, the use of students’ and teachers’ time, and the choice of teaching materials and specific pedagogues must be unreservedly placed in the hands of the principal and teachers. (Sizer, 1984c, p. 226)

Even though the practical implications of this principle are radical, because most teachers today work with almost twice as many students, a variety of steps can be taken to reduce the student-teacher ratio, such as increasing the proportion of adults in a school who are actively teaching, believing that learning is a very personal experience, and expecting cross-subject instruction (Sizer, 1984c, 1992a). Teachers

can know well only a finite number of individual students, surely not more than 80 and, in many situations, probably fewer. Since adolescents are complicated and changeable and knowing them well is not something one can easily attain or hold on to, student-teacher ratio in schools must be lowered (Sizer, 1984c, 1992a). More than the teacher knowing each child well, there must also be time for those teachers to discuss the child. Such sharing of knowledge about students requires trusting among teachers and administrators (Sizer, 1996a).

McGreal and Dodds (1994) state that teachers should be able to have more contact time with each student by having fewer students. In doing so, students and teachers will strive to develop a personal relationship and spirit of cooperation. Personalization means that each student is viewed as a worthwhile individual who has something to contribute to the learning experience (McGreal & Dodds, 1994).

Principle 5: Student as worker/teacher as coach—The governing practical metaphor of the school should be student-as-worker, rather than the more familiar metaphor of teacher-as-deliverer-of-instructional-services. Accordingly, a prominent pedagogy will be coaching, to provoke students to learn how to learn and thus to teach themselves. (Sizer, 1984c, p. 226)

What do we mean by worker? How would we distinguish between meaningful work and busywork? Does this statement imply that there is no room for lectures? How does content become transformed into attainable student activity? Doesn't student-as-worker imply that large amounts of content will have to be sacrificed? (Wiggins, 1988, 1989).

Wiggins (1988, 1989) suggests that the definition of the word *work* is "effort or activity directed toward the production or accomplishment of something" (p. 3). When one is working, one is doing, making, or performing with a purpose in mind. Action is directed toward a larger, tangible goal, known, at least in outline, from the start. The idea of student-as-worker implies that knowledge is constructed, not

handed over in ready-made fashion, but produced by the learner out of materials provided by the teacher and text. To say that students ought to be engaged in more higher-order thinking tasks is to say that much more of the work ought to be left to the students. If the text or teacher has already constructed the knowledge, then the student's role becomes one of being merely the spectator to someone else's performance (Sizer, 1984c, 1992a; Wiggins, 1988, 1989). Analysis, synthesis, and evaluation are the skills of constructing and critically verifying knowledge claims. Being given someone else's supposedly authoritative knowledge requires that the student merely nod and give passive assent (Sizer, 1984c, 1992a; Wiggins, 1988, 1989).

Gilbert Ryle (1949) offered two notions that sharpened insight about the essential metaphor of student-as-worker. He suggested that education was a "deliberate equipping" of the student by the teacher (Ryle, 1949; Wiggins, 1988). The verb "equip" seems particularly apt in light of our aim to make the student the worker. To be equipped is to possess the right tools and the know-how concerning their use (Ryle, 1949; Wiggins, 1988). A job, by definition, requires students to display knowledge-in-use; a job well done is "an exhibition of mastery" a more positive challenge than a test because it provides students with an opportunity to show off rather than being a trial by question (Adler, 1982; Sizer, 1984c; Wiggins, 1988).

Tools serve the process of building and fixing, not the process of merely viewing someone else's constructed knowledge. To be equipped is to learn how to pose, recognize, and solve intellectual problems, prepared as much for the unexpected as the expected. Drill and rote learning will be necessary but not sufficient (Wiggins, 1988).

To be adequately equipped is to internalize the habits, attitudes, and skills that make possible the gathering and testing of facts and theories for oneself. To know how and what to gather and build, students need to be equipped with a clear direction and purpose. But being equipped with skills is insufficient. To be empowered as a learner is to receive insight into problems and questions that guide a teacher's choice of materials, lessons, and tests (Sizer, 1984c; Wiggins, 1988).

McGreal and Dodds (1994) posit that students become more responsible for their own learning through Principle 5. Teachers act as guides, resource persons, and coaches, thus shifting the responsibility of learning to the student. Students are active participants and must acquire skills in observing, questioning, hypothesizing, researching, supporting a position, and testing the validity of a solution (McGreal & Dodds, 1994).

Principle 6: Diploma by exhibition—Students entering secondary school studies are those who are committed to the school's purposes and who can show competence in language, elementary mathematics, and basic civics. The diploma should be awarded upon a successful final demonstration of mastery for graduation—an “exhibition.” This exhibition by the student of his or her grasp of the central skills and knowledge of the school's program should be jointly administered by the faculty and by higher authorities. (Sizer, 1984c, p. 226)

What we want high school students to learn is most revealed by looking at what we expect from them when their time is up. A true test asks students to show what they know and can do, not to spout unrelated facts they have memorized the night before. Once schools start measuring performance, change will follow in what we teach, how we teach, and our assumptions about why kids are in school at all (Cushman, 1990a; Sizer, 1984c).

Sizer (Cushman, 1990a) explains:

In its original form the exhibition is the public expression by a student of real command over what he or she has learned. Exhibitions began in the

eighteenth century as the exit demonstration in New England academies and in colleges. The student was expected to perform, recite, dispute, and answer challenges in public session. (p. 1)

If such a performance is well designed,Sizer points outs, it elicits proof both of the student's understanding and of some imaginative capability. The exhibition serves at once as evaluative agent and expressive tool. Teachers should expect students to show and explain how they use content. Exhibitions are more than just mere memory. It is the first step toward coming up with some ideas and thought of their own (Sizer, 1984c, 1992a).

The concept of performance-based evaluation is nothing new; we see it every time someone presents a business proposal, performs in a recital, or plays a ball game. But the exhibition is at least as much a teaching tool as an assessment (Cushman, 1990a; McDonald, 1991a; Sizer, 1984c, 1992a; Wiggins, 1988). At the classroom level, a performance is often as simple as a final essay that requires skills in inquiry and synthesis to answer what the Coalition of Essential Schools calls "essential questions." It might display student mastery in the form of a project, perhaps undertaken by a group. In some classes, students prepare portfolios of their best work to submit for evaluation, or they might present their work orally and answer questions on it before the class. Whatever its form, the performance must engage the student in real intellectual work, not just memorization or recall (Adler, 1982, 1983; Cushman, 1990a; McDonald, 1991a; Sizer, 1984c, 1992a; Wiggins, 1988).

The best performances and exhibitions are not merely projects aimed at motivating students; they evoke fundamental questions within a discipline. Learning occurs when we combine the discipline of the activity and the freedom to choose how to achieve the goals provided by the activities. Intellectual activity is thus no different

from physical or artistic ability we develop through performance (Cushman, 1990; Sizer, 1984c).

Principle 7: Attitude—The tone of the school should explicitly and self-consciously stress values of unanxious expectation, of trust, and of decency. Incentives appropriate to the school's particular students and teachers should be emphasized, and parents should be treated as essential collaborators. (Sizer, 1984c, p. 226)

Walk into a school and you can tell almost at once if it is a decent place to be. The signals are everywhere: in the way teachers and students speak to each other, in the way work is carried out at every level, in the way rules are made and bent and broken, and even by the slumps or smiles of the office or custodial staff. What is valued in a school comes across in a hundred subtle ways, rarely articulated (Cushman, 1990b; Sizer, 1984c).

Probably the most difficult to define of the nine principles is the seventh principle, which calls for decency, trust, and unanxious expectation as integral aspects of a good school (Cushman, 1990b; Sizer, 1984c). When a school's culture reflects respect for students and their potential, there is a tone of decency. In good schools, teachers do not blame students for their deficiencies, but instead reflect on their role in bringing them along. Good schools expect teachers to treat students as people worthy of respect and model this by respecting their own colleagues. There is an atmosphere of confidence that the students will measure up against district and state standards (Cushman, 1991a; Sizer, 1984c). In good schools, teachers are supportive and expectations are high. Ethical behavior is stressed. Students are intrinsically motivated and parental involvement is a high priority (Cushman, 1991a; McGreal & Dodds, 1994; Sizer, 1984c, 1992a, 1996a).

How do trust and respect affect what goes on at the heart of the school—the relationship between teacher and students in the classroom? The intellectual tasks set

for students, the ways students work with each other, and the demonstration and assessment of their skills—all reflect fundamental assumptions about what a school considers decent and valuable behavior (Cushman, 1991a; Wasley, 1990b).

A good place to start is by looking at the way a teacher exercises intellectual authority in how he or she organizes a course. Do classes revolve around information passively acquired through lectures and textbooks? Is getting the right answer always the most important thing (Adler, 1992, 1993; Cushman, 1991a;Sizer, 1984c)? Unless students are asked to share in responsibility for their own learning, they will rely only on hierarchical and authoritarian values. Essential Schools believe that the best teachers are learners themselves, organizing the classes around questions whose answers remain open to continual investigation and debate. One of the curriculum's main goals then is that students learn respect for the opinions of other and ways to evaluate them against other sources as they seek to form opinions of their own (Adler, 1992, 1993; Cushman, 1991a;Sizer, 1984c).

Principle 8: Staff—Teacher as generalist/specialist—The principal and teachers should perceive themselves as generalists first and specialists second. Staff should expect multiple obligations and feel a sense of commitment to the entire school. (Sizer, 1984c, p. 227)

In a Coalition School, teachers should be perceived as generalists of all learning, and the emphasis of teaching will be on multidiscipline instruction. They are not only specialists in their subject matter, but teachers must first and foremost be scholars of general education. (Cushman, 1991b; McGreal & Dodds, 1994;Sizer, 1984c, 1992a, 1996a). Because of the multiplicity of duties, coalition teachers need great confidence in the subjects they teach. Often the compromise necessary to push down faculty/student ratios is for teachers to work somewhat beyond their own specialties, with standards maintained by collaborative teams (Sizer, 1984c, 1989).

For example, a humanities team is made up of teachers of English, social studies, fine arts, and foreign languages, with some members teaching several subjects. Quality control is maintained by specialists in each area. To teach somewhat outside one's field takes self-confidence and a willingness to expose one's inadequacies to the critique of other teachers. This is often threatening (Sizer, 1984c, 1989).

The vigorous protestations against teaching out of area that one hears in many schools mask both the narrow preparation provided teachers in colleges and universities and a basic lack of scholarly self-confidence. Schools in the Coalition have found that summer institutes are necessary to help teachers broaden and deepen their subject matter preparation. This priority must be reflected in a staff development plan (Sizer, 1984c, 1989).

Principle 9: Budget—Ultimate administrative and budget targets should include, in addition to total student loads per teacher of eighty or fewer pupils, substantial time for collective planning by teachers, competitive salaries for staff, and an ultimate per pupil cost not to exceed that at traditional schools by more than 10 percent. To accomplish this, administrative plans might include the phased reduction or elimination of some services now provided students in many traditional comprehensive secondary schools. (Sizer, 1984c, p. 227)

Sizer (1984c, 1987) states that restructuring schools should not increase the cost effectiveness of the district by more than 10%. Rather, to remedy the budget problem, schools need to reallocate the moneys available in schools or redesign schooling. This can be accomplished by looking differently at schooling. School faculties can acquire multiple assignments, form instructional teams to distribute the students more evenly, and look seriously at multiage groupings (Sizer, 1984, 1987, 1992, 1996). Schools can also form business partnerships that support and supplement educational programs. School districts can also review every aspect of

the school system and eliminate services that are no longer relevant (Sizer, 1984c, 1987, 1992a, 1996a, 1996b). Also, reducing, simplifying, and focusing on the academic program will lessen the grip of specialization that now often makes schools financially inefficient (Sizer, 1984c, 1987, 1992a, 1996a, 1996b).

In conclusion, the Coalition of Essential Schools promises no panacea, no quick model that can be put into place. It promises only an honest return to the basic questions about schooling, about growing up, about learning, and about teaching. It promises a hard, but ultimately liberating struggle for school folk. It promises to see youngsters, particularly those who seem to have given up, perform in extraordinary ways (Sizer, 1989).

The Coalition of Essential Schools is not a generalized model at all. Rather it is an approach that leads to a unique model for each community of what is best for that setting and its people, and one that is consistent with some powerful, old-fashioned ideas about learning and teaching (Sizer, 1989).

Procedures for Becoming a Coalition Member School

For all Coalition schools, the philosophical foundation of the reform effort is the “triangle of learning”—the relationship between teacher, students, and subject matter. The central aim of the Coalition efforts is to help students to learn to “use their minds well” (Sizer, 1983a, 1984c, 1992a). In addition, the Coalition asserts that an “intellectual focus” should apply to all students (Adler, 1982, 1983; Sizer, 1984c).

Therefore, changes that Essential Schools implement should derive from the “triangle” and the goal of improving all students’ learning. Essential Schools have found that successful change efforts require the following: recognition of the need for change; commitment to the Coalition’s nine Common Principles, a shared vision; and

collaboration among faculty, leadership, community, and district. Those collaborating for change must also be given adequate time and resources to explore and discuss ideas for change (McEnroe, 1994; Sizer, 1984c).

Becoming an Essential School involves more than the single step of applying for membership in the Coalition; it represents a series of stages that begins even before a school asks for an application and continues long past the time a school officially joins. The process is one whereby schools are continually “evolving into” Essential Schools. A school’s interest and engagement will vary at different stages in the change process. As the Essential School ideas take shape in the school, the faculty continually broadens its understanding of the nine Common Principles and their implications for significant and substantive change. Prior to membership, a school typically moves through following three stages. (McEnroe, 1994, p.2)

Exploring schools is the beginning stage, where individuals interested in rethinking their school’s priorities and practices initiate a “conversation” among faculty, parents, and/or school board members about the nine Common Principles as a way to structure change. Faculty members are given the time and resources to attend symposia and visit Essential Schools. The school works to build the cooperative culture necessary to initiate and sustain ongoing change and begins to identify obstacles to change and ways to address them to determine whether they want to proceed with developing a plan for school change (McEnroe, 1994; Sizer, 1984c, 1992a, 1996a).

As the conversation among constituencies in the school continues, schools enter the planning stage. The whole school community agrees on a plan of action for the first year of changes in the classroom. The plan should include both a supporting rationale and an outline of the pedagogical and structural changes to be implemented. For example, structural changes might include longer class-time blocks, smaller student load for teachers, new criteria for grouping students, common teacher-planning time, teaching teams, and performance-based assessments; while changes in

pedagogy and curriculum development might lead to simplifying curriculum, and a focus on students-as-workers and teachers-as-coaches (Sizer, 1984c, 1992a, 1996a). The faculty begins to work toward consensus on the essential skills and areas of knowledge that students must “exhibit” to earn the school’s diploma. The school develops links to colleagues in the regional, state, and national networks (Cushman, 1990a; McEnroe, 1994; Sizer, 1984c, 1992a, 1996a).

The third phase is when a school joins the Coalition and is publicly recognized as an Essential School, an active member in a partnership of like-minded colleagues committed to improving student learning through the nine Common Principles. Evidence of that commitment is visible in the changed practices of the school. Member schools serve as exemplars to schools within and outside the Coalition of how the Common Principles may be interpreted in practice. They may also work collaboratively with nearby exploring or planning schools (Cushman 1993c; Sizer, 1984c, 1992a, 1996a).

In order to establish membership with the Coalition of Essential Schools, the following criteria are considered necessary for acceptance. Representatives of the school community are asked to sign a Letter of Agreement confirming their commitment to these criteria.

Action plan: As part of the application process, schools submit a statement of their long-term goals and an action plan for the development of their Essential School program for at least the next school year. The plan states the school’s new priorities, describes the changes in structures, pedagogy, curriculum, and assessment procedures needed to support those priorities, and represents the faculty’s commitment to actively engage students in the learning process.

Consensus: The Coalition is a school-based reform effort. Thus, it is essential that the faculty and administration of the school demonstrate an understanding of the Common Principles and that at a substantial majority agree to work toward the application of all nine Common Principles. Concurrently, the approval of governing boards and superintendents is crucial to give the program necessary and continuing support.

Community support: It is vital that the community be involved as a full partner in school change. Thus, it is expected throughout the planning and membership process that community leaders, parents, and other stakeholders take an active role in the development and implementation of the Essential School philosophy.

School coordinator: To support the ongoing change process, each school identifies a school-site coordinator to be responsible for exchanging information between the school, the regional or state coordinator, and the Coalition and for organizing professional development activities for the faculty. (McEnroe, 1994, p. 3)

Also, schools that join the Coalition have made a serious effort at change and are expected to make at least a 4-year commitment to the Coalition. This commitment reflects the belief that a member school is continually moving toward the goals of becoming a fully articulated Essential School. Some of the changes that Coalition schools make include developing a vision of the ideal graduate of the particular school; promoting a clear and unmistakable intellectual emphasis; and setting goals and standards that are clear, few in number, and apply to all students (McDonald, 1992b;Sizer, 1983c, 1984c, 1992a).

Coalition schools also look at structural changes, such as a school structure which supports long periods of time for uninterrupted student work, regular and substantial time for collective planning by teachers who have the same students, and the development of teacher and student teams. Coalition schools support a management structure which gives authority to teachers and principals to determine the instructional program and operational details of the school; a structure which allows for the active participation of parents, community members, businesses, and universities as supporters and allies for the school; and the implementation of heterogeneous grouping and a reduction of the student load per teacher (Cushman, 1991d, 1995; McDonald, 1992a;Sizer, 1983c, 1984c, 1992a).

Pedagogical changes include changes such as students actively displaying their knowledge through performances and exhibitions as a means of earning their diplomas, teachers working as generalists and coaches, and implementation of ideas to personalize the school environment for the students and the setting of a tone of decency and “unanxious expectation,” both within the individual classrooms and throughout the school (Cushman, 1990b, 1991a, 1993b, 1994b; McDonald, 1992a, 1992b;Sizer, 1983c, 1984c, 1992a).

Structural Changes

Coalition schools look at changes such as a school structure and schedules which support long periods of time for uninterrupted student work, regular and substantial time for collective planning by teachers who have the same students, and the development of teacher and student teams. Coalition schools also provide a management structure which gives authority to teachers and principals to determine the instructional program and operational details of the school. This structure also allows for the active participation of parents, community members, businesses, and universities as supporters and allies for the school, and the implementation of heterogeneous grouping and a reduction of the student load per teacher (Cushman, 1991c, 1995; McDonald, 1992a, 1992b; McGreal & Dodds, 1994;Sizer, 1983c, 1984c, 1992a).

Such reform can succeed only if it is broad and comprehensive, attacking many problems simultaneously. In that effort, high standards and time are more than simply additional oars in the water. Education must be redesigned so that time becomes a factor supporting education, not a boundary marking its limits (National Education Commission on Time and Learning, 1994). Teachers want to know

students well enough to coach them long and hard in using their minds well; it may mean more than simply beefing up requirements within the conventions of the traditional school day. Instead, “school time” will have to deepen and strengthen the academic curriculum outside as well as inside the classroom and provide ways for everyone to learn from each other all day long (Cushman, 1995; Lusi, 1989).

Just as students need more time to work on projects and exhibitions, teachers also need regular and substantial time for collective planning. In fact, without regularly scheduled time for teachers to improve their own practice, all the long blocks in the world won’t change a thing for students. The National Education Commission on Time and Learning (1994) states that new teaching strategies and continuously reflecting on and improving them takes a serious commitment of time.

Researcher Lynn Canady

urges schools not to lengthen class periods without a minimum of five days of workshops preparing teachers in cooperative learning, Socratic seminars, and other techniques that work well in long blocks. Teachers particularly need to work with other teachers in their field who have been successful in longer classes; time to work across disciplinary boundaries is also valuable. “Long blocks can be fertile ground for teachers working with heterogeneous groups, if they have the time to learn and practice new strategies” (National Education Commission on Time and Learning, 1994). (Cushman, 1995, p. 6)

Scheduling common teacher time into the school day also establishes a culture of professional development. The National Education Commission on Time and Learning (1994) calls on districts to make this a priority in collective bargaining—not by sending students home early, but by extending the contract year and lengthening the day (Cushman, 1995).

Since schooling must apply to all students, Coalition schools work on the structural change of implementing heterogeneous grouping. At the very heart of the traditional multitrack system of public schooling lies an abominable discrimination.

The system aims at different goals for different groups of children. One goal, higher than the others, is harder to accomplish. The other goals are lower—and perhaps easier, but, ironically, they are all too frequently not attained (Adler, 1982, 1983).

Coalition schools must also create a management structure which gives authority to teachers and principals to determine the instructional program and operational details of the school. While the standards and shape of the culminating exhibitions may be largely in the hands of state or school district authorities, and properly so, the design of the means to reach them must rest with those who best know each particular group of students (Adler, 1982, 1983;Sizer, 1984c).

The purpose of decentralized authority is to allow teachers and principals to adapt their schools to the needs, learning styles, and learning rates of their particular students. The particular needs of the students should be the only measure of how a school gets on with its business (Adler, 1982, 1983;Sizer, 1984c).

Pedagogical Changes

Sizer (1989) posits that the Coalition of Essential Schools movement is first and foremost a movement in pedagogy, in the relationship between teacher, student, and the subjects of study that bring them together. For example, the aphorism student-as-worker and teacher-as-coach affects everything, from the way the school adheres to the expectations of both teacher and pupils, to the nature and seriousness of staff development. Few recent efforts in school reform have started with the teacher-student-subject relationship, much less from pedagogy. Indeed the importance of pedagogy is heard in few reformist quarters and rarely from national commissions. The experience of Coalition schools that appear to be making progress,

however, is already clear: Get the relationship of the youngster with the teacher right, and subject matter and all else eventually will fall into place (Sizer, 1984c, 1989).

Essential Schools create pedagogical changes, such as students actively displaying their knowledge through performances and exhibitions as a means of earning their diplomas, teachers working as generalists and as coaches, and implementation of ideas to personalize the school environment for the students. Essential Schools also set a tone of decency and “unanxious expectation,” both within the individual classrooms and throughout the school (Cushman, 1991a, 1991c, 1995; McDonald, 1992a, 1992b; Sizer, 1983c, 1984c, 1992a).

Performances and exhibitions are risky. Tests are easier and more controllable. In exhibitions, the teacher sets the final destination, shows the students the map, and invites them to have a journey. In exhibitions, students must assume responsibility for their own learning. A well-structured exhibition often depends on a student-directed classroom. The students must be willing to find the answers themselves. Discovering meaning takes persistence and patience. When students are given the chance to do difficult work, students are surprised at the pleasure that comes from real intellectual achievement (Cushman, 1990a; Eibell, 1993; Metzger & Podl, 1992; Sizer, 1984c, 1992a).

However, the teacher must prepare students adequately. Exhibitions ask students to use previously learned skills and content in new situations. Therefore, teachers must first teach a knowledge base; then they must also teach the skills needed to apply this knowledge (Metzger & Podl, 1992). Because the focus for the student changes from acquiring information to applying knowledge, the focus for the teacher must also change accordingly. However, the teacher is still required to set and explain the standard of academic excellence (Metzger & Podl, 1992).

The teacher must make sure that the steps are clear. If students are going to work independently, they must be taught how to proceed. At the same time, there should be enough leeway for students to explore other territory by themselves. Getting this combination right is tricky and relies heavily on teachers' knowledge of their students as well as their managerial skills (Metzger & Podl, 1992).

The teacher must maintain the role of coach. Although a coach can explain the rules, teach the skills, and lead the practices, the students must play the game themselves. To this end, the teacher must not interrupt a poor or inaccurate presentation. Doing so would either provide a safety net or take ultimate responsibility away from the student. Providing a safety net might rescue a student on the verge of tears, but it also signals to the other students that ultimately the teacher is in charge (Metzger & Podl, 1992).

Most importantly, exhibitions must be rigorous. Otherwise, they will seem shallow, irrelevant, or cute. Standards for exhibitions must be much higher than those for written tests, because so much more is at stake. A good exhibition requires collaboration, risk-taking, thoughtfulness, in-depth work, commitment, sustained effort, and original work. In a strong exhibition, the student will learn to respect academic excellence (Cushman, 1990a; Eibell, 1993; Metzger & Podl, 1992;Sizer, 1984c, 1992a).

Summary of Literature

In summary, the Coalition of Essential Schools is based on the nine Common Principles and was created to respond to the compromises that teachers and students make in American high schools. These compromises were raised in the reports and manifestos on education that crossed America from April of 1983 through the end of

1984 (Sizer, 1984c). Some obvious compromises of the basic structure of schools are that, while community values and populations vary widely across the country, the basic structure of high school was strikingly common and was markedly similar to its 1890 founding model: students were grouped by age, the substance of learning was organized by academic departments, and the primary pedagogy was lecturing in one form or another using separate blocks of time (Sizer, 1983a, 1983b, 1984c).

Additional compromises consisted of school running from Labor Day through mid June, student accomplishment measured by credits earned and time spent rather than by demonstrating mastery, and an unreasonable teacher/student ratio of 120–150 students per day (Sizer, 1983a, 1983b, 1984c).

Sizer (1983a, 1983b, 1984c) argued that many schools did offer special classes for students with special needs, students who were academically gifted, and those who were persistently troubled. However, the unspecial majority often remains anonymous and relatively unchallenged and docile in their classrooms. Too many students are not intellectually engaged, especially in complex, reasoning skills (Sizer, 1983a, 1983b, 1984c). Also, the high school curriculum has been overloaded and unwisely values mere coverage of subjects more than mastery of intellectual skills (Sizer, 1983a, 1983b, 1984c).

Since 1985, 256 schools have established membership with the Coalition of Essential Schools. In order to establish membership with the Coalition, schools must meet the criteria of an action plan, consensus, community support, and school coordinator (McEnroe, 1994).

Also, schools that join the Coalition of Essential Schools must make a serious commitment to change and are expected to make at least a 4-year commitment to the Coalition. Coalition schools look at structural changes, such as a school structure

which supports long periods of time for uninterrupted student work, regular and substantial time for collective planning by teachers, block scheduling, and the development of teacher and student teams. Other structural changes call for planned abandonment of school programs that are no longer useful, implementing multiage groups, and increasing advance placement or dual enrollment opportunities (McGreal & Dodds, 1994;Sizer, 1984c, 1992a, 1996a).

Pedagogical changes are also expected when a school becomes a member of the Coalition of Essential Schools. Pedagogical changes would include exhibitions of mastery for graduation, increased use of alternative assessments, multiple opportunities to demonstrate achievement, cooperative learning activities, implementation of thematic studies, increased implementation of learning centers or learning labs, portfolio defense, Socratic seminars, and increased opportunities for experiential learning (McGreal & Dodds, 1994;Sizer, 1984c, 1992a, 1996a).

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH DESIGN

The Coalition of Essential Schools was created in response to the challenges raised in Sizer's (1984b) publication, *Horace's Compromise: The Dilemma of the American High School*. The Coalition is a national, high school educational reform initiative, and yet there are middle schools, elementary schools, and nine K–12 school districts that have established membership with the Coalition. Numerous studies have been done on the original 12 charter schools and on high schools across the nation (Cohen, 1994; McGreal & Dodds, 1994; Metzger & Podl, 1992; Muncey & McQuillan, 1993, 1994; Prestine, 1991; Prestine & Bowen, 1993), but information does not exist explaining the effectiveness of the structural and pedagogical changes that the nine K–12 school districts have had as they have tried to implement a high school reform initiative into a comprehensive K–12 reform effort.

Therefore, the purpose of this study is threefold. The first purpose is to understand how the nine K–12 member schools' administrators and member school coordinators interpret the nine Common Principles of the Coalition of Essential Schools. The second purpose is to identify the subsequent structural changes the nine K–12 member schools undergo after becoming members of the Coalition of Essential Schools, and the third purpose is to identify the subsequent pedagogical changes that the nine K–12 member schools undergo after becoming members of the Coalition of Essential Schools.

Hypotheses

Three conceptual hypotheses were considered in this study. The hypotheses are as follows:

1. There is a relationship between school administrators' perceptions and school coordinators' perceptions of the nine Common Principles of the Coalition of Essential Schools.
2. Structural changes occur within the school after the school has established membership with the Coalition of Essential Schools.
3. Pedagogical changes occur within the school after the school has established membership with the Coalition of Essential Schools.

Statistical Analysis

To test the conceptual hypotheses, the statistical analyses for this study included the phi coefficient, a special case of the Pearson r , and the chi-square goodness-of-fit test. The Pearson r is an index of the linear relationship between two variables (Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 1989). The phi coefficient is a special case of the Pearson r in which both variables are nominal dichotomous variables (Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 1989). The chi-square goodness-of-fit tests "whether or not the observed frequencies are a good fit to the expected frequencies" (Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 1989, p. 555). The chi-square goodness-of-fit test is used on a one-sample case with nominal data.

The researcher determined that the alpha level of 0.10 would be used for this particular study. The alpha level of 0.10 was used by the researcher due to the population that was studied.

Analyzing the Agreement of the Nine Common Principles

The researcher tested whether there is a relationship between the nine K–12 member schools’ administrators’ and school coordinators’ definitions of the nine Common Principles. The phi coefficient was used to determine the relationship between the school administrators’ and coordinators’ perceptions of the definitions of the nine Common Principles of the Coalition of Essential Schools. The conceptual hypothesis—there is a relationship between school administrators’ perceptions and school coordinators’ perceptions of the nine Common Principles of the Coalition of Essential Schools—was operationalized by using a closed-form questionnaire (see Appendix A). The participants answered either “yes” or “no” on the questionnaire to indicate whether they agreed or disagreed to the specific definitions of the nine Common Principles of the Coalition of Essential Schools. The definitions were developed using the review of literature and McGreal and Dodds’ (1994) *First Five Years’ Report*. The researcher determined that agreement would occur if the phi coefficient was greater than or equal to .6 on each definition of the nine Common Principles.

Analyzing Structural Changes

The researcher determined that, in order to analyze whether structural changes occurred since the participating school districts became members of the Coalition of Essential Schools, the chi-square goodness-of-fit test would be used. The chi-square goodness-of-fit tests “whether or not the observed frequencies are a good fit to the expected frequencies” (Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 1989, p. 555). The chi-square goodness-of-fit test is used on a one-sample case with nominal data. When

the chi-square goodness-of-fit test was used, the school coordinators and the school administrators were combined into one sample. The chi-square goodness-of-fit test was used to determine whether the school had undergone structural changes. The conceptual hypothesis—structural changes occur within the school after the school has established membership with the Coalition of Essential Schools—was operationalized by using a closed-form questionnaire. The participants, which include all administrators and school coordinators, answered either “yes” or “no” on the questionnaire indicating whether they agreed or disagreed that the school had implemented each specific structural change since becoming a member of the Coalition. The structural changes were developed using the review of literature and McGreal and Dodds’ (1994) *First Five Years’ Report*.

In order to discover if the member schools have implemented Structural Change 1, block scheduling, 26 of the 28 respondents must have agreed that block scheduling has been implemented in their schools.

In order to discover if the member schools have implemented Structural Change 2, common planning time for faculty, 26 of the 28 respondents must have agreed that common planning time for faculty has been implemented in their schools.

In order to discover if the member schools have implemented Structural Change 3, longer school day, 26 of the 28 respondents must have agreed that a longer school day has been implemented in their schools.

In order to discover if the member schools have implemented Structural Change 4, longer school year, 26 of the 28 respondents must have agreed that a longer school year has been implemented in their schools.

In order to discover if the member schools have implemented Structural Change 5, planned abandonment of school programs that are no longer useful, 26 of

the 28 respondents must have agreed that planned abandonment of school programs that are no longer useful has been implemented in their schools.

In order to discover if the member schools have implemented Structural Change 6, remodeling existing rooms for more flexibility, 26 of the 28 respondents must have agreed that remodeling existing rooms has been implemented in their schools.

In order to discover if the member schools have implemented Structural Change 7, implementing summer school programs, 26 of the 28 respondents must have agreed that summer school programs have been implemented in their schools.

In order to discover if the member schools have implemented Structural Change 8, more opportunities for multiage groupings, 26 of the 28 respondents must have agreed that multiage groupings have been implemented in their schools.

In order to discover if the member schools have implemented Structural Change 9, increased advance placement or dual enrollment opportunities, 26 of the 28 respondents must have agreed that increased advance placement or dual enrollment opportunities have been implemented in their schools.

Analyzing Pedagogical Changes

The researcher determined that in order to analyze whether pedagogical changes had occurred since the participating school districts became members of the Coalition of Essential Schools, the chi-square goodness-of-fit test would be used. The chi-square goodness-of-fit tests “whether or not the observed frequencies are a good fit to the expected frequencies” (Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 1989, p. 555). The chi-square goodness-of-fit test is used on a one-sample case with nominal data. When the chi-square goodness-of-fit test was used, the school coordinators and the school

administrators were combined into one sample. The chi square goodness-of-fit test was used to determine whether the school had undergone pedagogical changes. The conceptual hypothesis—pedagogical changes occur within the school after the school has established membership with the Coalition of Essential Schools—was operationalized by using a closed-form questionnaire. The participants answered either “yes” or “no” on the questionnaire indicating whether they agreed or disagreed that the school had implemented each specific pedagogical change since becoming a member of the Coalition. The pedagogical changes were developed using the review of literature and McGreal and Dodds’ (1994) *First Five Years’ Report*.

In order to discover if the member schools have implemented Pedagogical Change 1, exhibitions of mastery for graduation, 26 of the 28 respondents must have agreed that exhibitions of mastery for graduation have been implemented in their schools.

In order to discover if the member schools have implemented Pedagogical Change 2, increased use of alternative assessments, 26 of the 28 respondents must have agreed that increased use of alternative assessments has been implemented in their schools.

In order to discover if the member schools have implemented Pedagogical Change 3, multiple opportunities to demonstrate achievement, 26 of the 28 respondents must have agreed that multiple opportunities to demonstrate achievement have been implemented in their school.

In order to discover if the member schools have implemented Pedagogical Change 4, use of cooperative learning activities, 26 of the 28 respondents must have agreed that use of cooperative learning activities has been implemented in their school.

In order to discover if the member schools have implemented Pedagogical Change 5, increased use of thematic studies, 26 of the 28 respondents must have agreed that increased use of thematic studies has been implemented in their schools.

In order to discover if the member schools have implemented Pedagogical Change 6, increased incidents of learning centers or learning labs, 26 of the 28 respondents must have agreed that increased incidents of learning centers or learning labs have been implemented in their schools.

In order to discover if the member schools have implemented Pedagogical Change 7, portfolio defense, 26 of the 28 respondents must have agreed that portfolio defense has been implemented in their school.

In order to discover if the member schools have implemented Pedagogical Change 8, Socratic seminars, 26 of the 28 respondents must have agreed that Socratic seminars have been implemented in their school.

In order to discover if the member schools have implemented Pedagogical Change 9, increased opportunities for experiential learning, 26 of the 28 respondents must have agreed that increased opportunities for experiential learning have been implemented in their schools.

Research Methodology

In order to test the conceptual hypotheses, the researcher chose survey research design as the research methodology for this particular study. Survey research is a distinctive methodology of systematic data collection. Studies involving surveys account for a substantial proportion of the research done in the field of education. Survey research utilizes a variety of instruments and methods to study relationships and comparisons among groups. The questionnaire is one of the most

common instruments for data collection in survey research (Borg & Gall, 1989). The researcher used the survey research design in a closed-form mailed questionnaire. The closed-form mailed questionnaire was chosen so that quantification and analysis of the results could be carried out efficiently (Borg & Gall, 1989).

Part One of the closed-form mailed questionnaire, Demographic Information, was developed by the researcher to discover some basic information about the nine K–12 member schools and key informants participating in the study. Part Two, The Nine “Common Principles,” was developed by the researcher using the first section from the review of literature and McGreal and Dodds’ (1994) *First Five Years’ Report*. survey. Part Three, Structural Changes, was developed by the researcher using the Structural Changes section from the review of literature and McGreal and Dodds’ (1994) *First Five Years’ Report*. Part Four, Pedagogical Changes, was developed by the researcher using the Pedagogical Changes section from the review of literature and McGreal and Dodds’ (1994) *First Five Years’ Report* progress categories survey.

After the closed-form questionnaire was developed, the researcher decided to have two phases of peer critiquing for accuracy and clarity. The first phase involved teachers from Northport Public School. The researcher asked teacher volunteers from this school to review the questionnaire for accuracy and clarity. The researcher chose teachers from Northport Public School because it is one of the nine K–12 schools that have established membership with the Coalition. The faculty is well read on the Coalition’s nine Common Principles and the structural and pedagogical changes needed in an Essential School. Five faculty members volunteered to review and critique the closed-form questionnaire.

After the teacher volunteers read and critiqued the first draft of the closed-form questionnaire, the researcher made corrections and sent the closed-form questionnaire back to the five teacher volunteers for a second reading. The teacher volunteers read and critiqued the closed-form questionnaire and made more suggestions for the researcher. The researcher made the corrections and sent the third draft back to the five teacher volunteers for a final reading. The final draft of the closed-form questionnaire was then moved to Phase Two for peer critiquing and review.

The researcher sent the final draft of the closed-form questionnaire to a professor from Michigan State University for comments. The researcher chose this particular professor from Michigan State University because the professor is a member of the Department of Education at Michigan State University and is well-informed about the Coalition of Essential Schools. The researcher and the professor met for revisions, and then the second draft was sent to the professor. This draft was approved by the professor and is the one the researcher submitted to the doctoral committee.

After the doctoral committee approved the questionnaire, the researcher presented the proposal and the questionnaire to the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board for approval (see Appendix B). After approval from the Board, the researcher sent the closed-form mailed questionnaire to 14 administrators and 14 school coordinators in the nine K–12 school districts that have established membership with the Coalition of Essential Schools. There are 14 administrators and 14 school coordinators because Central Park East School has an elementary building and a secondary building, and Coral Springs Schools has an elementary building, a middle school building, and a high school. The researcher chose the administrator of

the school and the school coordinator as key informants of each school to answer the closed-form questionnaire.

The researcher chose the administrator and the school coordinator because they are members of a specific group under study who have special knowledge or perceptions not otherwise available to the researcher. Key informants are often nontypical in that they have more knowledge, better communication skills, or perspectives different from other group members (Borg & Gall, 1989).

Reliability of Survey Instrument

Reliability determines the accuracy or precision of the measurement instrument and is important because the more reliable the instrument is, the more accurate the findings will be (Jaeger, 1988; Kerlinger, 1973). The reliability of the survey instrument was measured by the test-retest method and by the norm (sample) group similarity factor (Kerlinger, 1973). The researcher administered the survey on one occasion to five Northport teachers who were well-read in the Coalition of Essential Schools. The survey was then readministered at a later date to the same five teachers. Also, the five Northport faculty members have been members of the Coalition of Essential Schools since 1994, and the participants in the research are school administrators or school coordinators with membership to the Coalition of Essential Schools. The survey was found reliable by definition because the five teachers had the same responses to the survey on both occasions and also have similar knowledge of the Coalition of Essential Schools, as do the study's participants.

Validity of the Survey Instrument

A commonly used definition of validity is the degree to which a test measures what it purports to measure (Borg & Gall, 1989). However, there is more than one kind of test validity. The researcher will explain the types of test validity and how the review of literature was used to establish the items on the instrument, as well as the role the definitions played in the establishment of the content validity (Kerlinger, 1973).

Validity is often discussed using three methods of measurement. The first measurement of validity is content validity, which determines whether the measuring instrument covers the content that should be covered (Borg & Gall, 1989; Kerlinger, 1973). Criterion-related validity is when the instrument makes a prediction about behavior at some point in time (Borg & Gall, 1989; Kerlinger, 1973). Finally, construct validity is the extent to which a test or instrument provides a meaningful measure of an unobservable trait such as intelligence, creativity, anxiety, etc. (Borg & Gall, 1989; Kerlinger, 1973).

The researcher tested the content validity of the questionnaire by reviewing the literature in Chapter II. The researcher reviewed Sizer's writings from 1983 through 1996, Wiggin's 1988 research, McDonald's research from 1991 through 1993, Cushman's writings in *Horace* from 1990 through 1998, Goodlad's research from 1983, Wasley and Powell's research from 1990 through 1994, as well as McGreal and Dodds' (1994) *First Five Years' Report* for the definitions of the nine Common Principles.

To test the content validity of Part Three, Structural Changes, of the research questionnaire, the researcher reviewed Sizer's writings from 1983 through 1996,

McDonald's research (1992), Lusi's writings (1989), and Cushman's writings in *Horace* from 1990 through 1998. The researcher also utilized information from *Prisoners of Time* (National Education Commission on Time and Learning, 1994), Adler's research (1982, 1983), and McGreal and Dodds' (1994) *First Five Years' Report*.

To test the content validity of Part Four, Pedagogical Changes, of the questionnaire, the researcher reviewed Sizer's writings from 1969 through 1996, Metzger and Podl (1992), and Cushman's writings in *Horace* from 1990 through 1996. The researcher also utilized information from Adler's research (1982, 1983), and McGreal and Dodds' (1994) *First Five Years' Report*.

The researcher established content validity of the questionnaire by producing definitions of the nine Common Principles, producing definitions of structural and pedagogical changes through the use of the review of literature. The researcher then matched the definitions with the research used in the review of literature. The researcher also ensured content validity by having the survey instrument reviewed by five Northport faculty members and the professor from Michigan State University.

Because the researcher is not making a prediction about behavior at some point in the future, criterion-related validity was not tested in this study. Also, construct validity was not tested, because the researcher is not measuring an unobservable trait in this particular study.

Population

The population used in this study was the school administrators and school coordinators from the four K–12 private schools and the five K–12 public school districts that have established membership with the Coalition of Essential Schools.

These members schools were the K–12 schools selected from the November 1998 Coalition of Essential Schools membership list. These schools are located in the following states: Alaska, Florida, Indiana, Kentucky, Massachusetts, Michigan, New York, and South Carolina.

The Paul T. Albert Memorial School, located in Tununak, Alaska, is a public school located in a rural area. The student population is 107 students from kindergarten through 12th grades. The Paul T. Albert Memorial School has been a member of the Coalition of Essential Schools since 1993.

The Coral Springs Elementary, Middle, and High Schools in Florida are also members of the Coalition of Essential Schools. Coral Springs Elementary established membership with the Coalition in 1996. The Coral Springs Elementary student enrollment is 910 students in kindergarten through fifth grade. The Coral Springs Middle School established membership with the Coalition in 1992. Student enrollment is 1,250 students from sixth through eighth grade. The Coral Springs High School has a student population of 1,400 and established membership with the Coalition in 1996. Coral Springs School District is a public school district.

The Harmony School, located in Bloomington, Indiana, is a private school for 250 students in kindergarten through 12th grade students. Harmony School established membership with the Coalition of Essential Schools in 1992.

The J. Graham Brown School is a public school located in Louisville, Kentucky. The school serves 312 students from kindergarten through Grade 12. The J. Graham Brown School has been a member of the Coalition of Essential Schools since 1992.

Brimmer and May School is a private school, located in Chestnut Hill, Massachusetts, which serves 323 students in kindergarten through 12th grade.

Brimmer and May School established membership with the Coalition of Essential Schools in 1993.

Northport Public School is a small public school located in Northport, Michigan. Northport Public School serves 320 students from kindergarten through 12th grade, and has been a member of the Coalition of Essential Schools since 1994.

The Adelphi Academy in Brooklyn, New York, is a private school that serves 260 students from kindergarten through 12th grade. The Adelphi Academy established membership in 1985 and is one of the 12 charter members of the Coalition of Essential Schools.

Another charter member of the Coalition of Essential Schools is Central Park East Elementary and Secondary Schools located in New York, New York. Central Park East Elementary School serves 242 students from kindergarten through 6th grade. Central Park Secondary School serves 500 students from 7th through 12th grade. The Central Park East Schools established membership with Coalition of Essential Schools in 1985.

Heathwood Hall is a private school located in Columbia, South Carolina. The school established membership with the Coalition in 1987 and serves 781 students in kindergarten through 12th grade.

Human Subjects Institutional Review Board

The researcher presented the consent form and questionnaire to be completed by the participants in the study to the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board in January 1999. The consent form and questionnaire were accepted by the Human Subject Institutional Review Board on March 3, 1999.

The Human Subjects Institutional Review Board's purpose is to protect subjects participating in the research and to protect researchers conducting the research. All research involving human subjects must be approved by the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board before the research is begun.

Limitations of the Study

This study has several limitations and constraints. Some of these limitations may have a negative effect on the study, while others may have a positive effect. The first limitation of the study is the sample. This study is confined to nine K–12 school districts that have established membership with the Coalition of Essential Schools. There are two key informants from each school who participated in the study: the school administrator and the school coordinator. This is a total of 28 participants in the study. This limitation has a negative connotation in that the results cannot be easily generalized to other school districts.

The second limitation is that the survey instrument is a newly designed instrument. Thus, it has not had previous testing of reliability and validity by other researchers. This limitation also has a negative connotation, because reliability ensures predictable measurements, and validity ensures that the researcher is testing what he or she wants to be testing. When a survey is new, the reliability and validity are limited.

Another limitation is that there is now a 10th Common Principle of the Coalition of Essential Schools, which was adopted by the National Congress one year ago. Because this particular principle is so new, there is no research or writing about it. Therefore, this particular study did not include the 10th Common Principle.

The final limitation of the study is the assumption by the researcher that because all participants in the study have established membership with the Coalition of Essential Schools, their knowledge of the nine Common Principles and school structural and pedagogical changes should be greater than school participants who do not belong to the Coalition of Essential Schools. Since the researcher looked only at school districts that had established membership, this information is incomplete.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results and discussion of the statistical analyses are divided into three sections. The first section is the examination and interpretation of the data regarding the relationship between the administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of the nine Common Principles of the Coalition of Essential Schools. The statistical analysis used to analyze the data was the phi coefficient. The purpose of the phi coefficient analysis was to identify principles that had a phi coefficient greater than + or -0.60. The value of the phi coefficient was calculated using cross-tabulations.

The second section is the examination and interpretation of the data regarding the school administrators' and school coordinators' perceptions of the implementation of structural changes since becoming a member of the Coalition of Essential Schools. The statistical analysis used to analyze the data was the chi-square goodness-of-fit test. The purpose of the chi-square goodness-of-fit test analysis was to examine the observed frequency of participants' agreement with the implementation of structural changes and the expected frequency of the participants' agreement with the implementation of structural changes. The expected frequency of agreement with the implementation of structural changes was established by the researcher to be 26, or 90% of the participants.

The third section is the examination and interpretation of the data regarding the school administrators' and school coordinators' perceptions of the implementation of pedagogical changes since becoming a member of the Coalition of

Essential Schools. The statistical analysis used to analyze the data was the chi-square goodness-of-fit test. The purpose of the chi-square goodness-of-fit test was to examine the observed frequency of participants' agreement with the implementation of pedagogical changes and the expected frequency of the participants' agreement with the implementation of pedagogical change. The expected frequency of agreement with the implementation of change was established by the researcher to be 26, or 90% of the participants.

School Administrators' and School Coordinators' Interpretations of the Nine Common Principles

School Administrators' and School Coordinators' Interpretation of Principle 1

The examination of the data regarding the relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretation of Principle 1 and its various definitions is summarized in Table 1.

The relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 1 was measured by the phi coefficient. The phi coefficient is a special case of the Pearson r where both variables are nominal. The phi coefficient measured the degree of positive or negative relationship between two variables. If the phi coefficient was greater than + or -0.60 , the researcher established that there was a relationship.

The phi coefficient for Principle 1, Definition 1 was 0.27735. The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 1, Definition 1. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 1, Definition 1 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

Table 1
Summary of the Relationship Between the School Administrators' and
School Coordinators' Interpretations of Principle 1

Topic	Phi Coefficient (ϕ)
Principle 1 Definition 1	$\phi = 0.27735$
Principle 1 Definition 2	$\phi = 0.00000$
Principle 1 Definition 3	$\phi = 0.19245$
Principle 1 Definition 4	$\phi = 0.20412$
Principle 1 Definition 5	$\phi = -0.19245$
Principle 1 Definition 6	$\phi = -0.20412$
Principle 1 Definition 7	$\phi = 0.00000$

The phi coefficient for Principle 1, Definition 2 was 0.0000. The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 1, Definition 2. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 1, Definition 2 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 1, Definition 3 was 0.19245. The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 1, Definition 3. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 1, Definition 3 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 1, Definition 4 was 0.20412. The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 1, Definition 4. Therefore, the interpretation

of Principle 1, Definition 4 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 1, Definition 5 was -0.19245 . The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 1, Definition 5. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 1, Definition 5 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 1, Definition 6 was -0.20412 . The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 1, Definition 6. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 1, Definition 6 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 1, Definition 7 was 0.0000 . The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 1, Definition 7. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 1, Definition 7 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

School Administrators' and School Coordinators' Interpretation of Principle 2

The examination of the data regarding the relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretation of Principle 2 and its various definitions is summarized in Table 2.

The phi coefficient for Principle 2, Definition 1 was 0.0000 . The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 2, Definition 1. Therefore, the interpretation

Table 2
Summary of the Relationship Between the School Administrators' and
School Coordinators' Interpretations of Principle 2

Topic	Phi Coefficient (ϕ)
Principle 2 Definition 1	$\phi = 0.00000$
Principle 2 Definition 2	$\phi = -0.07647$
Principle 2 Definition 3	$\phi = -0.11547$
Principle 2 Definition 4	$\phi = 0.00000$
Principle 2 Definition 5	$\phi = 0.14434$
Principle 2 Definition 6	$\phi = 0.09325$
Principle 2 Definition 7	$\phi = -0.27975$

of Principle 2, Definition 1 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 2, Definition 2 was -0.07647 . The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 2, Definition 2. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 2, Definition 2 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 2, Definition 3 was -0.11547 . The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 2, Definition 3. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 2, Definition 3 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 2, Definition 4 was 0.0000. The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 2, Definition 4. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 2, Definition 4 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 2, Definition 5 was 0.14434. The value shows that there was no relationship between the principals' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 2, Definition 5. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 2, Definition 5 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 2, Definition 6 was 0.09325. The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 2, Definition 6. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 2, Definition 6 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 2, Definition 7 was -0.027975 . The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 2, Definition 7. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 2, Definition 7 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

School Administrators' and School Coordinators' Interpretation of Principle 3

The examination of the data regarding the relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretation of Principle 3 and its various definitions is summarized in Table 3.

Table 3

Summary of the Relationship Between the School Administrators' and
School Coordinators' Interpretations of Principle 3

Topic	Phi Coefficient (ϕ)
Principle 3 Definition 1	$\phi = -0.07313$
Principle 3 Definition 2	$\phi = -0.27735$
Principle 3 Definition 3	$\phi = 0.24774$
Principle 3 Definition 4	$\phi = 0.00000$
Principle 3 Definition 5	$\phi = 0.00000$
Principle 3 Definition 6	$\phi = -0.19245$
Principle 3 Definition 7	$\phi = -0.07647$

The phi coefficient for Principle 3, Definition 1 was -0.07313 . The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 3, Definition 1. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 3, Definition 1 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 3, Definition 2 was -0.027735 . The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 3, Definition 2. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 3, Definition 2 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 3, Definition 3 was 0.24774 . The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 3, Definition 3. Therefore, the interpretation

of Principle 3, Definition 3 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 3, Definition 4 was 0.0000. The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 3, Definition 4. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 3, Definition 4 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 3, Definition 5 was 0.00000. The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 3, Definition 5. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 3, Definition 5 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 3, Definition 6 was -0.19245 . The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 3, Definition 6. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 3, Definition 6 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 3, Definition 7 was -0.07647 . The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 3, Definition 7. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 3, Definition 7 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

School Administrators' and School Coordinators' Interpretation of Principle 4

The examination of the data regarding the relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretation of Principle 4 and its various definitions is summarized in Table 4.

Table 4

Summary of the Relationship Between the School Administrators' and School Coordinators' Interpretations of Principle 4

Topic	Phi Coefficient (ϕ)
Principle 4 Definition 1	$\phi = 0.19245$
Principle 4 Definition 2	$\phi = -0.14286$
Principle 4 Definition 3	$\phi = -0.09325$
Principle 4 Definition 4	$\phi = -0.11547$
Principle 4 Definition 5	$\phi = -0.07161$
Principle 4 Definition 6	$\phi = 0.00000$
Principle 4 Definition 7	$\phi = -0.14434$

The phi coefficient for Principle 4, Definition 1 was 0.19245. The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 4, Definition 1. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 4, Definition 1 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 4, Definition 2 was -0.14286 . The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 4, Definition 2. Therefore, the interpretation

of Principle 4, Definition 2 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 4, Definition 3 was -0.09325 . The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 4, Definition 3. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 4, Definition 3 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 4, Definition 4 was -0.11547 . The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 4, Definition 4. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 4, Definition 4 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 4, Definition 5 was -0.07161 . The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 4, Definition 5. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 4, Definition 5 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 4, Definition 6 was 0.00000 . The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 4, Definition 6. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 4, Definition 6 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 4, Definition 7 was -0.14434 . The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 4, Definition 7. Therefore, the interpretation

of Principle 4, Definition 7 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

School Administrators' and School Coordinators' Interpretation of Principle 5

The examination of the data regarding the relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretation of Principle 5 and its various definitions is summarized in Table 5.

Table 5

Summary of the Relationship Between the School Administrators' and School Coordinators' Interpretations of Principle 5

Topic	Phi Coefficient (ϕ)
Principle 5 Definition 1	$\phi = -0.11547$
Principle 5 Definition 2	$\phi = 0.00000$
Principle 5 Definition 3	$\phi = -0.19245$
Principle 5 Definition 4	$\phi = -0.19245$
Principle 5 Definition 5	$\phi = 0.07161$
Principle 5 Definition 6	$\phi = 0.00000$
Principle 5 Definition 7	$\phi = 0.00000$

The phi coefficient for Principle 5, Definition 1 was -0.11547 . The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 5, Definition 1. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 5, Definition 1 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 5, Definition 2 was 0.00000. The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 5, Definition 2. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 5, Definition 2 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 5, Definition 3 was -0.19245 . The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 5, Definition 3. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 5, Definition 3 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 5, Definition 4 was -0.19245 . The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 5, Definition 4. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 5, Definition 4 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 5, Definition 5 was 0.07161. The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 5, Definition 5. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 5, Definition 5 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 5, Definition 6 was 0.00000. The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 5, Definition 6. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 5, Definition 6 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 5, Definition 7 was 0.00000. The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 5, Definition 7. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 5, Definition 7 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

School Administrators' and School Coordinators' Interpretation of Principle 6

The examination of the data regarding the relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretation of Principle 6 and its various definitions is summarized in Table 6.

Table 6

Summary of the Relationship Between the School Administrators' and School Coordinators' Interpretations of Principle 6

Topic	Phi Coefficient (ϕ)
Principle 6 Definition 1	$\phi = 0.00000$
Principle 6 Definition 2	$\phi = 0.19245$
Principle 6 Definition 3	$\phi = -0.09325$
Principle 6 Definition 4	$\phi = -0.14286$
Principle 6 Definition 5	$\phi = -0.19245$
Principle 6 Definition 6	$\phi = 0.00000$
Principle 6 Definition 7	$\phi = 0.00000$

The phi coefficient for Principle 6, Definition 1 was 0.0000. The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school

coordinators' interpretations of Principle 6, Definition 1. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 6, Definition 1 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 6, Definition 2 was 0.19245. The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 6, Definition 2. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 6, Definition 2 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 6, Definition 3 was -0.09325 . The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 6, Definition 3. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 6, Definition 3 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 6, Definition 4 was -0.14286 . The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 6, Definition 4. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 6, Definition 4 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 6, Definition 5 was -0.19245 . The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 6, Definition 5. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 6, Definition 5 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 6, Definition 6 was 0.00000. The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school

coordinators' interpretations of Principle 6, Definition 6. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 6, Definition 6 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 6, Definition 7 was 0.00000. The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 6, Definition 7. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 6, Definition 7 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

School Administrators' and School Coordinators' Interpretation of Principle 7

The examination of the data regarding the relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretation of Principle 7 and its various definitions is summarized in Table 7.

Table 7

Summary of the Relationship Between the School Administrators' and School Coordinators' Interpretations of Principle 7

Topic	Phi Coefficient (ϕ)
Principle 7 Definition 1	$\phi = 0.19245$
Principle 7 Definition 2	$\phi = 0.11547$
Principle 7 Definition 3	$\phi = -0.14286$
Principle 7 Definition 4	$\phi = -0.14434$
Principle 7 Definition 5	$\phi = 0.00000$
Principle 7 Definition 6	$\phi = 0.17408$
Principle 7 Definition 7	$\phi = 0.00000$

The phi coefficient for Principle 7, Definition 1 was 0.19245. The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 7, Definition 1. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 7, Definition 1 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 7, Definition 2 was 0.11547. The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 7, Definition 2. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 7, Definition 2 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 7, Definition 3 was -0.14286 . The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 7, Definition 3. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 7, Definition 3 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 7, Definition 4 was -0.14434 . The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 7, Definition 4. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 7, Definition 4 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 7, Definition 5 was 0.00000. The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 7, Definition 5. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 7, Definition 5 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 7, Definition 6 was 0.17408. The value shows there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 7, Definition 6. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 7, Definition 6 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 7, Definition 7 was 0.00000. The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 7, Definition 7. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 7, Definition 7 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

School Administrators' and School Coordinators' Interpretation of Principle 8

The examination of the data regarding the relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretation of Principle 8 and its various definitions is summarized in Table 8.

The phi coefficient for Principle 8, Definition 1 was -0.14907 . The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 8, Definition 1. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 8, Definition 1 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 8, Definition 2 was -0.17408 . The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 8, Definition 2. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 8, Definition 2 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

Table 8
Summary of the Relationship Between the School Administrators' and
School Coordinators' Interpretations of Principle 8

Topic	Phi Coefficient (ϕ)
Principle 8 Definition 1	$\phi = -0.14907$
Principle 8 Definition 2	$\phi = -0.17408$
Principle 8 Definition 3	$\phi = 0.19245$
Principle 8 Definition 4	$\phi = -0.19245$
Principle 8 Definition 5	$\phi = 0.00000$
Principle 8 Definition 6	$\phi = 0.00000$
Principle 8 Definition 7	$\phi = -0.21483$

The phi coefficient for Principle 8, Definition 3 was 0.19245. The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 8, Definition 3. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 8, Definition 3 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 8, Definition 4 was -0.19245 . The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 8, Definition 4. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 8, Definition 4 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 8, Definition 5 was 0.00000. The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 8, Definition 5. Therefore, the interpretation

of Principle 8, Definition 5 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 8, Definition 6 was 0.00000. The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 8, Definition 6. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 8, Definition 6 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 8, Definition 7 was -0.21483 . The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 8, Definition 7. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 8, Definition 7 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

School Administrators' and School Coordinators' Interpretation of Principle 9

The examination of the data regarding the relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 9 and its various definitions is summarized in Table 9.

The phi coefficient for Principle 9, Definition 1 was 0.27735. The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 9, Definition 1. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 9, Definition 1 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 9, Definition 2 was 0.00000. The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 9, Definition 2. Therefore, the interpretation

Table 9
Summary of the Relationship Between the School Administrators' and
School Coordinators' Interpretations of Principle 9

Topic	Phi Coefficient (ϕ)
Principle 9 Definition 1	$\phi = 0.27735$
Principle 9 Definition 2	$\phi = 0.00000$
Principle 9 Definition 3	$\phi = 0.00000$
Principle 9 Definition 4	$\phi = -0.08248$
Principle 9 Definition 5	$\phi = 0.00000$
Principle 9 Definition 6	$\phi = 0.00000$
Principle 9 Definition 7	$\phi = 0.18681$

of Principle 9, Definition 2 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 9, Definition 3 was 0.00000. The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 9, Definition 3. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 9, Definition 3 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 9, Definition 4 was -0.08248 . The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 9, Definition 4. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 9, Definition 4 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 9, Definition 5 was 0.00000. The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 9, Definition 5. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 9, Definition 5 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 9, Definition 6 was 0.0000. The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 9, Definition 6. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 9, Definition 6 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

The phi coefficient for Principle 9, Definition 7 was 0.18681. The value shows that there was no relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of Principle 9, Definition 7. Therefore, the interpretation of Principle 9, Definition 7 by the school administrators and the school coordinators was not significantly different.

School Administrators' and School Coordinators' Perceptions of the Implementation of Structural Changes

The examination of the data regarding the school administrators' and school coordinators' perceptions of the implementation of structural changes is shown in Table 10.

To evaluate whether the Coalition member schools have implemented the nine structural changes, the school administrators' and school coordinators' perceptions were analyzed using the chi-square goodness-of-fit test. The chi-square goodness-of-fit test was used to examine the observed frequency of participants' agreement with

Table 10

Summary of the Relationship Among School Administrators' and
School Coordinators' Interpretations of Structural Changes

Structural Changes		Number of Participants		Chi-square Value (χ^2)
Number	Description	Agree	Disagree	
1	Block scheduling	28	0	$\chi^2=2.1538$
2	Common planning time for faculty	28	0	$\chi^2=2.1538$
3	Longer school day	4	24	$\chi^2=260.1654$
4	Longer school year	6	22	$\chi^2=215.3846$
5	Abandonment of programs that are no longer useful	28	0	$\chi^2=2.1538$
6	Remodel existing rooms for more flexibility	5	23	$\chi^2=237.4615$
7	Implement summer school program	16	12	$\chi^2=53.8462$
8	More opportunities for multiage grouping	25	3	$\chi^2=0.5385$
9	Implement/Increase advance placement or dual enrollment opportunities	21	7	$\chi^2=13.4615$

the implementation of structural changes and the expected frequency of the participants' agreement with the implementation of structural change. The expected frequency of agreement with the implementation of change was established by the researcher to be 26. Using the alpha level of 0.10 resulted in a chi-square critical

value of 2.706 (Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 1988, p. 651). If the calculated chi-square value was greater than the critical value, the null hypothesis, that schools have implemented structural changes, was rejected, and the schools were said to not have implemented structural changes.

The chi-square coefficient for Structural Change 1, block scheduling, was 2.1538. This value was less than the critical value of 2.706. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted, and the nine member schools of the Coalition have undergone Structural Change 1, block scheduling.

The chi-square coefficient for Structural Change 2, common planning time for teachers, was 2.1538. This value was less than the critical value of 2.706. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted, and the nine member schools of the Coalition have undergone Structural Change 2, common planning time for teachers.

The chi-square coefficient for Structural Change 3, longer school day, was 260.1654. This value was more than the critical value of 2.706. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected, and the nine member schools of the Coalition have not undergone Structural Change 3, longer school day.

The chi-square coefficient for Structural Change 4, longer school year, was 215.3846. This value was more than the critical value of 2.706. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected, and the nine member schools of the Coalition have not undergone Structural Change 4, longer school year.

The chi-square coefficient for Structural Change 5, planned abandonment of programs that are no longer useful, was 2.1538. This value was less than the critical value of 2.706. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted, and the nine member schools of the Coalition have undergone Structural Change 5, planned abandonment of programs that are no longer useful.

The chi-square coefficient for Structural Change 6, remodeling of buildings for flexibility, was 237.4615. This value was more than the critical value of 2.706. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected, and the nine member schools of the Coalition have not undergone Structural Change 6, remodeling of buildings for flexibility.

The chi-square coefficient for Structural Change 7, summer school programs, was 53.8462. This value was more than the critical value of 2.706. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected, and the nine member school of the Coalition have not undergone Structural Change 7, summer school programs.

The chi-square coefficient for Structural Change 8, more opportunities for multiage groupings, was 0.5385. This value was less than the critical value of 2.706. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted, and the nine member schools of the Coalition have undergone Structural Change 8, more opportunities for multiage groupings.

The chi-square coefficient for Structural Change 9, increased advanced placement or dual enrollment opportunities, was 13.4615. This value was more than the critical value of 2.706. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected, and the nine member schools of the Coalition have not undergone Structural Change 9, increased advanced placement or dual enrollment opportunities.

School Administrators' and School Coordinators' Perceptions of the Implementation of Pedagogical Changes

The examination of the data regarding the school administrators' and school coordinators' perceptions of the implementation of pedagogical changes is shown in Table 11.

Table 11

Summary of the Relationship Between the School Administrators' and School Coordinators' Interpretations of Pedagogical Changes

Pedagogical Changes		Number of Participants		Chi-square Value (χ^2)
Number	Description	Agree	Disagree	
1	Exhibitions of mastery	18	10	$\chi^2=34.4615$
2	Increased use of alternative assessments	26	2	$\chi^2=0.0000$
3	Multiple opportunities to demonstrate learning	26	2	$\chi^2=0.0000$
4	Use of cooperative learning activities	26	2	$\chi^2=0.0000$
5	Increased use of thematic studies	26	2	$\chi^2=0.0000$
6	Increased incidents of learning centers/labs	23	5	$\chi^2=4.8462$
7	Portfolio defense	14	14	$\chi^2=77.5385$
8	Socratic Seminars	19	9	$\chi^2=26.3846$
9	Increased opportunities for experiential learning	28	0	$\chi^2=2.1538$

To evaluate whether the nine member schools of the Coalition have implemented the nine pedagogical changes, the school administrators' and school coordinators' perceptions were analyzed using the chi-square coefficient. The chi-square coefficient was used to examine the observed frequency of participants' agreement with the implementation of pedagogical changes and the expected frequency of the participants' agreement with the implementation of pedagogical

change. The expected frequency of agreement with the implementation of change was established by the researcher to be 26. Using the alpha level of 0.10 resulted in a chi-square critical value of 2.706 (Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 1988, p. 651). If the calculated chi-square value was greater than the critical value, the null hypothesis, that schools have implemented pedagogical changes, was rejected, and the schools were said to not have implemented pedagogical changes.

The chi-square coefficient for Pedagogical Change 1, exhibitions of mastery for graduation, was 34.6415. This value was more than the critical value of 2.706. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected, and the nine member schools of the Coalition have not undergone Pedagogical Change 1, exhibitions of mastery for graduation.

The chi-square coefficient for Pedagogical Change 2, increased use of alternative assessments, was 0.0000. This value was less than the critical value of 2.706. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted, and the nine member schools of the coalition have undergone Pedagogical Change 2, increased use of alternative assessments.

The chi-square coefficient for Pedagogical Change 3, multiple opportunities to demonstrate learning, was 0.0000. This value was less than the critical value of 2.706. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted, and the nine member schools of the coalition have undergone Pedagogical Change 3, multiple opportunities to demonstrate learning.

The chi-square coefficient for Pedagogical Change 4, use of cooperative learning activities, was 0.0000. This value was more than the critical value of 2.706. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted, and the nine member schools of the

Coalition have undergone Pedagogical Change 4, use of cooperative learning activities.

The chi-square coefficient for Pedagogical Change 5, increased use of thematic studies, was 0.0000. This value was less than the critical value of 2.706. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted, and the nine member schools of the Coalition have undergone Pedagogical Change 5, increased use of thematic studies.

The chi-square coefficient for Pedagogical Change 6, increased use of learning centers or labs, was 4.8462. This value was more than the critical value of 2.706. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected, and the nine member schools of the Coalition have not undergone Pedagogical Change 6, increased use of learning centers or labs.

The chi-square coefficient for Pedagogical Change 7, portfolio defense, was 77.5385. This value was more than the critical value of 2.706. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected, and the nine member schools of the Coalition have not undergone Pedagogical Change 7, portfolio defense.

The chi-square coefficient for Pedagogical Change 8, Socratic seminar, was 26.3846. This value was more than the critical value of 2.706. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected, and the nine member schools of the Coalition have not undergone Pedagogical Change 8, Socratic seminar.

The chi-square coefficient for Pedagogical Change 9, experiential learning, was 2.1538. This value was less than the critical value of 2.706. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted, and the nine member schools of the Coalition have undergone Pedagogical Change 9, more opportunities for experiential learning.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Conclusions

The conclusion of the study is divided into three sections. The first section is the conclusion regarding the relationship between the school administrators' and school coordinators' interpretations of the nine common principles of Coalition of Essential Schools. The second section discusses whether the nine member schools of the Coalition of Essential Schools have undergone structural changes since becoming Coalition Schools. The third section discusses whether the nine member schools of the Coalition of Essential Schools have undergone pedagogical changes since becoming Coalition Schools. The conclusion sections are followed by recommendations regarding the study and future studies.

Conclusions Regarding the Relationship Between the School Administrators' and School Coordinators' Interpretations of the Nine Common Principles of the Coalition of Essential Schools

The school administrators and the school coordinators agreed upon the interpretation of the definitions of the Common Principle 1, Focus.

The school administrators and the school coordinators agreed upon the interpretation of the definitions of the Common Principle 2, Simple Goals.

The school administrators and the school coordinators agreed upon the interpretation of the definitions of the Common Principle 3, Universal Goals.

The school administrators and the school coordinators agreed upon the interpretation of the definitions of the Common Principle 4, Personalization.

The school administrators and the school coordinators agreed upon the interpretation of the definitions of the Common Principle 5, Student-as-Worker.

The school administrators and the school coordinators agreed upon the interpretation of the definitions of the Common Principle 6, Diploma by Exhibition.

The school administrators and the school coordinators agreed upon the interpretation of the definitions of the Common Principle 7, Attitude.

The school administrators and the school coordinators agreed upon the interpretation of the definitions of the Common Principle 8, Staff Assignments and Commitment.

The school administrators and the school coordinators agreed upon the interpretation of the definitions of the Common Principle 9, Budget.

The researcher interpreted these agreements to signify that the nine Common Principles of the Coalition of Essential Schools were understood by all participants, regardless of their job orientation as the school administrator or the school coordinator. This indicates not only a clear understanding of the nine Common Principles, but also the ability to operationalize the nine Common Principles into K–12 comprehensive reform initiatives in their schools.

The researcher also concluded that the definitions of the nine Common Principles were written correctly based upon the agreement among the school administrators and school coordinators.

The Perceptions of School Administrators and School Coordinators on the Implementation of Structural Changes Since Becoming a Coalition School District

For a school to have undergone a structural change, 26 of the 28 respondents had to agree that their school had undergone a structural change. According to the data analyses, the member schools had undergone structural changes with respect to block scheduling, common planning time for faculty members, abandonment of programs that are no longer useful, and increasing opportunities for multi-age groupings. The researcher believes these structural changes are appropriate, since the study was designed for K–12 schools.

The member schools did not implement the structural changes with regard to longer school day, longer school year, remodeling existing rooms for more flexibility, implementing summer school programs, and increasing advanced placement or dual enrollment opportunities. Even though some schools had implemented some of these changes, all of these structural changes affect the budget of the school district and add extra costs to the schools. Also, some of the structural changes, such as increasing advanced placement courses or dual enrollment courses, are a secondary structural change that would not happen in an elementary setting. Therefore, these changes would not be as easy to adopt or implement.

The Perceptions of School Administrators and School Coordinators on the Implementation of Pedagogical Changes Since Becoming a Coalition School District

For a school to have undergone a pedagogical change, 26 of the 28 respondents had to agree that their schools had undergone a pedagogical change. According to the data analyses, the member schools had undergone pedagogical

changes with respect to increased use of alternative assessments, multiple opportunities to demonstrate learning, use of cooperative learning activities, increasing use of thematic studies, and increased opportunities for experienced learning. The researcher believes these pedagogical changes are appropriate, since the study was designed for K–12 schools. The pedagogical changes that occurred could be implemented in a K–12 school setting.

The member schools did not implement the pedagogical changes with regard to exhibitions of mastery, increased use of learning centers and labs, portfolio defense, and Socratic seminars.

Even though 18 of the 28 participants implemented exhibitions of mastery, this is a secondary pedagogical change that might not take place at all levels of a K–12 school district. Socratic seminars are also considered a secondary pedagogical change and might not take place at all levels of a K–12 school district.

Increased use of learning centers and labs and portfolio defense would be considered elementary pedagogical changes and might not take place at the secondary level.

Recommendations for Further Studies

The researcher recommends that the 10th Common Principle be studied to discover how school administrators and school coordinators interpret it. A further area of study would be researching the structural and pedagogical changes that have occurred to operationalize the 10th Common Principle.

A second recommendation for further study is to research elementary schools, middle schools, and secondary schools to discover if there are more comprehensive

structural and pedagogical changes in individual schools rather than in entire K–12 districts.

Another recommendation for further study would be a follow-up study of high school graduates to identify the success of the Coalition of Essential Schools. In other words, does this reform initiative really make an educational difference in the lives of students?

A final recommendation for further study would be to expand the original study to include faculty members of the nine member K–12 school districts. An expanded study would benefit research by discovering if faculty members also agree on the definitions of the nine Common Principles. An expanded study would also discover if faculty members' perceptions on structural and pedagogical changes are the same as the school administrators' and the school coordinators'.

Appendix A
Questionnaire

QUESTIONNAIRE

PART ONE: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

SCHOOL NAME _____

TOTAL K-12 ENROLLMENT _____

ARE YOU AN ADMINISTRATOR _____ IF YES, AT WHAT LEVEL? _____

HOW LONG HAVE YOU BEEN A SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR IN A COALITION SCHOOL DISTRICT? _____

ARE YOU THE SCHOOL COORDINATOR FOR YOUR SCHOOL DISTRICT?

☐ YES, AT WHAT LEVEL? _____ ☐ NO

MALE _____ FEMALE _____

HOW LONG HAS YOUR SCHOOL DISTRICT BEEN A MEMBER OF THE COALITION OF ESSENTIAL SCHOOLS? _____

PART TWO: THE NINE "COMMON PRINCIPLES"

DIRECTIONS: PLEASE MARK ALL THE RESPONSES THAT FIT *YOUR DEFINITION* OF EACH OF THE NINE "COMMON PRINCIPLES."

PRINCIPLE ONE:

An Essential School should focus on helping students learn to use their minds well. The school should not attempt to be "comprehensive" at the expense of the school's central intellectual purpose.

- ☐ The school's program should be narrowed.
- ☐ All subjects should be taught in more depth.
- ☐ Intellectual habits are the primary foci of the school.
- ☐ The school should abandon programs that are no longer relevant or meaningful.
- ☐ Higher order thinking skills should be evident throughout curriculum, instruction, and assessment.
- ☐ Classrooms should be expanded to include global resources via technology.
- ☐ More value is placed on intellectual effort and achievement by restructuring the district's recognition and reward system.

PRINCIPLE TWO:

The school's goals should be simple: that each student master a limited number of essential skills and areas of knowledge. The aphorism "Less is More" should dominate.

- ☐ The school should have clearly defined curriculum expectations.
- ☐ Every student must master essential skills in all subjects at every grade level.
- ☐ The school should create frequent opportunities for re-teaching.
- ☐ Comprehension and understanding become the primary foci as opposed to simply the quantity of curriculum input.
- ☐ Performance-based graduation is used as opposed to "time" based.
- ☐ The school should endorse OBE.
- ☐ The school's goals take into account the diverse learning styles of individual students and groups.

PRINCIPLE THREE:

The school's goals should apply to all students, while the means to these goals will vary as those students themselves vary.

- ☐ Curriculum must provide a setting where all students learn a few things well.
- ☐ Curriculum must provide a setting where all students learn how to learn.
- ☐ All students are enrolled at all times in all subject areas.
- ☐ The school should eliminate "tracking."
- ☐ The school should ensure equity (gender, racial, socio-economic, etc.).
- ☐ The school should recognize differences in students' learning styles.
- ☐ The school endorses and implements "inclusion."

PRINCIPLE FOUR:

Teaching and learning should be personalized to the maximum feasible extent. Efforts should be directed toward the goal that no teacher have direct responsibility for more than eighty students.

- ☐ **Learning is a very personal experience.**
- ☐ **Teachers should have no more than 80 students assigned to them.**
- ☐ **Cross subject instruction must take place.**
- ☐ **Teacher/student ratio must be lowered.**
- ☐ **The school should implement student "advisory" sessions that meet regularly.**
- ☐ **Teachers develop IEP's for general (regular) education students.**
- ☐ **The school formally recognizes the value of instructional learning opportunities that occur outside of the regular school structure (day/year).**

PRINCIPLE FIVE:

The governing practical metaphor of the school should be student-as worker. Accordingly, the prominent pedagogy will be coaching, to provoke the students to learn how to learn.

- ☐ **Faculty should rely less on lectures as the primary focus of instruction.**
- ☐ **Faculty should use a variety of learning activities.**
- ☐ **Students are expected to assume more responsibility for their own learning.**
- ☐ **Students become more active participants in the teaching / learning process.**
- ☐ **The school should create mentorship programs.**
- ☐ **Students need more self-assessment (reflections) and peer assessment.**
- ☐ **An increased emphasis is placed on "problem solving" and "critical thinking."**

PRINCIPLE SIX:

Diploma by exhibition. Students entering secondary school studies are those who are committed to the school's purposes and who can show competence in language, elementary mathematics and basic civics.

- ☐ **The school should abandon / de-emphasize conventional grading system.**
- ☐ **The faculty should use alternative assessments frequently.**
- ☐ **Students must demonstrate mastery through projects.**
- ☐ **A "portfolio defense" is incorporated as part of the graduation requirement.**
- ☐ **Promotion and graduation are dependent upon performance not time.**
- ☐ **The school should eliminate "Carnegie" credits in favor of exhibitions and demonstrations of mastery.**
- ☐ **Student exhibitions are presented to the community as evidence of mastery.**

PRINCIPLE SEVEN:

The tone of the school should explicate and stress values of unanxious expectations, of trust, and of decency.

- ☐ **The prevalent attitude of the school frequently reaffirms confidence in each student's ability to attain high standards.**
- ☐ **Formal opportunities for input regarding policy and curriculum are available to all school stakeholders.**
- ☐ **Bureaucratic compartmentalization is abandoned in favor of consensus decision making.**
- ☐ **The school provides increased opportunities for service learning activities.**
- ☐ **Parents are treated as essential collaborators.**
- ☐ **The school should examine discipline policy and procedures.**
- ☐ **Community volunteers and paraprofessionals are welcomed to contribute within the instructional environment.**

PRINCIPLE EIGHT:

The principal and teachers should perceive themselves as generalists first and specialists second. Staff should expect multiple obligations and feel a sense of commitment to the entire schools.

- ☐ **Departmental ideology is abandoned in favor of interdisciplinary approach and professional collaboration.**
- ☐ **Faculty should implement more thematic instruction.**
- ☐ **Faculty should implement interdisciplinary curriculum.**
- ☐ **Faculty accepts more diverse responsibility.**
- ☐ **Faculty exhibits an increased sense of commitment to the entire school.**
- ☐ **Faculty engages in team teaching.**
- ☐ **Teachers contributes to the profession by mentoring, writing, publishing and presenting.**

PRINCIPLE NINE:

Budget. Ultimate administrative and budget targets should include, total student load of eight pupil / teacher, substantial time for collective planning by teachers, competitive salaries for staff, and ultimate per pupil cost not to exceed that of traditional schools by more than 10 per cent.

- ☐ **Instructional teams are formed to distribute students more evenly.**
- ☐ **Teaching teams' planning times are provided.**
- ☐ **The faculty believes in being an interdisciplinary faculty.**
- ☐ **Faculty shares more responsibility for the school.**
- ☐ **Budget increases by only 10 per cent.**
- ☐ **The school increases opportunities for multiage groupings.**
- ☐ **Productive business partnerships are formed that support and supplement educational programs.**

PART THREE: CHANGE PROCESS

**DIRECTIONS: PLEASE MARK ALL THE CHANGE PROCESS ITEMS
YOUR DISTRICT HAS DONE TO FACILITATE POSITIVE
EDUCATIONAL CHANGE.**

- ☐ The school has established a schooled decision-making group that meets on a regular basis.
- ☐ The school has developed and adopted belief statements for the district.
- ☐ The school has developed a mission statement for the district.
- ☐ There is a high level of teacher involvement in decision-making.
- ☐ There is a high level of student involvement in decision-making.
- ☐ There is a high level of parental and community involvement in school activities.
- ☐ There is a high level of the teachers' union's understanding of, involvement in, and commitment to the restructuring process.
- ☐ There is a high level of administrators' understanding of, involvement in, and commitment to the restructuring process.

PART FOUR: STRUCTURAL CHANGES

DIRECTIONS: PLEASE CHECK ALL THE STRUCTURAL CHANGES THAT *YOUR SCHOOL DISTRICT HAS IMPLEMENTED* SINCE ESTABLISHING MEMBERSHIP WITH THE COALITION OF ESSENTIAL SCHOOLS.

- ☐ Block scheduling
- ☐ Common planning time for faculty
- ☐ Longer school day
- ☐ Longer school year
- ☐ Planned abandonment of school programs that are no longer useful
- ☐ Remodel existing rooms for more flexibility
- ☐ Implement summer school program
- ☐ More opportunities for multiage groupings
- ☐ Implement / increase advance placement or dual enrollment opportunities

PART FIVE: PEDAGOGICAL CHANGES

DIRECTIONS: PLEASE CHECK ALL THE PEDAGOGICAL CHANGES *THAT YOUR SCHOOL DISTRICT HAS IMPLEMENTED* SINCE ESTABLISHING MEMBERSHIP TO THE COALITION OF ESSENTIAL SCHOOLS.

- ☐ Exhibitions of mastery for graduation
- ☐ Increased use of alternative assessments
- ☐ Multiple opportunities to demonstrate achievement
- ☐ Use of cooperative learning activities
- ☐ Increased use of thematic studies
- ☐ Increased incidents of learning centers / learning labs
- ☐ Portfolios defense
- ☐ Socratic seminars
- ☐ Increased opportunities for experiential learning

PART SIX: COMMENTS

**DIRECTIONS: PLEASE FEEL FREE TO COMMENT ABOUT ANY ISSUES RELATED TO
THE COALITION OF ESSENTIAL SCHOOLS HAPPENING
AT YOUR PARTICULAR SCHOOL.**

**IF YOU WOULD LIKE THE
RESULTS OF THIS SURVEY
PLEASE CHECK THE FOLLOWING BOX ☐**

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME!

Appendix B
Protocol Clearance From the Human Subjects
Institutional Review Board

Western Michigan University, Department of Educational Leadership
Dr. Charles Warfield, Advisor 616.387.3890

An Analysis of Nine K-12 School Districts that have Established Membership with the Coalition of Essential Schools

Shari A. Peters-Kitchen, Researcher

3098 US 131 North

Elmira, MI 49730

WESTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY
H. S. F. R. B.
Approved for use for one year from this date:
MAR 03 1999
x *Sylvia Culp*
HSIRB Chair

The enclosed questionnaire regarding the structural and pedagogical changes of K-12 member school districts of the Coalition of Essential Schools is part of my research to complete my doctorate degree from the Educational Leadership Department at Western Michigan University. My research project, *An Analysis of Nine K-12 School Districts that have Established Membership with the Coalition of Essential Schools*, is concerned specifically with determining the degree of structural and pedagogical changes that have occurred in the K-12 school districts that have established membership with the Coalition of Essential Schools. The results of this study will help to provide other schools with preliminary information when beginning the comprehensive K-12 restructuring process with the Coalition of Essential Schools.

I am particularly desirous of obtaining your written responses because your experience as a school principal in a Coalition School will contribute significantly toward helping schools restructure their districts. The enclosed instrument has been tested with a sampling of teachers and a college professor who have worked in schools that have established membership with the Coalition of Essential Schools. The average time required to complete the survey instrument is 20 minutes.

Please answer the enclosed questionnaire by ~~returning~~ and return it in the stamped, envelope enclosed. The consent document is approved for use for one year by the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board (HSIRB) as indicated by the stamped date and signature of the board chair in the upper right corner of both pages. You should not participate in this project if the corner does not have a stamped date and signature. Returning the survey indicates your consent for use of the answers you supply. Be assured that your responses will be held in the strictest confidence and a coding system will ensure confidentiality.

I would welcome any comments that you may have concerning any aspect of the structural and pedagogical changes not covered in the questionnaire, and I will be pleased to send you a summary of the survey results if you desire.

Western Michigan University, Department of Educational Leadership
 Dr. Charles Warfield, Advisor 616.387.3890

An Analysis of Nine K-12 School Districts that have Established Membership with the Coalition of Essential Schools

WESTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY
 H. S. I. R. B.
 Approved for use for one year from this date:

MAR 03 1999

x *Sylvia Culp*
 HSIRB Chair

If you would like to e-mail me regarding Coalition matters, my e-mail address is as follows:
speters@remc4.k12.mi.us, or you can contact me at 616.777.0053, or you can contact my advisor,
 Dr. Charles Warfield, at 616.387.3890. You may also contact the Chair, Human Subjects Institutional
 Review Board (616.387.8293) or the Vice President for Research (616.387.8298) if questions or problems
 arise during the course of the study. Thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely yours,

Shari A Peters-Kitchen
 Doctoral Student
 Enclosure: Questionnaire

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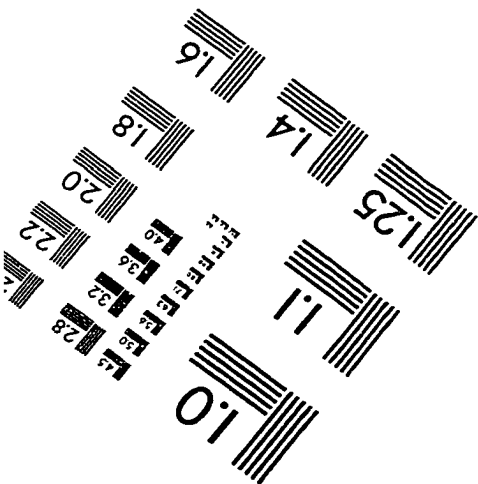
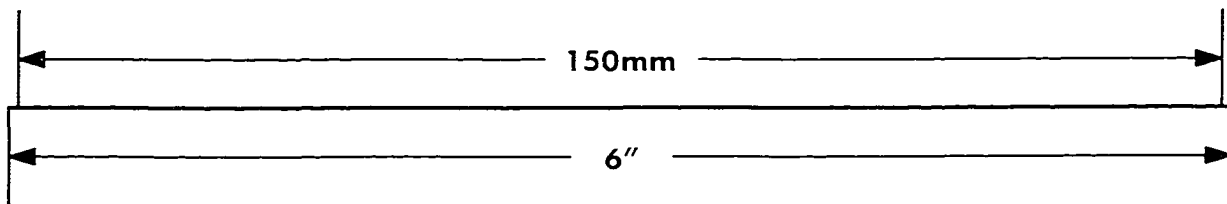
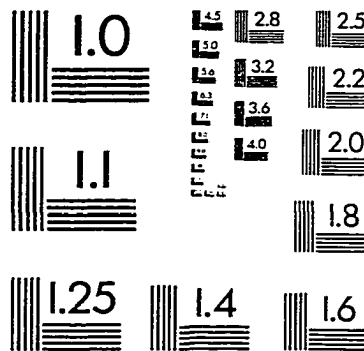
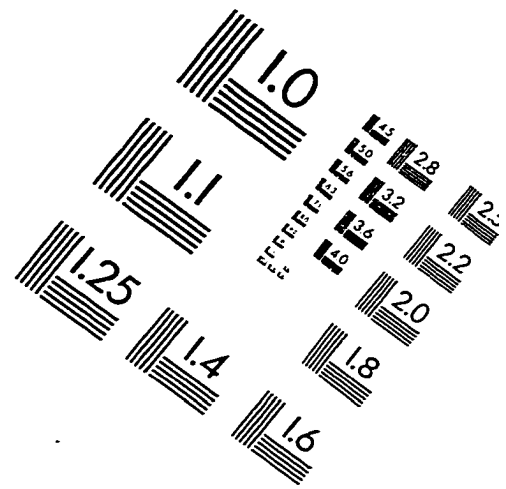
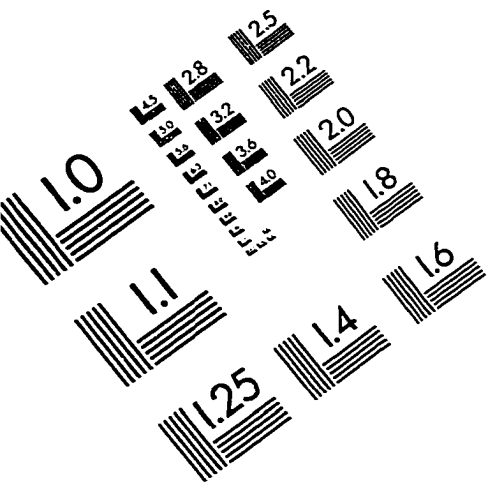
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IMAGE EVALUATION TEST TARGET (QA-3)



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