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Thesis

**The Introduction of the Six-Year Comprehensive School in
ORT Schools in Israel:
Overcoming Problems of Integration**

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Abstract

Changes in the Israeli educational system, since 1968, have led to the conversion of 46% of High Schools to six-year Comprehensive Schools which incorporate two sections, junior-high and high school, each with its own principal.

The research is concerned with the problems of integration faced by these six-year schools from the perceptions of principals, teachers and a selection of pupils. The research deals with three central, conceptual and empirical areas: the arguments for and against integration, the management style of the principal and the school culture.

This research project is in two parts: a survey of all the integrated schools belonging to the ORT Network in Israel, and case studies of three of the integrated six-year schools. There are 70 schools and colleges within the ORT Network, of which 23 are six-year comprehensives. The total number of pupils enrolled in the ORT six-year schools is approximately 30,000.

The research is concerned with the impact of the management and leadership style of the principal on the integration process. Therefore, questions about leadership and management style, derived from a number of theorists (Sergiovanni, 1983, Blake and Mouton, 1985, Bush, 1995) were used to allow the researcher to evaluate the perceived optimal and desirable form of school management for six-year comprehensive schools. The impact of different types of school culture on integration in junior-high schools and high schools is measured through questions based on the Hargreaves (1995) and Friedman (1987) models of school culture. A particular area of school culture is the extent of social interaction amongst teachers, and the interaction of teachers between the two sections of the case study schools. This is measured through a specially adapted tool (Fershtman, 1993), based on social network theory.

Contents

List of figures		IX
List of tables		XI
Acknowledgments		XII
Chapter One	Integration	2
	Background	2
	The ORT Network	2
	The Israeli educational system	4
	The six-year comprehensive school	7
	Difficulties encountered in the six-year school	9
	Does six-year continuity promote successful outcomes in the school	12
	The aims of the research	14
	The research questions	17
	The research approach	17
	Case study schools	18
	The background of the schools	19
Chapter Two	Literature Review	27
	Introduction	27
	Integration	29
	The social and organisational considerations	29
	The advantages of the six-year continuity	31
	Disadvantages of the six-year school	39
	Split-site school	40
	The advantages of independent JHS	43
	Management issues related to integration	46
	Summary of integration	49

Leadership and Management	51
Introduction	51
Leadership	51
Transformational and Transactional	53
Sergiovanni's model of leadership	54
The principal's role	54
Management styles	58
Blake and Mouton's model of management	58
The six management conceptual styles	60
Bureaucratic style of management	60
Collegial style of management	62
Political style of management	64
Subjective style of management	66
Ambiguity style of management	67
Cultural style of management	70
Summary of leadership/management styles	71
 School Culture	73
Introduction	73
Organisational culture	73
School culture	76
Hargreaves' model of school culture	79
Coping with changes	84
School culture according to Friedman	85
The effect of school culture	91
The relationship between achievement and culture	92
Social interaction	94
Social network analysis	96
Summary of issues relating to school culture	98
Summary of the literature review	99

Chapter Three	Methodology	103
	Introduction	103
	Research Paradigms	105
	Research approach	105
	The survey approach	105
	Population and sampling	109
	Case studies approach	112
	Triangulation, reliability and validity	116
	Reliability	117
	Validity	118
	Questionnaires	118
	Piloting of the questionnaire	119
	Distribution and return of the questionnaire	120
	Cohesive group detection in a S.N.	121
	Interviews	123
	Types of interviews	124
	Piloting of the interviews	124
	Ethical issues	125
	The position of insider researcher	127
	Summary of the methodology chapter	128
 Chapter Four	 Findings from the survey	 131
	Introduction	131
	The principals' questionnaire findings	132
	Integration perceived by the principals	132
	Summary of integration as perceived by the principals	139
	Management style perceived by the principals	140
	School culture perceived by the principals	142
	The teachers' questionnaire	145
	Integration perceived by the teachers	145
	Management style as perceived by the teachers	148
	School culture as perceived by the teachers	151

Chapter Five	Findings from the three case studies	154
	Introduction	154
	The findings of the questionnaire	155
	Integration	155
	Interviews with the principals, teachers and pupils regarding integration	162
	Benefits for the school	162
	Six-year continuity	164
	Problems of integration	168
	Educational structure of the school	170
	Separation and transition	173
	Versatility	180
	Management style	183
	The principals' perception	188
	The teachers' perception	189
	School culture	190
	The principals' perception	194
	The teachers' perception	197
	The social interaction findings – sociometric questionnaire	198
	The ORT1 school	199
	The ORT2 school	201
	The ORT3 school	202
Chapter Six	Analysis	205
	Introduction	205
	Integration	205
	The impact on pupils	205
	The effect of change	208
	Benefits for the school	209
	The impact on learning time and atmosphere	211
	The impact on the teachers	213
	Impact on integration	217

	Summary of integration analysis	219
	Management style	225
	Collegial management style	225
	Cultural management style	226
	Ambiguity management style	227
	Bureaucratic management style	229
	Political management style	231
	Subjective management style	232
	Summary of the management style analysis	233
	JHS vs HS	233
	School culture	240
	Social control and cohesion	240
	Shared norms	245
	Social interaction	247
	The ORT1 school	249
	The ORT2 school	250
	The ORT3 school	251
	Summary of the school culture analysis	252
Chapter Seven	Conclusion	255
	The first R.Q	256
	The second R.Q	259
	The third R.Q	260
	The fourth R.Q	261
	Summing up	262
	Recommendation	267
	The final conclusion	268
Bibliography		269
Appendix A	World ORT Union	310

Appendix B	The questionnaire given to the teachers	312
	The questionnaire given to the principals	319
Appendix C	Interview questions	327
Appendix D	Cohesive group, SMI and its algorithm	331

List of figures

1.1	The hierarchical structure of ORT Israel	3
1.2	Structure of the Israeli educational system	4
1.3	Benefits for the school	15
1.4	The impact of management style on integration	15
1.5	The impact of school culture on integration	16
2.1	The Blake and Mouton grid	59
2.2	A typology of school culture	80
3.1	The research methodology flowchart	107
3.2	The 23 ORT comprehensive schools	110
3.3	The three case studies' methodology	113
4.1	Factors perceived by the principals to have an impact on integration	134
4.2	Principals' management style	141
4.3	Factors perceived by the principals relating to school culture	143
4.4	Factors perceived by the teachers as having an impact on integration	146
4.5	Management styles perceived by the teachers	150
4.6	Factors perceived by the teachers relating to school culture	152
5.1	Factors relating to the impact on integration perceived by the three JHSP	155
5.2	Factors relating to the impact on integration perceived by the three HSP	158
5.3	Factors relating to the impact on integration perceived by the three JHST	160
5.4	Factors relating to the impact on integration perceived by the three HST	161
5.5	Management styles perceived by the JHSP	184
5.6	Management styles perceived by the JHST	185
5.7	Management styles perceived by the HSP	186
5.8	Management style perceived by the HST	187
5.9	School culture perceived by the JHST	191
5.10	School culture perceived by the JHSP	192
5.11	School culture perceived by the HST	193
5.12	School culture perceived by the HSP	194
6.1	The difference between the JHSP and HSP regarding management styles	234
6.2	The JHSP and HSP leadership styles	235
6.3	Comparison of the management style between JHSP and JHST	237

6.4	Comparison of the management style between HSP and HST	238
6.5	The position of both schools	242
6.6	The difference between teachers / principals regarding social interaction	248
6.7	The staff room in the ORT1 school	250
6.8	The ORT2 joint staff room	251
6.9	The ORT3 staff room	252
7.1	The model perceived by the teachers	265
7.2	The model perceived by the principals	265
7.3	The model perceived by the pupils – split-site school	266

List of tables

2.1	The advantages and disadvantages of the six-year school	50
2.2	An attempt to find a link between school culture domains and MS	99
4.1	Factors perceived by the principals to have an impact on integration	134
4.2	Principals' management style	141
4.3	Factors perceived by the principals relating to school culture	143
4.4	Factors perceived by the teachers as having an impact on integration	146
4.5	Management styles perceived by the teachers	150
4.6	Factors perceived by the teachers relating to school culture	151
5.1	Factors relating to the impact on integration perceived by the three JHSP	155
5.2	Factors relating to the impact on integration perceived by the three HSP	157
5.3	Factors relating to the impact on integration perceived by the three JHST	159
5.4	Factors relating to the impact on integration perceived by the three HST	161
5.5	The JHSP management styles	183
5.6	Management style perceived by the JHST	185
5.7	Management style perceived by the HSP	186
5.8	Management style perceived by the HST	187
5.9	School culture perceived by the JHST	190
5.10	School culture perceived by the JHSP	191
5.11	School culture perceived by the HST	192
5.12	School culture perceived by the HSP	193
5.13	The ORT1 school – social interaction	199
5.14	The ORT2 school – social interaction	201
5.15	The ORT3 school – social interaction	203
6.1	Factors perceived by the principals and teachers to have most impact on integration	221
6.2a	The advantages of the six-year school perceived by the principals and teachers	222
6.2b	The disadvantages of the six-year school perceived by the principals and teachers	223
7.1	The difference between the three schools	263

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Chapter One: Introduction

Background

Changes in the Israeli educational system from 1968 have converted a proportion of the secondary schools that were four-year high schools, into six-year comprehensive schools. In other words, what were previously regarded as primary schools have joined the campus that once belonged solely to the high schools, grades 10-12. There is no clear legal status for this reform. The change came about through a Knesset decision, which simply embraced the decision of a committee on educational reform (M.O.E. 1987). The Knesset committee offered several models of schools and indeed recommended the six-year comprehensive as the best, but certainly not the only model.

Side by side there now exists in Israel independent three-year junior-high schools, independent three-year high schools and six-year comprehensive schools. The purpose of this research project is to examine the problems of six-year comprehensive schools relating to their integration mainly from the perspective of principals and staff within the six-year ORT network schools. The following describes the Israeli educational system including the ORT network and the six-year school system.

The ORT Network

ORT was founded in St Petersburg in Czarist Russia in 1880 to provide basic trades and agricultural skills. ORT was originally a Russian acronym for *Obshestwo Propostranienia Truda*, meaning The Society for Handicrafts and Agricultural Work. To day ORT stands for "*Organisation for Rehabilitation and Training*". The ORT network extends to more than 50 countries. ORT co-operates with many governmental and International Aid agencies to assist and operate programmes in the developing world. For the past 30 years more than 250 training projects have been successfully implemented in developing nations in all forms of technical and vocational training skills. ORT's aim in these countries is to establish and then hand over a self-sustaining project, which can be operated by a locally trained workforce (see Appendix A for more details).

ORT Israel is operated within the state system and runs its own junior, junior high, comprehensive, technical high schools and colleges, covering an age range of 7 to 18, as

well as offering post-secondary training towards practical engineering degrees and a BSc for technical teachers, within its own Teacher Training Institutes. Close to 100,000 youngsters and adults study in ORT Israel every year. There are 70 schools and colleges within the network, of which, to date, 23 are six-year comprehensives. The total number of pupils enrolled in the six-year schools is approximately 30,000. The number of the network's graduates is approaching half a million, and they can be found in every area of the work force. There is a huge demand for ORT graduates in all technological systems: military, industrial and service.

ORT shares its aims with and receives resources from the Ministry of Education and Culture, the Ministry of Labor and Welfare, the Ministry of Absorption, the Israel Defense Forces (IDF), many industrial enterprises, the Jewish Agency and more.

Figure 1.1 illustrates the hierarchical structure of ORT Israel.

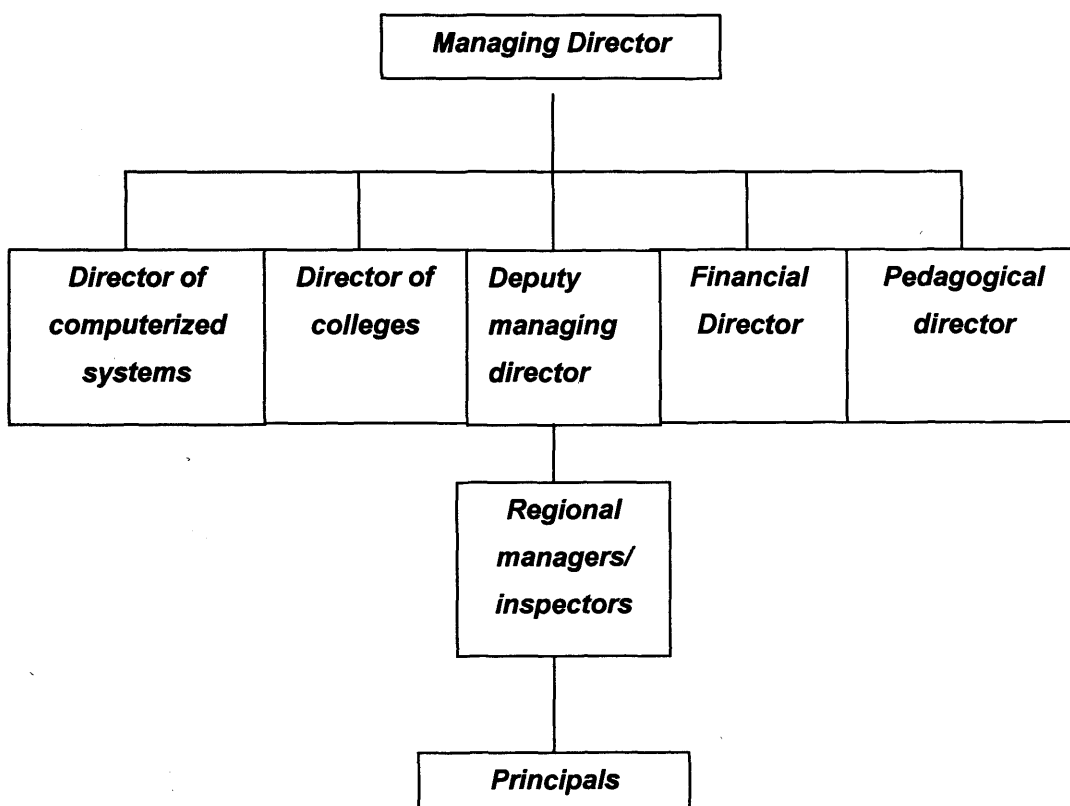


Figure 1.1: The hierarchical structure of ORT

From figure 1.1 it is possible to note that there are five main departments in the ORT network managed by directors and inspectors. The managing director is in charge of the

whole network. The school principals are responsible to the inspectors. Regarding the regional managers it is important to note that the country is divided into four main regions namely North, South, the Coastal Plain and the Centre. Each region has responsibility for the schools in the particular area.

The Israeli educational system

Compulsory education applies to all children between the ages of 5 (formal kindergarten) and 15 (grade 10) inclusive (M.O.E, 1998). In addition, the law provides for free education for adolescents aged 16 and 17, as well as for 18-year-olds who have not completed their schooling in accordance with the curriculum. The educational system consists of three different systems of age groups operating in Israeli secondary schools (Ben Yehuda 1993). The first is the original system whereby students went to primary schools, grades 1-8, and then secondary schools, grades 9-12 (4%). The second is the system of primary schools grades 1-6, independent three-year junior-high schools grades 7-9 (18%), and independent three-year high schools grades 10-12 (32%). The third is the system of primary schools grades 1-6, and six-year comprehensive schools grades 7-12 (46%). Figure 1.2 describes the structure of the education system, from kindergartens to the end of secondary school.

Pre-primary education	Primary education	Original secondary education	Secondary education		Secondary education
Kindergartens (Ages 2-5)	Primary school (Grades 1-8)	High school (Grades 9-12)	Independent Junior-high school (Grades 7-9)	Independent high school (Grades 10-12)	Six-year comprehensive school (Grades 7-12)
334,000	694,000	20,000 (4%)	90,000 (18%)	160,000 (32%)	220,000 (46%)

Figure 1.2: Structure of the educational system, 1999/01. (Source: Ministry of Education Culture and Sport - Central Bureau of Statistics -CBS).

In 1999/01, the total number of pupils enrolled in the education system under the supervision of the Ministry of Education Culture and Sport was approximately 1,518,000, from the pre-primary level to the end of secondary school. The number of pupils enrolled in the six-year system was approximately 220,000. At present this is the overall picture and as far as the researcher of this project can ascertain there are no planned changes in the structure of the six-year schools.

The Israeli education system includes both formal and informal educational frameworks. The formal education system consists of the following main levels: pre-primary, primary, secondary (lower secondary and upper secondary), post-secondary and higher education. The informal education system includes social and youth activities in various educational spheres, and adult education (M.O.E. 1998). Maintenance of official educational institutions, however, is the joint responsibility of the state and the local education authority (Ben Yossef 1994). Parents have the option to choose one of the two recognized educational strands for their children. (M.O.E. 1998, section, p.7, law 1953). They are able to choose between religious state education and secular state education.

According to the law, state education is to be based on the values of Israel's culture, the achievements of science, love of the homeland, loyalty to the State and people of Israel, remembrance of the Holocaust and heroism, practice in agriculture work and handicrafts, pioneer (Halutz) training, and on building a society based on the foundations of freedom, equality, tolerance, mutual assistance, and love of mankind. Important additions to the original version of the law 1949 (M.O.E. 1998), include a prohibition against discrimination on the grounds of ethnic origin, a prohibition against discrimination in acceptance, placement, and advancement of pupils, as well as a prohibition against punishing pupils for actions or omissions on the part of their parents.

According to the Ministry of Education (M.O.E 1987), one of the main goals, which the Israeli educational system has set for itself, is bridging the gap between its social subgroups. One of the main means for attaining this goal is through the integrative six-year comprehensive school, implemented originally through the 1968 educational reform. The first goal of the reform was the social integration of various sectors of society. The second goal was to reach a higher level of scholastic achievement, and the third was to reduce the drop out rate. The six-year framework has resulted in a situation whereby each

local authority has divided all the children in the area, on a random basis, into a variety of schools within the authority. This is contrary to the past situation whereby the pupils were able to make their own choice of school. In the six-year framework there is no bearing on place of residence or academic achievement (Minkovitch 1987). The weak pupils, as well as pupils from various socio-economic groups remain in the same six-year system, together with the academically strong pupils. It is also the Ministry of Education's assumption that with the creation of a six-year framework, the integration of pupils from different backgrounds will lessen the social gap. In the majority of educational authorities in Israel the trend is for the junior-high school to be integrated, with no choice available regarding the school to be attended. However, at the point of entering the high school the pupils are able to select the required school.

This research project is concerned with looking at the problems of the integration of the six-year schools within the ORT educational network. In Israel there are two further educational networks of high school education i.e. the Amal and Amit networks. Both of these are smaller in size than the ORT network. In both networks there are six-year schools, which make up a small percentage of the secondary school education. In the Amal network there are four six-year schools out of 40 high schools (10%). In the Amit network there are three six-year schools out of 20 high schools (15%). On the other hand, in the ORT network there are 23 six-year schools out of a total of 70 high schools (33%). Due to the fact that the ORT network is the largest educational sector in Israel, the M.O.E. consults and involves ORT with regard to pedagogical debates and committees. These committees are in fact a basis for the M.O.E. policy decisions. For example, the subjects taught which are later examined at matriculation, as well as the standard of that particular subject, the number of hours per week a subject is taught, and the educational methods used to teach the pupils. Implementation of these particular decisions is reflected in the majority of ORT schools. The conclusions reached after implementation play an important part in deciding final M.O.E. policy. Any change of policy needs the agreement of ORT representation.

The six-year comprehensive school

The six-year comprehensive school, as opposed to the four-year high school (without a junior-high), is now considered to be the preferred form of school for ORT schools and others, but still consisting of two sections; junior-high and high school. The central committee responsible established a set of priorities for implementation (M.O.E.1970). From 1968 there have been various periods of activity designed to implement the change to six-year comprehensive schools.

The three aims of the 1968 reform namely social integration, scholastic achievement and reducing the drop out rate were perceived to be viable through the forming of a six-year comprehensive school (M.O.E. 1977 section 7). Between 1968 – 1971, the implementation of the change to six-year high schools was put into operation with great speed and efficiency. From 1971 up to the present day there has been a reduced level of implementation, and in the 1990's, only 46 per cent of all 7th – 9th grade pupils had been formed into a junior-high, with a policy of continuation into the high school and thereby forming a six-year comprehensive. (M.O.E, 1997). The recommendation to provide a six-year comprehensive school as a high priority, has not been fully implemented. However, this process is still continuing in certain educational authorities, particularly in the north and south of the country. The centre of the country has essentially been involved in providing six-year comprehensive schools. Here, this process has now been more or less finalized.

One of the main factors that influence dropping out is the transition between different educational frameworks. These problematic transitions are the transition from primary schools to junior-high school, the transition from junior-high school to high school within the six-year system, as well as the transition between classes in the high school. The Ministry is investing considerable effort in reducing these problems (M.O.E. 1998). The policy of the Ministry of Education is to prevent dropping out and to raise the percentage of those attending school. The stated objective is that every boy and girl, apart from exceptional cases, should complete 12 full years of schooling. Educators should be personally committed to each pupil, to assist and encourage him or her to continue their studies through grade 12 and to work to the best of their

ability. In this respect, there is no difference between studies at the compulsory education level (through grade 10), or studies beyond that (grades 11-12). Obviously, since schooling is not compulsory over age 16, pupils in grades 11 and 12 cannot be forced to complete their studies, but the schools are obliged by the policy of the Ministry of Education to enable them to study and to encourage them to continue their schooling (M.O.E. 1998). Schools are required to prevent those practices whereby the school itself initiates the removal of unwanted pupils. Instead, the schools should try to increase the pupils' endeavours in their studies and prevent them from dropping out. In cases where placement in an alternative educational framework would benefit the pupil, the school should assist him or her in finding the most suitable framework. (Chen and Eddy, 1993).

The high school as part of the six-year comprehensive school

One of the aims of the educational reform of 1968 was to promote democracy and equality within the high school system, through greater integration. The original assumption was that the six-year comprehensive school would be more successful in promoting the educational needs and demands of a changing population. These needs included those of heterogeneous groups of students made up of pupils with various academic abilities, ethnic backgrounds, and socio-economic status (Schmidah, 1987). According to Schmidah (1987), the original assumption was based on the need to remove the selection process as a pre-requisite to enter high school, and the desire to promote a varied curriculum, as well as the desire to remove any form of separation amongst pupils and to allow full social integration.

Before the amalgamation of the junior-high school and the high school into a six-year comprehensive, the four-year high school operated a system of selection and the transition from the primary school, or junior-high grades 1-8, to the four-year high school, grades 9-12, caused many pupils to feel insecure and experience a state of cultural inadequacy. The four-year high school accepted pupils from grades 9 - 12, whereas in the six-year comprehensive school there is a sub division of grades 7 - 9 in the junior-high section and grades 10 - 12 in the high school. The old four-year high school, as opposed to the six-year comprehensive school demands high academic achievement in its matriculation results which creates difficulties for certain pupils who are unable to maintain constant academic pressure. The same difficulties apply to the four-year

technological high school where some pupils are again unable to maintain constant academic achievement until the 12th Grade. This is particularly so in regard to those students whose original motivation to study technological subjects, was extremely low and who assumed they would not to be able to continue until the 12th Grade.

Regarding the role of teacher as a professional individual there needs to be mobility and the opportunity for promotion in order to enhance self-image. (Magamot, 1977). High school teachers specialize in at least one major subject. Motivation to develop and improve the teacher's skills, knowledge and teaching within the classroom, are linked to various methods and approaches towards teaching as well as having a cross section of ages and abilities. There are benefits in teaching from the 7th Grade up till the 12th Grade, but there are also special problems and concerns that have to be dealt with. A teacher is able to view the curriculum and the learning processes as " a whole " when there is continuity. This also provides motivation as the various aims of each year group are placed within the overall picture. (M.O.E. 1997).

Difficulties encountered in the six-year comprehensives

Amongst many individual authorities there is a growing tendency to separate the junior-high school from the high school, even when it is within the six-year comprehensive. Occasionally, this is done by geographic separation where there is a split-site. Sometimes, this separation is emphasised by allocating job responsibility according to the various positions available e.g. high school principal or junior-high school principal, head of year group or head of department.

The Ministry of Education notes that in certain cities in Israel where six-year comprehensives exist, there has been a problem regarding the areas of responsibility of the junior-high school principal and the high school principal. One example illustrates some of the difficulties as a result of the high school principal having total financial control of both the junior-high school and the high school. As a result of these difficulties, discussions took place in the local education authority and Ministry of Education (Ministry of Education Committee, 1997). It was decided that a large portion of the budget would be allocated to the two schools in an independent manner whereby each school principal would control his/her budget. This also applied to extra-curricular activities whereby the individual school head teachers decide on the relevant programme.

The junior-high school and high school could have an element of freedom and autonomy in the appointment of teachers to specialist positions such as heads of year, heads of department, and dealing with discipline problems (Cashty 2000). In fact, in the case mentioned above, the two schools operate on an individual and independent basis, although they are technically one school.

Another point which relates to the difficulties encountered in the six-year school is the size of the school. One of the main influences on the six-year comprehensive school, is the number of pupils to be admitted to such a school. However, there is no conclusive research, which indicates the ideal size for a six-year comprehensive (Barker, 1984). According to Schmidah (1991), the advocates of a smaller school maintain that the potential for inter-personal relationships increases between principal, teachers and students, within such a school (Bennet 1993, Metz 1991, MacGilchrist 1995). In a smaller school, the pupils are far more satisfied with the general atmosphere, as opposed to a larger school, where they feel they are anonymous (Friedman 1997, Sharan 1997, Kels 1989). A smaller school requires less administration, as well as producing fewer discipline problems (Alexander 1992).

On the other hand, supporters of a larger school maintain that it is possible to invest greater human and financial resources in such an establishment (Brown 1994, Busher and Whitehouse 1990). A larger school is able to offer a wide and varied curriculum (Autolony 1997, Ben-Peretz 1995). A larger school has the means to provide better facilities and equipment (Bar-Oz 1997). Supporters of the larger school maintain that in order to provide a more secure and intimate atmosphere, it is possible to divide the school into separate units (Friedman 1993). This can take the form of providing separate buildings for each year group, with each year group having its own head of year. In addition, there is a junior-high head, as well as a high-school head. In this system, the head teacher of the whole school who is a third individual has an oversight of both. An aspiration of the larger school is that both aims may be achieved by providing better facilities and resources, as well as allowing for personal and individual treatment and pastoral care (Conant, 1995). Generally it may be that school size is not the major factor in realising a pupil's academic achievement level. What is important is how effective the school is as an institution and the standard of management maintained (Fogelman 1999).

The concept of the structure of the high school is based on political and ideological foundations, which have a wide educational bearing on the system. The 1968 Knesset decision was to allow all children in Israel to achieve free education in an integrated school framework. Many of the aims of the initial proposal have not been fully put into practice (Schmidah, 1991). One result of not implementing integration to the full could be the revival of elitist and selective factors within the high school system. Despite the fact that implementation of the six-year comprehensive school has slowed down, it is still an on going process.

Regarding the implementation of the aims of the reform to six-year schools, a new paradoxical situation has arisen out of the 1968 educational reform. Within the six-year system, the junior-high has tended to implement the first aim of the reform, the integration of different social groups into heterogeneous classes. On the other hand, the high school has started to put into operation the second aim of the educational reform, which is the advance and improvement of pedagogical matters with emphasis on high levels of learning achievement (Padli and Oring, 1977). This polarization in fact has a negative effect on the Knesset's decision. In reality each school has tended to only implement one objective and subsequently ignored the other. The junior-high school has religiously operated a policy of integration and heterogeneous classes, where as in the high school this policy has generally been ignored. (M.O.E. 1997). The junior-high school has tended to create a very positive and friendly environment, whereas the high school may base its ethos on high academic standards and achievement, which ignores social activity within the school (Rimler 1981, Mevarech 1984). This situation can be likened to the model presented by Hargreaves' (1995) explanation of the domain of school life, termed social control versus social cohesion, where social control is dominant in the high school and social cohesion in the junior-high.

Another point to be noted is the relationship between the junior-high school teachers and the high school teachers. In many instances it appears that there is no cooperation between teachers in the two sections (junior and high school), especially in pedagogical and social matters (Rush and Adler 1980). Most of the junior-high teachers come from primary schools, usually unqualified to deal with the junior-high school and high school pupils, especially concerning dominant behavioral and cultural codes, therefore potentially causing many difficulties both pedagogically and socially (Adler and Levy

1978). In many cases, the teacher takes on the role of "parent" within the school system. This role of "parent" does not usually exist in the same way in the high school (Gordon 1997, Manning 1993).

An additional difficulty of the six-year framework in certain schools, is that some elements of the present school curriculum are divided into two parts. There is one curriculum for the junior-high school and one for the high school. There is no link and continuity between the two curriculums. This is due to the fact that in these particular schools the subject coordinator in the junior-high school is not the same as in the high school. There may be very little contact between the two coordinators (Beheri 1997). In these particular six-year schools the teachers are separated into groups, with each group only having contact with teachers in a specific staff room. In other words, the teachers remain in a particular part of the school and do not go into other parts of the school apart from end of term pedagogical meetings (Davis 1979).

An additional difficulty with the operation of the six-year framework may be found in differing management styles of the junior-high school principal and the high school principal (Chen, Shiloah and Kfir 1981, Nesher 1994). One of the reasons that this research is being carried out is that the researcher of this project was constantly reminded of the differences between the management styles. This causes dissension and disagreement both between the two principals, as well as amongst members of staff of the two sections. This in turn has implications for integration.

A further difficulty that came to light within the six-year framework is the difference in the school culture between the two sections. Generally there appears to be a pupil centred approach in the junior-high school (Maw 1977), whilst in the high school the emphasis tends to be on academic achievement, as opposed to the social needs of the pupil (Yellin 1997).

Does six-year continuity promote successful outcomes in the school?

The most common definition of a school's success is related to the academic achievement of the pupils (Pasternack and Goldring 1991). The achievements are in fact varied and based on a consensus of the basic skills i.e. reading, writing and arithmetic, as well as cognitive skills (Glasman and Biniaminov, 1981). The main role of the school is

to provide basic education, as well as social and ideological education. One aim is to improve the achievement of weaker children and allow them to become socially and educationally mobile. However, a school's success is not only defined by academic achievement. Reynolds (1976) evaluated the following factors: regular attendance of pupils prevents dropping-out; the number of pupils able to move on to higher education and prevention of juvenile delinquency. Being successful really means the achievement of stated aims and if the aim of a school, or of an educational policy, is to promote the integration of pupils and reduce the dropping out rate, then the achievement of these targets could be considered a success.

The six-year schools were intended to enhance success both in terms of academic results and in terms of integration and lessening dropping-out. The aim was also to provide an easy transitional process when pupils go from junior-high to high school without any major crisis arising from the transition. In the high school there are some aspects that have more potential for exploration and development when they are initiated in the junior-high and then implemented in the high school. In the junior-high school, technology is taught at a general level but with a certain amount of practical experience. When these pupils come to the high school they are already experienced enough to build more complex structures or circuits. Yosifon (1997) claims that these aspects are linked together rather like a form of kaleidoscope. The developmental effect of one aspect may be directly related to the development of additional aspects within the institution (Yosifon, 1997, Adler and Levy 1978). Another potential advantage is that of the organisation and structure of the six-year system. Curriculum planning development can incorporate overall conformity of learning approaches and methods, e.g. the number of study periods per week which emphasize language and communication skills within the junior high and implementation of these skills within research projects in the high school (M.O.E. 1997, Rimler 1981, Yassur and Barrack 1984).

Reduction of the number of teaching staff who have contact with the students over a six-year period is beneficial to both teacher and pupil. It is therefore desirable that teachers teach both in the junior high and the high school (Degani 1997). There may be an emphasis on inter-disciplinary subjects, or on subjects that have not been integrated into the system up till the present. Also, the basic approach to the learning process must be reviewed at the beginning of each year, in order to give the pupil the opportunity to

implement what has been taught. (Megamot, 1997, Ben-Yossef, 1994). Consolidation of the organisational structure within the system, especially of heads of departments, management members, pedagogical heads, the structure of the class and learning environment still need to be considered (M.O.E. 1997). Consolidation of teacher working teams from both the junior-high and the high school is an important element within the six-year comprehensive.

The aims of the research

Having reviewed some of the background factors affecting integration, it is obvious that there are potential problems to overcome. This research project is a result of the researcher's involvement in the transition from a four-year technical high school to a six-year comprehensive school. The researcher is both a member of the management team and responsible for the computerized system in eight ORT schools. It was possible to see from first hand experience that the transition resulted in a large number of problems.

These difficulties have been in the areas of staff relationships, including relationships between the two teams from the different sections, the relationship between the two principals, different management styles of the two principals and a resulting change in the school culture. There have also been conflicts of interests between the two sections, e.g. allocation of equipment to the high school, which the junior-high school expected to receive, the junior-high school teachers feel that they are represented by the Ministry Of Education rather than being an integral part of the ORT network. Regarding work ethos the junior-high team felt inferior to the high school teachers. The number of teaching hours allocated to the two sections of the school as well as different educational approaches between the two sections generally relating to social cohesion (Hargreaves 1995) in the junior-high school, as opposed to academic achievement in the high school (Robbins 1997, Aderet 1982).

The purpose of this research is to examine the problems of integration of the six-year ORT comprehensive schools mainly from the perspective of principals and staff. The results of this research will be circulated within the organisation with the aim of alleviating the complex problems within the six-year comprehensive schools. Through case studies and a survey, it is intended to examine the perceptions of principals and

teachers regarding the impact of the integration on the benefits for the school; the impact of management style on the process of integration; and the impact of school culture on integration. The case studies will also examine the principals and teachers perception of one aspect of culture, the impact of social interaction between teacher teams on the process of integration.

Figures 1.3, 1.4 and 1.5 show the aims of the research as mentioned above.

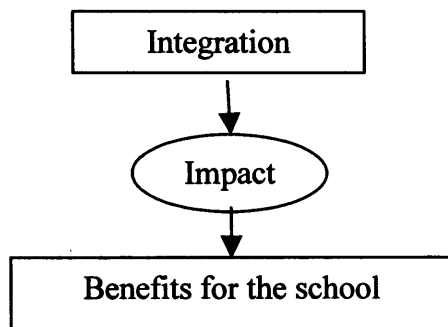


Figure 1.3: Benefits for the school

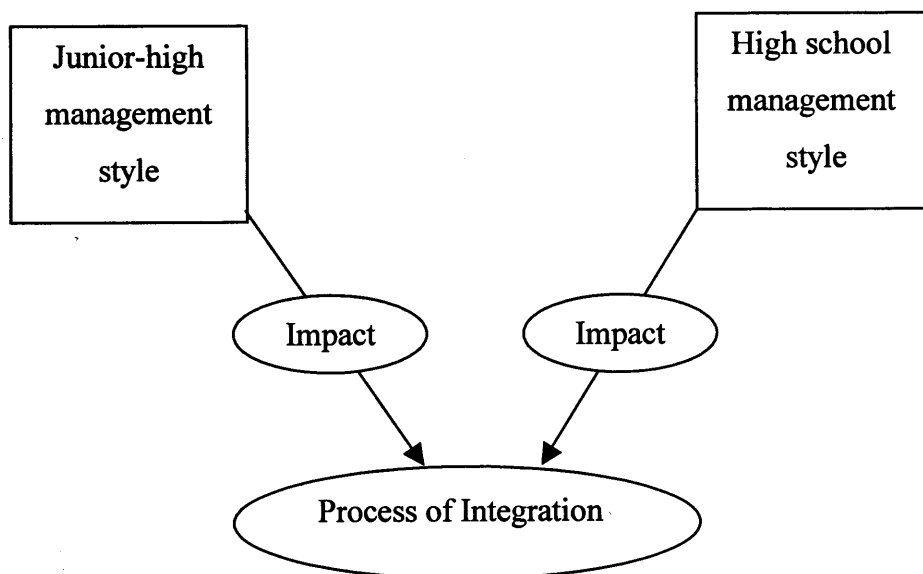


Figure 1.4: The impact of management style on integration

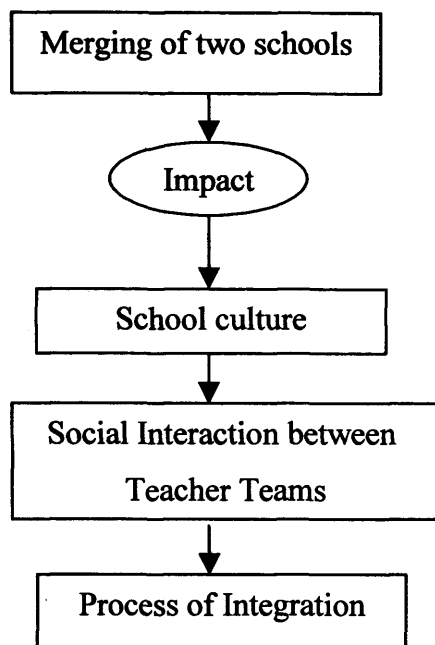


Figure 1.5: The impact of school culture on integration

Figure 1.3 presents the first aim of the research project which is examining the principals and teachers' perceptions regarding the benefits of integration to the six-year school. Figure 1.4 presents the second aim of the research project which is examining the impact of management style on integration. Figure 1.5 presents the third and fourth aims of the research project which are the impact of school culture on integration, as well as the impact of social interaction on integration. In order to achieve the above aims, questionnaires and three case studies were used in the research. Permission was obtained from the managing director of the ORT network, as well as access to the 23 six-year comprehensive schools. As a result of professional service training, which the researcher of this project was taking in management, within the ORT network, establishing contact with the principals was facilitated. The in-service training course at ORT is intended for senior schoolteachers who have been selected as future principals. The author of this research was chosen to take part in the in-service training. One of the conditions for being chosen to take part in the course was belonging to the management team of a school either being a head of year, or deputy. Also, it was necessary to receive a letter of recommendation from the individual's principal. The candidates had to have a second-degree qualification and a further selection process was that of personal interviews. The contacts developed with other senior teachers attending the course in the ORT network,

made it possible to prepare background question material for the research questionnaire with the assistance of these teachers.

The senior teachers are taught how to map out and relate to the socio-political community surroundings of their school, as well as understanding the internal hierarchical workings of their school. The course is based on two years of intensive workshops, which take place once a week. The participants learn how to utilize the school's organisational structure and school-based curriculum (Gibton, 2000). As a result of attending the course, the researcher of this project was able to come in contact with a large number of professionals who could provide background information regarding integration, management style and school culture within the six-year system. The research project focuses on these three areas.

The Research questions

- 1. Do principals and teachers of ORT six-year schools perceive that integration has brought benefits to the school? If so, what factors are perceived to have most impact on integration?*
- 2. What are the principals and teachers' perception of the management styles and the impact of these styles on the process of integration?*
- 3. What do the principals and teachers perceive as the impact of school culture on integration?*
- 4. What are the principals and teachers' perceptions of the impact of social interaction between teacher teams on the integration process?*

In this research, the merging of two schools is likely to reflect the impact of school culture on integration. School culture is likely to be related to the management style of the school and its structure of social interaction amongst the teachers.

The Research Approach

The research will be conducted in ORT network schools, which comprises 70 secondary schools although only 23 of them are six-year comprehensive schools. In this research, it is intended to evaluate the impact of the imposed change on the 23 six-year

comprehensive schools through the use of questionnaires and interviews. The research will be done in two separate ways. The first will be by taking all 23 comprehensive schools and using separate questionnaires for teachers and principals. The second method of research will be carrying out case studies in three comprehensive schools using questionnaires and interviews. The three particular schools, which were chosen for the case studies, constitute a purposive sample (Nachmias 1996) as they exhibit different styles of management on the part of principals. In the case studies, the management style of the principals will be investigated against the background of the impact of imposed change on the culture of the schools (Friedman 1993). The management style and the social interaction between the teacher teams, will be measured by means of an interview including a questionnaire, which will be given to the teachers and the principals. The teachers will be selected by their subject and their experience in the educational system. Three selected teachers from the junior-high school and three teachers from each high school section will be interviewed (eighteen teachers in all). The impact of school culture and the management style of the principal on the integration process will be investigated through interviews and questionnaires given to members of staff. In the investigation of the culture of the three schools, social interaction between teachers will be measured through the case studies and by sociometric questionnaires which will be given to 20 teachers from both sections.

Case study schools

The research will take place through case studies in three six-year comprehensive schools chosen through purposive and convenience sampling (Robson 1993, Nachmias 1996). The purposive nature of sampling relates to the culture of the school, whereby in one of these schools, a very good relationship exists between both principals. In the second school, the relationship is not good and in the third, a positive relationship is developing. The type of sampling could also be termed convenience sampling as they are personally known to the researcher and are geographically close together. The grouping together of the three schools near Tel-Aviv may bring about some particular outcome that might not have been experienced if the schools had been in different areas of the country. Different areas of the country are likely to bring other problems because of the varying socioeconomic background of particular populations.

The Background of the Schools

To give an indication of the range of styles and potential difficulties in the merging of the two schools, the following shows the background of the case study schools mentioned in this research.

ORT1 School (merged 1996)

ORT1 school is located in the industrial area, north of Tel-Aviv. It is a junior high school and a secondary technological school, which offers a variety of subjects such as Electronics, Computers, Tourism and Biology. The school is divided into two sections; one new section belongs to the junior-high school, grades 7-9, and the second old section belongs to the high school, grades 10-12. The secondary school has a staff of 50 teachers who hold academic degrees in science, technology and education. The staff has been working together for many years (10 - 30 years), under the auspices of the ORT Organisation.

The new section - junior-high school, joined the secondary school 4 years ago (in 1996), with a new team of 30 teachers who came from different mainstream primary schools. Some of the new teachers in the junior-high school team were forced to join the secondary school and some of them wanted to join. All the junior-high teachers were previously working under the auspices of the Ministry of Education, (not under ORT). The new principal of the junior-high school came from outside the secondary school and was appointed by the previous principal of the secondary school at the time of merging. Her teaching experience is connected to a different high school in ORT1, where she taught Geography from grades 7-9. She decided to apply for a new post as head of the junior-high school at ORT1. Her only experience in management had been the undertaking of a two-year course, through Tel-Aviv University. She successfully passed the course and was later appointed to the position of junior-high school principal. Before being accepted to the position, she was unfamiliar with the ORT network as well as the specific work ethos demands of such a large organisation. In the first year of her employment she worked in the capacity of 9th grade Geography teacher and not as principal, due to the decision to postpone the opening of the junior-high school for a year. This was due to an internal ORT management organisation decision. She began her management position as junior-high school principal during the second year of her service. She began managing a junior-high school, which was developing and enlarging

from year to year. She was in close working contact with the new teachers, who had come with the specific aim of joining a new team. From the start of her work as principal, her professional aims were to work independently without the interference of the high school principal.

The present principal of the high school was selected from the secondary school three years ago, by the previous principal. The high school principal was appointed without any previous management experience or the usual qualifications to be a high school principal. He was unexpectedly appointed by ORT's managing director. He had been a literature teacher in ORT1 for twenty-five years, without having held any previous management positions apart from being head of the teachers' social committee. An additional candidate with suitable qualifications who had applied for the post, was not chosen for this position. The decision not to accept the second, apparently more suitable candidate, was never clearly understood. The high school principal who was chosen received a lot of support and encouragement from members of the existing teaching staff. This applies to the present day.

The six-year comprehensive school includes:

- 1600 students - all of them come from the city of Netanya.
- Departments - Electronics (30%), Computers (15%), Mechanics (10%), Tourism (10%), Physics (10%), Biology (10%), Literature (15%). (The % refers to the number of students in the department out of 1600 students).
- 80 teachers - 5 (PhD), 10 (MA), 50 (BA), 15 (certified teachers).
- 25 administrative workers.

The above gives a general description of the school and its departments, as well as staff. Today, there appear to be many intergroup problems within the two teams, including different ways in which the two teams work, tension between the two principals and the two teams, different types of control and formal authority between the two sections - ORT and Ministry of Education. Therefore, a decision was made by the managing director of the ORT-Network, to improve the relationship between the principals and the staff by the involvement of an outside advisor who could develop a better relationship for the improvement of the school's functioning. This outside advisor is a member of the

educational counselling team belonging to the ORT Network. The purpose of this advisor is to promote dialogue between the teachers of the two sections, with special emphasis placed on heads of departments. If there is a positive working relationship between the two sections, it is hoped that this will enhance the effective functioning of the school.

The ORT2 School (merged 1996)

The school was established fourteen years ago, of which ten years were as a high school and the last four, as a six-year comprehensive school. This means that in 1996 the junior-high school amalgamated with the high school. The school is located near the city of Netanya. Today, the school consists of 1,500 students in 44 heterogeneous classes. Of that number 10 per-cent are new immigrants mostly from Ethiopia and the former Soviet Union. As a result of the policy of heterogeneous classes, certain pupils have difficulty in the academic sphere. There are, however, other pupils who participate in special projects for accelerated learning and studying. Most of the pupils come from the south of Netanya, which has two different socio-economic groups – high and low, with very little in the middle.

In the present academic year there is a different policy of registration in the city of Netanya, so those pupils from a high socio-economic group are able to choose their high school and therefore do not wish to come to ORT2. At the time when ORT2 was a four-year high school, before the amalgamation, it was possible to choose various subjects and areas of study with a wide range of topics. It was possible to study art, music, graphics, technology and science as well as the regular school subjects. The school was therefore considered a comprehensive school. Today, after three years, other departments have been developed such as biotechnology, social science, business management, sociology, psychology, economics and media studies.

The junior-high school joined the high school in a state of development as well as during its physical and academic growth, so that each year new buildings and staff were added to the existing physical and academic structure. The junior-high team of teachers came from the primary schools and in fact only its academically qualified teachers were able to continue in the junior-high school. The staff was chosen from five different primary schools so that there was a balance of numbers of teachers from the different schools. The

junior-high school was established on the basis of social integration as well as teachers' experience in order to enhance the academic standards of the students. From its inauguration the school was concerned with the professionalism of its staff in order to provide a stable environment and to minimise potential problems amongst the students, in the transition from the junior-high school to the high school. Members of staff were allocated teaching hours both in the junior-high and the high school. Resistance came from established members of staff in the high school, who were responsible for preparing students for the Matriculation exam and were not interested in teaching in the junior-high.

However, after a lengthy period of persuasion these teachers agreed to this change, as it was part of the six-year continuity. The heads of departments were the first teachers who went over to teach in the junior-high school. After this initial move, teachers of all subjects made the transition. The ninth grade students were the first to be taught by the high school teachers. At first, there was opposition from the seventh and eighth grade teachers but they were persuaded that the following years there would be a progressive increase in the year group taught. Those teachers who previously taught in the seventh grade would teach in the eighth, those teachers who previously taught in the eighth would teach in the ninth etc. In service training courses were held for teachers in order to study methods of approach and pedagogy regarding the age group the staff was unfamiliar with. Those members of staff who were unwilling to teach in the junior-high school had their teaching hours reduced as a result of their inflexibility.

Due to the fact that two professional bodies were involved in the financial development as well as inspection within the school, a situation was created where many professional and personal problems arose amongst the staff. A lot of effort was put into convincing both sets of staff of the value of the transition and the six-year continuity. High school heads of departments became responsible for the curriculum of both schools, which led to the development of a six-year curriculum and co-operation between both sections. As a result of this positive co-operation, animosity between the two groups was much reduced. The junior-high principal joined the school with a strong background in academic subjects but lacking knowledge and exposure to technological areas of the curriculum. Her lack of experience and knowledge of the ORT network was also apparent. In order to facilitate the new junior-high school principal in co-operating with the high school principal, job descriptions were clearly defined and were accepted by the principal. The

junior-high principal was used to being responsible for all areas of school management. However, over a period of time, it was understood that she had to relinquish some of the control she held as well as to co-operate with the high school principal. The junior-high principal resigned from the school after three years of co-operation between the junior-high principal and the high school principal as well as the development and establishment of a six-year comprehensive. Consequently it was necessary to appoint a new junior-high school principal. The junior-high school principal's resignation coincided with the Ministry of Education's chief inspector's resignation and a change of education staff at the Netanya municipality. As a result of the above changes, all administrative work within the junior-high school was done by the high school principal.

On the 1st of September 1999 a new junior-high principal was appointed and began working. The high school principal continued the running of both schools, until the junior-high principal was able to take over and initiate changes. This integration process was undertaken with the support of the high school principal. Today, the six-year comprehensive school includes:

- 1500 students – all of them come from the city of Netanya.
- Departments – Art and Literature (20%), Science and Technology (25%), Music (10%), Graphics (5%), Biotechnology (10%), Social science (5%), Sociology (5%), Psychology (5%), Business Management (5%), Economics (5%), Media Studies (5%).
- 70 teachers – 5 (PhD), 25 (M.A), 40 (B.A).
- 20 administrative workers.

ORT3 School (merged in 1990)

Thirty years ago, ORT3 (south of Tel-Aviv), consisted of two classes of 9th grade, and a secondary school. The secondary school had five technological departments, which consisted of two Electronics classes, two Mechanics classes and one Automechanics class. Only two classes took their Matriculation exams. The rest which were 9th grade classes, took final exams. The 9th grade classes were an integral part of the school and there was no division between the teachers and the teachers' staff room. Most of the students arrived from the nearby settlements, and a few of them from the Rehovot area, south of Tel-Aviv. (Two 9th grade classes).

Fifteen years ago a junior-high school was built, called ORT Barzilai. The students' parents complained that ORT is a vocational school and they refused to send their children to a junior-high school that was a continuation of the primary school. It was decided that other schools in the city of Rehovot would be junior-high and high schools with an open registration system. ORT3 would sign up all the students for vocational education. In actual fact, pupils who didn't get into other schools applied to ORT3. The school's image was greatly altered to that of a school where few pupils wanted to go. The decision was made not to separate the junior high school and the secondary school. As a result, only the 12th grade pupils studied in ORT Barzilai and the rest, 7th-11th grade, studied in a building five minutes walk away, with the staff trying to commute between the two buildings. This resulted in time-tabling difficulties.

Ten years ago, a new school was built next to the Barzilai building and two separate units were formed on the same site. In one block, the junior-high school students studied whilst in the new building the rest of the pupils studied. The new building was where high school students learnt, whereas at the old Barzilai buildings were college students. Three staff rooms for teachers were formed. A junior-high school, a secondary school and a college. Some of the college members of staff were involved in the comprehensive school by teaching in the high school, (we are not dealing with the college in this research project). The time-tables were also separated and the junior-high school received new teachers. The 7th till 8th grade classes have to be under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education. It is very difficult to have social relations with the teachers from both schools, due to the number of teachers who do not know one another and there is a difference between the ages and the different range of interests.

According to school policy, social contact was forced upon the staff from both blocks, which included parties, outings etc. Once again the division between the two groups of teachers was very noticeable with very little contact during these social gatherings. There is hostility between the two groups and sometimes the teachers from the junior-high school, feel frustrated. They are under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education and the support from the municipality and the Ministry of Education is less forthcoming than at the ORT3 secondary school (belonging to ORT Israel).

The six-year comprehensive school includes:

- 1,200 students - 58 percent of them come from the city of Rehovot and the rest come from the periphery.
- Departments - the Geography of Israel studies (8%), Science and Technology (9%), Electronics (28%), Computers (8%), Mechanics (27%), Architecture (20%).
- 70 teachers - 6 (PhD), 14 (MA), 25 (BA), 25 (certified teachers).
- 26 administrative workers.

The teachers parking area at the junior high school is not paved and in the winter there are puddles. The teachers are forced to park in the puddles where at the high school and college the parking space for teachers is organized, paved and supervised by a guard. This adds discomfort and creates an atmosphere of tension.

Decisions about reducing junior-high school classroom hours led to cutting the number of high school classrooms. This has resulted in parents being able to choose which junior high school they wish to send their children to. As a result of this policy, ORT3 is not a popular choice especially with the competition from established, academic schools in the area. Undoubtedly this leads to certain schools having maximum attendance, whereas others have to reduce classes. It appears that the high school's damaged, old equipment is passed down to the junior high school, which frustrates the teachers even more. The six-year comprehensive school is not operating on positive lines and there is a lot of dissension between the two schools.

The description of the above three schools shows that ORT1 is in the process of developing a better relationship between the principals, as well as between the members of staff. The ORT2 School shows the existence of a good relationship between both high schools, as well as amongst the staff. In contrast to the above two schools, the situation at the ORT3 school shows a breakdown of relationships.

The challenges faced by all six-year comprehensive schools are the problems dealing with integration which in turn relates to lowering the drop out rate, social integration – which involves integrating pupils from different socio-economic backgrounds and

academic achievement which means a higher rate of matriculation passes, as well as co-operation between the junior-high school and high school principals together with their members of staff.

The next chapter deals with the literature review regarding integration, management style and school culture. The chapter discusses the arguments for and against integration as well as the integration factors which have the most impact on integration. A number of theories based on leadership and management style (Sergiovanni 1983, Blake and Mouton 1985, Bush 1995) are discussed in order to evaluate the perceived optimal and desirable form of school management for six-year comprehensive schools. School culture is discussed through the Hargreaves (1995) model of school culture, as well as that of Friedman (1987). A particular area of school culture is the extent of social interaction, based on social network theory (Fershtman 1993).

Chapter Two: Literature Review

Introduction

The aims of this research project are under-pinned by three central, conceptual and empirical areas related to the research questions, which were presented in the introductory chapter. The literature review chapter will consider the three central conceptual areas and associated empirical findings from Israel, UK and USA. They were chosen as being relevant to the research and close to the models used. The three main areas are issues related to the integration of schools, management style and school culture. The first area considers the six-year comprehensive school and the process of integration, and discusses social and organisational considerations. This section deals with the pros and cons of six-year continuity, the transition from junior-high to high school, as well as issues related to split-site schools since this often occurs in implementing the six-year schools.

Since the research is concerned with the impact of management and leadership style in relation to the integration process, the second area, which deals with the management style of the principal, describes the different forces of leadership of Sergiovanni (1983). The use of this theory was chosen due to the connection between leadership style and school success, which in turn reflects the success of integration. The management styles will be described mainly through the six styles of management based on Bush (1995). The use of Bush's models was chosen in order to look at the dimension of the organisation of management style, as opposed to the dimension of the individual's management style. The Blake and Mouton (1985) model was chosen in order to add the individual dimensions of management style to Bush's theory. This section will allow the researcher to evaluate the perceived optimal and desirable form of school management for six-year comprehensive schools.

The third research question deals with the impact of school culture on integration. The section on school culture deals with the different presentation of culture and factors to evaluate culture and its impact on integration. School culture will be described particularly through Hargreaves' model (1995) which mainly relates to the dimension of

social cohesion and control of school culture and their impact on integration from this angle. Friedman's model (1988) was used, as it combines different types of management together with different types of culture related to the external context of the school. The two dimensions of school culture which are presented by Hargreaves model do not fully incorporate the components of six-year school culture. Therefore, Friedman's model was chosen. This was done in order to add a further two dimensions of school culture. The first dimension reflects the teachers' view of the principal. The second dimension reflects the way the teachers view the general school environment, as well as their colleagues. The above mentioned four dimensions reflect the components of six-year school culture needed for the research.

A particular area of school culture is identified in the fourth research question, which deals with social interaction between teachers of both sections of the six-year school. This part of the literature review describes the social network theory, which exists within the school and analyses its influence on successful integration. The following sections describe the theory of three main areas of the research, namely integration, management style and school culture.

Integration

Introduction

This section deals with social considerations within the six-year school, as well as the advantages and disadvantages of six-year continuity regarding the first area of the research - integration. The alternative model is that of a separate junior-high school and high school. A further point dealt with is the problem of transition from the junior-high school to the high school. In addition, academic achievement, learning time, curriculum and methodology are investigated. Another area dealt with is the pupil's educational needs, dropping out, documentation, joint management as well as various pedagogical aspects. The final point to be dealt with is that of split-site schools.

The social and organisational considerations within six-year comprehensive schools

Continuity versus separation in the junior-high school and high school.

A basic question in Israeli education is whether it is preferable to separate the junior-high school from the high school with regard to administrative matters, or whether it is preferable to have the junior-high school as part of the six year comprehensive. This question was raised by the Israeli Ministry of Education in its parliamentary committee (Israeli Knesset, 1971). The decision was made that secondary education should be for six years and made up of a junior-high and high school together. Previously, the high school was a completely separate unit from grades 9-12.

In the deliberation, a great deal of time was spent on discussing the most suitable age for completing primary education. This took into consideration the many psychological and social factors such as sexual maturity, the transition to advanced mental reasoning according to Piaget's theory, the beginning of social independence and the gradual release from parental control. Organisational and practical administrative factors were not therefore the main focus of consideration regarding the transition from junior-high to high school. Various questions that arose in the debate, such as the joining of two schools from an organisational point of view, hierarchical control, continuity of the curriculum, transitional difficulties from junior-high to high school, were not examined and evaluated in depth in Israel at that time. Discussions regarding these points all took place after the

1968 reform. The arguments for and against integration are normative. That is, in the end they may come down to a matter of opinion on the part of individuals. According to Ben-Peretz (1995), one of the main reasons for lack of in depth evaluation was that the Ministry of Education simply preferred the six year continuity which combined the two schools in one organisational establishment, as opposed to the approach in many places in the Western world, (such as USA), where there is a very strict division between the two age groups and schools. However, this view is not shared by all, Chen (1997) notes that there is a growing movement amongst certain authorities to maintain two separate schools without any connection one to the other. During the last decade there has been a steep rise in the number of junior-high schools that wished to remain separate from the high school. However, Chen (1997) claims that there is insufficient research to back up the local authorities and others preference for separate junior-high and high schools.

The junior-high school integrated into the high school

When the Israeli Knesset made a decision in 1968 to place the junior-high school between the primary school and the high school, as part of the six-year school, there was already strong criticism against the system both from professional educators and members of the public. This criticism was also heard at the parliamentary committee (Israeli Knesset, 1971). The junior-high school had not fulfilled the expectations sought by the educators (Autolony 1997). In the educational framework the junior-high school continued the policy of rote learning, informal abstract learning was not present, advice and counseling was wrongly directed and there was still differentiation between the junior-high and high schools expected academic level (Israeli Parliamentary Committee 1971, p.179).

According to Beheri (1997), the concept of the junior-high school as a transitional stage from the primary school to the academic and intellectual demands of the high school, as well as emotional and social demands, is totally incorrect. The junior-high curriculum needs to be developed on an individual basis, with the age of the junior-high school pupils taken into consideration and not as a general average level for the high school (Deshavsky 1997). 9th grade pupils were particularly harmed by this transition to the junior-high (Gibton 2000). Those pupils that wanted to be accepted in an academic high school were above the intellectual and emotional development of the less able pupils of the same age group. Those more advanced pupils found the 9th grade curriculum totally

irrelevant to their intellectual needs. In other words, it was not demanding enough. In order to complete an academic programme of study, it is necessary to devote four years of rigid learning (Epstein and Mac-Lver, 1990).

Characteristic of the 13-15 age group of development are physical changes, changes in emotional relationships amongst family and friends, as well as thought processes, learning and organisation of knowledge. During this period it is necessary to involve parents, teachers (Manning 1993, p.7) and pupils in the school system. Personal contact and relationships amongst the pupils is of prime importance in heterogeneous schools, where there is a variety of backgrounds both culturally and according to socio-economic status. These junior-high schools aspire to provide full social integration and bridge the gap between different classes and groups. They also try to lessen competition amongst pupils in an academic framework.

The advantages of the six-year continuity

The following section is going to present the factors relating to the advantages of the six-year school. In most big cities and towns in Israel, high schools are divided into three types of schools- technological, non-technological and comprehensive. A small minority of pupils in the cities and towns tend to leave the junior-high school at the end of the 9th grade and register for a different non-technological high school. Degani, (1990), reported that in Tel-Aviv, from the 7th grade until the 12th grade, 57 per cent of the pupils continued studying in the same school. Half of the pupils that left did so because the standard of education was considered very low. In Tel-Aviv, some of the high schools are six-year comprehensives with very close working relationships between the junior-high and the high school. Chen, Shiloah and Kfir (1981), found that in certain towns where the junior-high school and the high school were separate and not part of the same system, the percentage of those wishing to move schools was higher than that of Tel-Aviv.

Easy transition

In Israel, the transition from the junior-high school, it's timing and the way it is carried out, causes a great deal of difficulty for pupils within this age group (Chen 1995). The contact between the junior-high and the high school determines the level of independence and flexibility which is needed during the various stages of studying, in order to meet the educational, emotional and social needs of the pupils.

From Chen's research (1995), a number of difficulties arise at the junior-high school age. Each stage of the pupil's development requires a different educational framework. Chen and Eddy (1993) claim that the movement of a pupil from one school to another produces a sense of insecurity and trepidation for the individual pupil. The fewer transitions that the pupil has to cope with will decrease the insecurity. If the transition is only from the 7th grade until the end of the six-year comprehensive, there is less insecurity in this system. He or she is able to get used to being in a new school and does not have to be concerned about moving once again to a new school.

Academic achievement

According to Chen, Adler and Levy (1978), it is important to retain two important areas of the 1968 reform. The first one relates to geographical closeness of the junior-high school to the high school. The second feature is emphasis on the development of pedagogy in heterogeneous classes. The two features exist in the six-year comprehensive school. According to Rush, Adler, and Inbar (1980), it is important to maintain a policy of heterogeneous teaching in form groups in the junior-high school, and to find ways of minimizing the internal process of separating pupils into groups. The educational learning experience of being in a heterogeneous class is indeed beneficial to weaker pupils and does little damage to stronger ones (Friedman 1988). Cashty (1989) claims that pressure to obtain high achievement is a result of the influence of the high school on the junior-high school, within the six-year framework.

In addition, Shmidar and Retzer (1991) reported that the pupil's achievements are largely based on the teacher's expectations. If the pupil remains in the same system for six-years, these expectations continue throughout the period. There is still academic debate on the level of teacher influence (Brophy 1982/b, Gavish 1992). Together with the six years of knowing the pupil, what remains certain is that a teacher's expectation plays a very important role, both in the case of individuals and groups from 7th to 12th grades. In effect, the reality is that according to the teacher's expectation the pupils will succeed, even if they are only of average ability. This belief supports a positive success theory (Aderet 1982).

Learning time

Rimler (1981), Mevarech, Barrack and Yassur (1984) produced research on the relationship between official learning time and actual learning time. They found that in the six-year comprehensive schools, there was no difference between the two. However, in independent junior-high schools, there was a marked difference between official learning time and the actual time spent learning, which was much less. Actual learning time has much to do with organisation. This includes making sure lessons begin and end on time, little time is wasted on administration, discipline and transition from one area to another (Brookover et al. 1984; Mortimore et al. 1988, Alexander 1992, Slavin 1996).

In order to be effective in the classroom, the teacher has to prepare lessons in advance (Rutter et al. 1979), as well as making sure the aims of the lesson are clearly understood. Relevant learning aids (Scheerens 1992), good classroom management techniques which include the use of questioning, lesson pace as well as working in groups are all part of a positive learning environment (Reynolds 1997).

Same curriculum and educational methodology

Modern pedagogy which forms an alternative method of teaching e.g. group work, projects, use of computers, less frontal teaching and alternative assessment assists the teacher in a heterogeneous class, within the six-year system (Amir 1994). This allows the pupils to produce creative, individual work through the added time factor and the innovation of project work, as opposed to a single examination. Regarding alternative methodology it is important that all teachers adopt the same policy.

According to Israelshvilli (1997), out of all the pupils beginning the 7th grade, in certain schools (not six-year schools), 70 per cent of the pupils are unable to continue to the 10th and 11th grades. The high school is seen as a threatening factor to higher education. It is therefore important to prepare the pupils in the junior-high school to the transition into the high school, not only academically, but within the pupils ability it is important to provide him or her with the learning tools and methodology for studying in the high school and ultimately for the matriculation exam. This can be achieved within the six-year system.

According to Chen (1997), the transition from one school to the next is a transition from one form of continuity to another form of continuity. It is important for the form of continuity in the junior-high and the high school, to be similar. The main barrier to continuity, according to Lance (1994), is the varying approaches by teachers from the two different schools. The main approach in the junior-high school is one of child centred education, whilst at the same time the high school is organised by way of the different subjects taught. As a result of the differing approaches, lack of trust and respect may exist between teachers of the two separate schools.

The structure of the six-year comprehensive from one point of view is a compromise of the former system, grades 1-8, and a junior-high school. Research into junior-high schools, (Yellin, 1997), has shown that there is a need for integration between the junior-high school and high school and that there should be the same curriculum, the same type of methods of teaching, the same class structure, learning atmosphere with a great deal of attention given to social problems, time spent with the form teacher, fewer exams and less competition. Gordon (1995) claims that the desirable characteristic of a 12th grade school leaver is that of a person who has intellectual curiosity. In order to achieve this, the school system, such as the six-year framework, has to provide the school student with a large range of choice in subject options. Also, the educational system has to be caring and not operate on a basis of pupil classification. The six-year framework is able to do both. According to Jones, (1995) continuity in contents of the school programme is a very positive factor in the pupil's achievements.

There are several different ways of ensuring that there is or isn't continuity between the two schools (Lance 1993). Management of the continuity of the school curriculum is almost impossible when pupils move from many different schools. Continuity ensures a gradual linear advancement in the subject matter. However, Denver and Brown (1986) have shown that the advancement does not necessarily go in a straight line. There are many different cognitive ways of learning. One of the areas where there is a clear lack of continuity is in the school framework. Both Lance (1993) and Jones (1995) see the pupil's difficulty in coping with the movement from one framework where he has studied with the same teacher, who has seen his/her strengths and weaknesses, to a framework where the teacher concentrates on the material and subject to be taught (Beheri 1997).

Although the differences between the two schools is not only in the two methods and styles of teaching as Lance (1993) has maintained in her article on the subject, it is rooted in far deeper problems, which are pedagogical and philosophical in nature. The emphasis moves from being child centred, (in the junior-high school) to emphasis on knowledge (in the high school). The high school teacher does not always know the child in his class. He/she sees himself/herself as a specialist in his/her subject who works under a great deal of pressure to cover the curriculum. The difficulty of the child centred approach as opposed to emphasis on knowledge, poses fewer difficulties within the six-year framework than within the independent schools. This is due to the fact that there is pedagogical contact between the two sections of the school.

In order to ease the transitional period from one school to another, it may be necessary for both sets of schools to implement changes in learning and teaching styles (Jones 1995). It is necessary to develop a more suitable curriculum and for the teacher to use and transmit the information he/she received from the pupil's previous school, in an efficient way. According to Collins and Lee (1994), a number of schools have successfully implemented experimental programmes, which give the pupil more authority regarding his/her learning and studying. Individual project work can be used as an alternative method of learning according to the set curriculum (Inbar 2000). This kind of learning framework needs to provide individual pupil assessment. If this system is in operation before the pupil's transition, the pupil will be able to recognise and define learning programmes that are not suitable for his/her individual needs as well as helping him with the transition (Deshavsky 1997). A further method of enhancing a pupil's learning is the use of individual portfolios (Dixon, Lee and Harris 1994).

The pupil's educational needs

There are many arguments in favour of continuity rather than separation. According to Weston, Barrett and Jamison (1992), the strongest argument for continuity are the pupils themselves and their educational needs. It has been established that continuity from the 7th - 12th grade provides a framework of pedagogical and didactical commitment (Amir, 1996). In the six-year comprehensive school, the school's role is to accompany the pupil from age thirteen until eighteen, with all his/her individual developmental processes. In the six-year comprehensive, there is a wide range of possibilities and opportunities, as opposed to two separate schools. If there is no connection between the two schools and

the needs of the curriculum are either too difficult for the pupil, or there is repetition of material learnt, the pupil will ultimately feel bored with repetition of the same material, or frustrated if it is too difficult. Educators should not ignore these situations. One of the difficulties pupils experience during the transition, is the difference in emphasis between the two schools (Degani, 1990).

Reduce dropping-out

As long as the Ministry of Education's demand of matriculation as the end goal, is not changed, the process of separating pupils into groups for subjects to be studied will continue, with the result that along the way from 7th - 9th grade there will be a number of pupils dropping-out (Chen, 1997). Beheri (1997) claims that the six-year continuity increases the options of choice and suitability for pupils to attend the relevant and correct classes. As a result of the six-year continuity it is possible to change the curriculum to suit the needs of the pupils, to diversify the curriculum, to lessen the pace of studying according to the pupil's level and ability (Smilansky 1987). As a result of approaching the curriculum from a six-year perspective, more time is available to deal with individual pupil's needs and difficulties (Sheldon, Kim and Kasser 2001), and time is not lost with adopting to a new environment.

Assessment and documentation

A curriculum, which includes continuity, increases efficiency in the implementation of the high school curriculum. The National Primary Centre (NPC 1992/3) research has shown that within junior-high school teachers' complaints, there are elements of suspicion and lack of trust. A vital element towards the success of continuity is effective contact between schools with passing on of documents. There has to be an effective way of gathering information on pupils and transmitting it. One of the results of lack of co-operation between the schools is the problem of assessment and documentation. There are many ways of producing a pupil's personal file and passing it on to the relevant school, but no unified standard.

Teachers are concerned that when information is passed on by them, it will be ignored. Also, there is no unified standard for assessing pupils. It is important that teachers from both schools should be experienced in observation, documentation and analysis of assessment processes, as well as managing the pupil's individual file. It is also important

for teachers to make positive use of the material supplied in the personal files throughout the child's school life. Derricott (1985) found that teachers don't automatically refer to pupils' personal files as they feel that they can not rely on the assessment in the file and therefore prefer their own personal judgment of the pupil. This issue is extremely wide due to the differences in both sets of schools- the junior-high and the high school. This is one of the main reasons for lack of co-operation. An additional difficulty comes from the different approaches to teaching and their own skills and professionalism.

The NPC research has concluded that Larr's (as quoted by High, 1993) findings were that the difficulty was not with transition, but rather with trust as well as agreement of approach and expectations. Important pedagogical background material of individual pupils is easily accessed from the junior-high school to the high school. When the school has six-year continuity, information is automatically passed on, and it is much easier to assist individual pupils, especially those experiencing difficulties (Bar-Oz 1997).

Joint management and resources

The Ministry of Education in Israel established social and educational goals with the forming of the junior-high school as part of the six-year comprehensive school system. According to Bar-Oz (1997), management of the six-year comprehensive school is more effective and financially viable than the management of two separate schools. Joint management saves labour and personnel, as well as expenses. Services such as telephone, electricity and water are less expensive than when used in two separate schools. Brown (1984) notes that educational aids and equipment, as well as specialised buildings e.g. laboratories, libraries, computer rooms etc. serve many pupils in both schools. These facilities are vital in both schools - junior-high and high. If the schools remain separate, they still require the above-mentioned educational aids and it places a double burden on school expenses. The use by pupils of these facilities is only to their advantage. The six-year comprehensive school has the advantage of choosing the books to be used over a six-year period. This means that some of the junior-high schoolbooks can be continued into the high school.

Mutual commitment of teachers

Another point to be considered is the fact that in the six-year comprehensive there is mutual commitment to the other section of the school (Chen and Eddy, 1993). Teachers

in the high school can not criticize the junior-high schoolteachers with the popular complaint that the junior-high school pupils had not been sufficiently prepared for work and the required standard for the high school. In order for the six-year comprehensive to achieve its aims, it is important for teachers to be involved in both schools (Bar-Oz, 1997). As a result, integration will operate both on an educational and social basis. In the six-year comprehensive school, it is not feasible for teachers to teach only 11th and 12th grade pupils. Teachers who hold first degrees, with specialization in one or two subjects, should also teach in the junior-high school (Degani, 1990). These teachers take their didactic methods of teaching from the high school to the junior-high school. The pupil then learns to cope with being taught in a system of specialised learning (Ritz and Ben-Ari, 1994).

In the six-year comprehensive school, in-service training courses for teachers are based on the fact that both schools interests have to be taken into account and the teachers in both sections have to be considered (Autolony, 1997). According to Degani (1990), the aim of the six-year comprehensive school is to enable the pupil to receive a matriculation certificate at the end of his / her schooling. If the school is one unit then this obligation applies to all the teachers from the 7th - 12th grade. The 7th and 8th grade teacher sees him or herself as an integral part of the pupil's education. In cases where the pupil's achievements are particularly high, great satisfaction is felt by all the teachers (Epstein, 1990, More 1999). However, when the school is made up of two separate units, there is no sense of a whole overall picture, rather a middle of the road approach.

To sum up, it is possible to note that there are many advantages of the six-year system, as mentioned above. They are namely easy transition, academic achievement, learning time, same curriculum, educational methodology, pupil's educational needs, reduces dropping out, assessments and documentations, joint management and resources, as well as commitment of the teachers. The following section deals with the disadvantages of the six-year continuity.

Disadvantages of the six-year continuity

There are a number of disadvantages of the six-year framework as discussed in the following section.

Ignoring the pupils needs

The first disadvantage is ignoring the needs of youngsters undergoing puberty. According to Salomon and Almog (1999), the 7th grade pupil will always be physically and emotionally undersized in a situation with older pupils. Pupils in the junior-high school who come in contact with much older pupils in the high school, both in the buildings or in the school grounds during breaks, are prevented from belonging to the school (Ryan and Deci 2000, Baumeiser and Leary 1995, Reis and Patrick 1996). The much younger pupils are harmed by the older pupils as a result of disrespect, being taking advantage of, exploitation, separation and alienation (Little 1990, Amir 1997, Israelshvilli 1997). Israeli education specialists recommend that there should be a physical barrier to separate the junior-high school from the high school.

Teachers and pedagogical aspect

The second disadvantage lies in the area of teaching, teachers and pedagogy. Chen and Shiloah (1981) and Yellin (1997) claim that in the high school there is an atmosphere of competition and achievement, which is reflected in the matriculation exam. This atmosphere of competition ultimately filters down to the junior-high school. The closeness of the high school to the junior high school does not allow for separation. The matriculation exam plays a major role in deciding where resources are spent, both in teaching hours and professional manpower (Chen, 1995, and Kfir, 1981).

A further possible disadvantage is that teachers from the high school find that their professional status is reduced, when they teach in the junior-high school. They only teach in the junior-high school when they have no other alternative. Salomon and Almog (1994) note that this is usually as a result of lack of teaching hours in the high school. Their teaching methods and style are exactly the same as they use when teaching for the matriculation examination. It is extremely difficult to move from one age range to the next using completely different methodology.

Another disadvantage is teacher "burn-out". According to Yellin (1997), the work environment is a major factor in causing professional "burn-out". Most of the parameters that lead to "burn-out" are found in six-year comprehensives, but not in independent junior-high schools. Some of the relevant parameters are workload, building structure, crowding, noise, alienation, work relationships, feedback from the principal and bureaucracy.

The typical behaviour of pupils in Israel which reflects a lack of respect towards teachers, a lack of attention being paid to both the lesson and teacher is a vital element in producing teacher burn out (Friedman 1995). In addition, teacher burn out is made up of three main components. The first is physical and cognitive exhaustion, the second is complete lack of interest in both pupils and parents and the third is the negative self-image reflected by the society in general which is more likely in high school (Friedman 1995).

Size of school

In 1996, the Ministry of Education decided that the junior-high school should not contain more than eighteen classes; six classes for each age range. This stipulation is to ensure that the school environment remains intimate and small, as well as making sure that the pupils receive individual care. This concept, however, does not work within the six-year comprehensive (Sharan, 1997). According to Sharan and Beheri (1997), the average number of form room classes in the junior-high school, within the six-year comprehensive, is between 36-40. Sharan (1997) claims that the school size of approximately 2000 pupils hinders the pupils, the teachers, and the school management. Beheri (1997) maintains that the size of the school also hinders teamwork amongst the staff, as well as staff morale, due to the fact that a high number of teachers in one group or team decreases the morale of the team work (Hunter 1980). At the end of the day, those most harmed by such a large institution are the pupils.

Split-Site schools – part of the six-year system

The amalgamation of junior-high and high schools has often led to a number of split-site schools. A great deal of material has been published on the subject of the management of split-site schools. There are four main areas of concern regarding split-site schools. These

are in the area of communication, school unity, allocation of finances and duplication of resources (Glover 1996). According to Bellaby (1977), much of the co-operation which occurs amongst teachers, is not done by formal roles, but rather through an informal social process. Brown (1994) also comments that communication staff room contact becomes almost impossible in split-site schools with teachers moving from one site to the other or permanently remaining on one or other of the sites. Davis (1976) notes that most members of staff stay in one area and do not move to the other site apart from staff meetings.

Brown (1994) however, maintains that senior staff should teach on all sites, which would allow for an informal communication framework. Brown refers to Taylor (1973) that in a large single site school it is very difficult to promote school unity as communication becomes more complex. This is even more so in a split-site school where these problems are magnified. Lynch and Pimlott (1986) note that the physical division between the sites means that both teachers and pupils lack any sense of school identity. It may also be that in split-site schools where the members of staff are divided into groups, there is an unfair balancing of teaching. In certain schools, teachers feel that they only belong to one section (Brown 1994).

There is a major problem regarding resources in split-site schools. Often one site receives more resources than the other (Busher 1990). This is particularly true regarding expensive items of equipment and it is not always possible to duplicate them. Brown (1994) claims that if a large school is divided into smaller sections as a result of it being on a split-site, it could in fact help develop good staff relationships and morale (Bailey 1977, Glover 1996). However, if its administration is centralized then there is a problem of leadership and communication. Again, resources have to be divided equally in order for this to be a satisfactory situation.

Staff development within a split-site often results in time table problems. According to Cornall (1992, p.74), individual teacher development may be limited due to the fact that they work in a split-site school. This is due to the fact that it is far more complicated and taxing to allow a teacher to work within varying age ranges and abilities when these pupils are placed in different buildings and on different sites. There are also difficulties arising between conflicting interests between pastoral and academic considerations.

Brown (1994, p.39, Friedman 1987) note that restrictions within the time table means that a teacher who is required to continue his/her duties as a class teacher taking a class from one year to the next, also has to have that taken into consideration. Departmental changes might mean that a particular teacher has to do most of his/her teaching on the other site. Here, there is a need to balance the pastoral needs against the academic. According to Brown (1994), in one particular school where academic consideration was given priority, in several particular classes the class teacher's registration period was given by three or four different teachers, which meant that there was no real pastoral care being given and there was a lack of continuity.

A further area of difficulty mentioned by Brown (1994, p.40) occurs when the staff is divided into groups of either junior-high school or high school teachers, and the head of department must evaluate the teacher's performance. This is particularly difficult when heads of departments do not visit a particular site or teach on that site. Brown (1994, p.40) claims that in cases such as these, members of staff are left to do as they wish. It has been noted that a split-site school does have an effect on staff development (Busher 1990). However, there are no particular commuting problems when staff work specifically with either the junior-high school pupils, or high school pupils.

Maw (1977, p.103) notes that in both split-site schools as well as on one site-schools, there is a danger of polarization whereby the junior-high school teachers and the principal are seen as being less qualified, soft on the pupils, as well as being child-centred (Gordon 1997), whereas the high school teachers and the principal are seen as being well qualified and academic, hard and disciplined, as well as subject centred (AMA, 1976). This is due to lack of versatility where teachers remain on their own site and do not teach within a different age range. Friedman (1995) claims through an interview with one particular head of department that it is very important to have specialist staff in the junior-high school, which in turn provides a sense of enthusiasm and motivation for the subject amongst younger pupils. In other words, it is very important to have a member of staff responsible for the subject on each site to promote and motivate the teachers.

The advantages of independent junior-high schools

Although there are benefits from promoting integration, there are many arguments in favour of independence. The existence of independent junior-high schools represents several authorities' attitude and approach to such schools. According to Yellin (1997), there are several elements which are found in independent junior-high schools.

Positive for pupils from a low socio-economic background

A survey conducted by Degani (1990), in a development town in Israel bordering an established town, shows that the option of choice in a school where there is no continuation to the high school is a positive factor for those pupils coming from a low socio-economic class. The findings of the survey also show that going to schools which are on the same campus actually harms many pupils, especially from the lower socio-economic groups. These pupils are able to succeed when they attend new and different schools. According to statistics produced by the Ministry of Education (1997), it appears that in latter years there is a growing tendency in the M.O.E to separate between the junior high and the high school. From Degani's research (1990) and Chen & Shiloah (1981), it is possible to see that separation between the junior-high school and the high school is a vital condition for promoting integration (junior-high) on the one hand, whilst on the other hand it is vital to emphasis academic learning and effort towards gaining a matriculation high school certificate, which is far more relevant in the high school.

School culture and pupil centred education

In the three-year junior-high school, a great deal of emphasis is placed on fostering a good school climate. There is a lot of co-operation with parents as well as the community, both close to the school and in a wider context (Glover 1997). In these schools, a great deal of effort is placed into producing two-way conversations between pupils and pupils, as well as between pupils and teachers (Bronfenbrenner and Morris 1998). According to Chen (1997), in many cases, the pupils have an option of subjects to be studied, pastoral care is doubled, the teachers are given support in the form of in service training whereby they are taught how to deal with all possible conditions in a changing situation.

Gordon (1997), sees that the school should form the pupils 'home' and it should be constructed in such a way to feel like a 'home'. This approach is seen in independent junior-high schools. The pupil is at the centre and the school is there in order to serve the pupil and his/her needs (Sheldon and Kim 2001). The requirements for pupils in the 7th, 8th and 9th grades emanate from the age of puberty, which in itself is a source of many difficulties regarding inter personal relations. The junior-high school staff put a lot of time and effort into creating a balance between personal, social and psychological needs and high academic achievement. The lack of pressure from matriculation exams at this stage, allows the system to deal with the pupil's individual needs (Yellin, 1997).

Beheri (1997) claims that from the pedagogical dimension, it can be said that the junior-high school age range is difficult as it brings with it emotional problems. This period is characterised by revolutionary behaviour against set frameworks such as the family, the school etc. Therefore, it is essential to provide an educational framework that is relaxed but at the same time educational. It is important to place the emphasis on social and emotional development, with the relevant school environment (Baumeiser and Leary 1995, Reis and Patrick 1996, Kim and Kasser 2001). Smilansky (1987) and Beheri (1997) maintain that one way of creating the required atmosphere is by removing any academic learning pressure. In the six-year continuity there is less place for considering the pupil's needs from a social, psychological and learning point of view.

Advance of the teachers' professional development and teaching methods

Heterogeneous classes and the multiple level and background of the pupils in the junior-high school encourage teachers to find ways of advancing academic achievement and school culture (Salomon and Almog, 1994). Teachers in the junior-high school are continuously learning and trying to improve their own abilities to deal with the many problems posed in such multiple level classes. (M.O.E, 1995). The integration of college trained teachers and university graduates allows the staff room to achieve a combination of academic achievement, as well as a calm social culture.

In the independent junior-high schools there is a tendency towards the process of learning and team development, as a result of finding different ways to advance each pupil. The classes are organised in a heterogeneous manner (M.O.E. 1995). The heterogeneous classroom demands that teachers attend in-service training courses, in order to deal with

the constantly arising problems. The internal school curriculum needs to be structured in such a way to deal with different age groups, as well as providing a stimulating and interesting programme of study. Another factor to be dealt with in the independent junior-high school, is the development of alternative methods of assessment i.e., research projects, portfolios and group work. In addition, according to the Harari report (1985), in the independent junior-high school there is a growing tendency for the use of computers in an integrated fashion, rather than having lessons in a specialized computer room. The independent junior-high schools make it possible to change and renew the organisational structure of the school in order to adopt new approaches of learning and teaching. This also effects school culture in the approach towards organization. Inbar (2000) and Beheri (1997) add that the autonomous principal of the junior-high school is able to implement the suggestions from the discussion in various ways, both pedagogically and organizationally.

Achieving social integration

According to Beheri (1997), over the years, junior-high schools that have operated on an independent basis have achieved the aims of the reform in a relatively more successful way than schools that have been part of the six-year comprehensive. Until 1996, individual authorities had the right to choose which model they preferred, either the independent junior-high school or the junior-high school within the six-year comprehensive. Schmidah (1991) and Beheri (1997) claim that the junior-high school has implemented the first aim of the 1968 reform and that is social integration. The high school has tended to implement the second aim of academic achievement. The junior-high school does not place high emphasis on academic achievement. At the same time the high school puts pressure on pupils for high standards, which lessens the flexibility of social and educational programmes. The independent junior-high school can fulfill the expectations of educators, as well as fulfilling the social, emotional and educational needs of the pupils. This framework also provides maximum flexibility within the curriculum, as well as setting social and moral norms and values to pupils of the junior-high school age (Manberg, 1994, Hunter 1980). An additional element of flexibility within the curriculum is that of improved academic standards in the high school (Chen 1997).

Management Issues related to integration

A central point of this research project is demonstrated by Beheri (1997) in that within the six-year framework, the junior-high school principal loses his / her authority as an independent principal and his/her status is also harmed by this fact. In most cases, he/she has to follow the instructions of the high school principal. On the other hand, in most cases, the high school principal does not take the needs of the junior-high school pupils into consideration. Beheri (1997) and Manberg (1997), claim that in a school where there is more than one principal, many professional difficulties arise. These problems arise due to different styles of management, different ideologies, as well as different educational approaches, according to the school's needs and the kind of pupils within the school. The principal of the high school sees his/her position as a managing director and behaves accordingly. The junior-high school principal who has been through the same process of being chosen, as the high school principal, has the same authority in theory, but in practice there is a different division of management positions.

The Ministry of Education (1996) recognizes the junior-high school principal as an overall principal. However, regarding salary for management, there is a big difference in the amount paid to the individual principals. With this background in mind, there are disadvantages and misunderstandings that can often lead to a breakup of the management partnership. Shapira (1990) claims that this is a result of the bad organisational structure of the six-year comprehensive school. Accordingly, with this in mind, independent junior-high schools and high schools may be justified in wanting to be separate units. Adler (1996) suggests a different form of the junior-high school, one being independent and the other as part of the six-year comprehensive. As a result, there would also be different kinds of principals. One would be an independent junior-high school principal. The other would be a junior-high school principal under the auspices of the high school principal. This degree of organisation of jobs results in a difference both in salaries and autonomous control (Nesher, 1994).

Research into the role of the principal and his or her contribution to the success of integration, has raised a number of important questions. The first question is whether the principal's main priority is to emphasize an administrative or educational role. It was found that principals in effective schools utilize the resources available to them in an

efficient manner (Friedman 1995, Brown 1994). They initiate ways of advancing academic achievement by their involvement and educational know how in innovative, as well as modern teaching methods, which increases the level and success rate of the innovation (Little, 1981). Effective principals devote a large proportion of their time to positive criticism, evaluation, planning, improvement of teaching and staff team development (Glover 1996). They influence and encourage members of their staff to spend time on all of the above. Israeli research on the success of six-year integration in terms of student achievement, has identified characteristics of principals' leadership strategies, which are associated with student achievement outcomes (Friedman, 1988). Effective schools are managed by principals who promote a sense of mission in their schools, have noticeably clear goals, and monitor both achievement and instruction in a close manner (Wimpelberg, 1987).

An equally important role is that of providing a positive environment whereby problems are immediately dealt with, such as discipline problems, and allowing members of staff to devote their time to the process of teaching instead of being side tracked by extraneous problems (Bossert, et al, 1982). Little (1982) summarises the principal's main influence on the school's success as follows. The first is the clarification of the school's expectation of members of its team. The second is by personal example in taking part in meetings and training sessions with the aim of improving teaching standards. The third is providing help to those members of staff who are willing to accept criticism. The last point is that the principal does not interfere with members of staff who use innovative and improved methods of teaching.

The findings of research on success for integration in Israel (Friedman, 1992), indicate that the traditional effective six-year school is one where there is agreement between the principal and the teachers of the school's goals and principles, as well as the ability to reach an agreement regarding implementation of this policy. Friedman mentioned several factors for evaluation of school success regarding integration. The first is the principal's role (Bennett 1993, Bernbaum 1976, Lortie 1987), whereby for effective functioning of the school, it is important to provide a mixture of autonomy and co-operation between the two schools. The second factor is team stability whereby staff movement plays a negative part in school stability. It is therefore important to have consistent team-work in both schools. In addition, stable members of staff encourage and assist the integration process.

The third factor is the clear definition of planning and organisation of the curriculum within the six-year system. The principal has responsibility for ensuring that all members of staff, in particular in the junior-high school, are aware of the six-year curriculum. The fourth factor is team development whereby in order to have an influence on team development, the school must emphasise agreed goals and operate a system of planning for several years at a time (Glover 1996). It is necessary for in-service training to be available for all members of staff, not just certain teachers. The aim of the in-service training is two fold - one is to increase knowledge whilst the other is to direct all members of staff to an agreed policy regarding school objectives. In-service training courses must be closely linked to the school curriculum and planned according to teacher requirements within the six-year framework. The fifth factor is parental involvement - in many cases, parental involvement contributes to the success for integration, especially where the parents play a positive role in the child's homework preparation. In certain cases, parental involvement plays a central role in the success of the six-year school. The sixth factor is aiming for maximum effective learning time. This aim is achieved by providing sufficient time for studying, as opposed to supporting social activities etc. Teddlie and Stringfield (1993), note that it is very important to maximize classroom and school learning time, as this sets a standard for teachers to what is considered acceptable within the school system.

The seventh factor mentioned by Friedman (1992) is the collegial work relationships where it is seen that this element plays a central role in implementing changes in the organisation. Due to the fact that any change pays the price of a period of adjustment within all the various levels and areas of the system, there is a great deal of importance in achieving general agreement, regarding implementing change (Cuban 1992). Shared planning and collegial team work are seen as vital to the process of achieving general agreement and promoting co-operation amongst the different groups within the members of staff. The eighth factor is the order and discipline whereby it is possible to evaluate anew the importance of the effects made by educators in creating an atmosphere of discipline and respect for authority. Purkey and Smith (1982), explain the importance of order and discipline, by way of using this as a means of connecting to the pupils and transferring the importance of the school's seriousness. In other words, it is not possible to learn in a noisy environment. According to Friedman (1997), clear and logical rules are

ways of reducing disturbances in learning and promote a sense of pride and responsibility towards the school.

The above factors will be used in the research project regarding integration and will be examined by the relevant questions to be given to the principals and teachers of the 23 comprehensive schools.

Summary of integration

To sum up, this part of the literature review regarding the subject of integration and success of integration, has presented various questions that arose regarding the joining of two schools from an organisational point of view, (hierarchical control, advantages and disadvantages of the six-year school) as opposed to the maintenance of an independent junior-high school. This section is linked to one of the main aims of this research which is to show the problems of integration within the junior-high school and the high school in six-year schools. In addition, the difficulties of split-site schools have been discussed, due to the fact that some of the six-year schools include junior-high and high schools on different sites. Table 2.1 presents a summary of the advantages and disadvantages of the six-year framework, as opposed to the independent junior-high school.

Advantages of the six-year school	Disadvantages of the junior-high
Easy transition	Transition difficulties
Academic achievement	Reduces academic achievement
Same educational methodology	Different educational methodology
Maximizes learning time	Reduces learning time
Better understanding of pupil's educational needs	Less understanding of pupil's educational needs
Reduces dropping-out	Dropping-out
Assessment and more efficient documentation	Less efficient documentation
Joint management and resources	No joint management and resources
Mutual commitment of teachers	No mutual commitment of teachers
	Reduces continuity of curriculum

Advantages of the junior-high	Disadvantages of the six-year
Fulfilling the pupil's social needs	Ignoring the pupil's social needs
Pupil centred education	Large classes
Positive for pupils from low socio-eco group	
Advance of the teacher's status	Teacher "burn-out"
Development of teaching methods	Pedagogical aspect – matriculation exams
Strengthening of the principal's role and school autonomy	JHSP loses authority and control
Achieving social integration	No attempt of social integration
Enhancement of school culture	Negative effect on the younger pupils

Table 2.1: The advantages and disadvantages of the six-year school

In order to examine the impact of management and leadership style, the next section will deal with the second area of the research, which in turn relates to the second research question – *What are the principals and teachers' perception of the management styles and the impact of these styles on the process of integration?* In other words, the next section deals with the theory of leadership and management as well as the models used in the research project.

Leadership and Management

Introduction

In the previous section problems related to the process of integration between the junior-high school and high school within the six-year framework, were presented. The following section deals with leadership and management styles based on several models. Since the researcher recognises the enormous extent of the literature in the area of leadership and management style, the literature review in this section concentrates on two models of management. They include relevant components to be linked to the third area of the research (school culture), as will be discussed in the next section.

The difference between the management style of the two principals within the six-year framework may possibly have an impact on the functioning of the school, and in particular, the process of integration. The model presented by Blake and Mouton (1985), which underlies many other models and theories, places the various management styles on a grid with reference to the difference between people and result-oriented management. This is followed by a model relating to six different management styles (Bush, 1995).

The following section deals with leadership and management theory as used in this research, as well as the principal's role, in order to present the impact of various management styles on integration.

Leadership

How can leadership be defined? One way is the ability to influence a group towards the achievement of goals (Robbins, 1997). In a formal context these leaders may hold managerial roles within the organisation. An individual may take on a leadership role as a result of the position he or she holds in the organisation. However, not all leaders are managers nor are all managers leaders. Although an organisation provides its managers with certain rights it doesn't mean that they will necessarily be able to lead effectively (Zaleznik 1994). When leadership is unofficial it is possible to influence what arises outside of the formal structure. In a way it is as important, or even more important than formal influence. In other words, leaders can emerge from within a group as well as

being formally appointed. However, leadership in schools is often normally equated with the role of the principal.

When leadership and management tasks are by the same people there seems to be very little difference in the two. These terms are often used together as it is usual for both findings to be carried out by the same person or persons. However, they can be considered as different concepts. According to Bush and Coleman (2000, p.4), management relates to processes and structures, whilst leadership is sometimes linked to vision and values. Bush and Coleman (2000) also maintain that leadership and management are equally important in order to promote school improvement. The main difference between leader and manager is that the leader has the vision or insight to see how the organisation will function and be viewed over a long-term period (Cashty 2000, Friedman 1992). However, Louis and Miles (1990) claim that it is important to separate between the qualities of leadership and those of management. Both are extremely important. They also claim that leadership is connected to direction and inspiration whilst management involves putting plans into operation, getting things done and working effectively with people. Leadership involves planning, carrying out a vision and getting shared ownership. On the other hand, management is concerned with negotiating demands and coping with nonstop problems (Inbar 2000). Louis and Miles (1990) maintain that management for change needs to be re-examined and demands the same skills as those for leadership.

In addition, the leader has the potential to put into operation policy that will encourage and promote his/her future vision. In order to implement the leader's vision he/she may need to possess charisma as well as excellent inter-personal skills (Zohar 2000, Gonnem and Zaki 1999). This in turn creates a situation whereby the members of the organisation follow a leader with high motivation, as well as investing a great deal of time and effort beyond the required work schedule. Kotter (1990) claims that management deals with a variety of issues which involve planning, managing the budget, organizing of staff together with dealing with problems. On the other hand, Zaleznick (1992) notes that leaders are concerned with objectives and ethos on a long-term basis. The job of the leader is to bring his or her workers into a certain conceptual approach where motivation is of prime importance (Harvey-Jones 1988, and Burnes 1996).

Transformational and transactional leadership

Transformational leadership is when the principal shares leadership with his or her staff, and gives them responsibility and power to act independently. According to Bass and Avolio (1994), transformational leadership is seen in a positive light, as there is commitment by the followers to the leader's requests. They note that it is possible to combine elements of both transactional and transformational leadership. Both the leader and his/her followers are interested in promoting and improving the school, as well as initiating change, as claimed by Sergiovanni (1990, p.24). Another function of transformational leadership is promoting the aims of the team and the individual community and its functions, as well as the promotion of group benefits as opposed to individual and personal benefits (Gonnen and Zaki 1999). By the force of their ability, the transformational or charismatic leaders transform their followers by raising the sense of the importance and value of their tasks. "I would walk through fire if my boss asked me" (Robbins, 1997, p.151), is the kind of support that charismatic leaders inspire.

Transactional leadership is where rewards are offered for services given (Leithwood 1996). For instance, rewards are given in the form of salary enhancement and in a form of responsibility and control allocation. In other words, there is an agreement between the leader and his/her followers whereby the follower works towards the advancement of the goals of the organisation. On the other hand, the leader is responsible for providing a good work environment and will provide for the needs of the followers (Caldwell and Spinks 1992, p.49). In the case of the introduction of change, it might be impossible to implement this style of leadership. This is due to the new working conditions whereby the new situation may not satisfy the needs of those who have to implement the change. Burns (1978), claims that transactional leadership fits on the scale with transformational leadership where the two forms of leadership are at opposite ends of the axis. In other words, there are two forms of leadership that are diametrically opposed and leaders have to choose either one or the other. However, this view is not shared by others, e.g. Bass and Avolio (1994). In order to link leadership style to the success of the school, the following presents Sergiovanni's model of leadership.

Sergiovanni's model of leadership

Sergiovanni (1984, p.6) claims that there are five forces of leadership. The first force of leadership is that of user skills, which is based on the technique of management. The second force of leadership is that of human resources which is based on inter-personal relationships. The third force of leadership is that of educational skills which are based on expertise in education and teaching. The fourth force of leadership are the skills based on rituals and symbols, which use the ability to focus on the leader. The fifth force of leadership is the use of cultural skills. The most interesting and important force of leadership is that the five forces are seen in a hierarchical model relating to their importance in educational leadership behaviour. This hierarchy of importance is a concept which can be seen in the technique of management force and human resources force, in all types of organisation. However, the other forces of education, rituals, symbols and culture depend on the status and standing of the organisation, in particular within the educational framework as well as the individual schools. The five forces of leadership define the success of the school. In the case of a higher level of force the impact of the lower forces in the hierarchy are of less importance.

There is a link between the hierarchical profile of leadership and the level of forces. In order for leadership within education to be in real terms of educational leadership, it is necessary for it to limit the level of its influence. It needs to be based on symbolic and cultural forces, which in turn are centred on intellectual stimulus, motivation and personal example leadership. Educational leadership is the ability to put collegial co-operation into practice, as opposed to hierarchical bureaucracy (Murphy, 1994). The move towards the concept of educational leadership demands a change from the "one person" management approach to that of team leadership (Inbar 2000, Gonnem and Zaki 1999). Team leadership is not a process of passing on responsibility to others, rather that the ethics of educational decision making must be a central element in educational leadership.

The principal's role

When looking at the work of management within the school system, it is vital to relate to the role of the principal. The head is placed in a special position of power and he or she is bound by legal responsibilities. King (1998) notes that the principal is to a large extent, responsible for devising and maintaining the school as a formal organisation and so his or her school becomes the expression of his or her authority. Due to the changing role of the

principal, it is not possible, however, to give a detailed analysis of the work of the head as organisational leader. In normal conditions, the head is the main focus of management activity in the school but there are certain constraints relating to the setting, history and context of the school.

There are number of situations where the principal lacks freedom to implement important ideas and activities within the school, due to the management structure of the school. In the ORT network, the school principal comes under the auspices of the ORT area inspector responsible for several schools in the locality. The inspector and the principal do not always agree with each other on the approach towards running the school. Even more so, when the principal makes a strategic decision, which is opposed to the opinion of the inspector, the inspector has the right to fire him/her. (There was an extreme case in ORT Biniamina whereby the principal was relieved of his post due to different approaches in policy). This approach has been observed elsewhere. Burgess (1984) sees that principals do not have the freedom to do what they like, but have to operate within the constraints of their local education authority.

In addition, the style defines the imposed form of social interaction between the head and those who are controlled by the head. When a decision is accepted by the staff and proposed by the head, the joint action will proceed with stability and regularity. In the case where an action is unacceptable to the staff, there will be strained relationships, lack of co-operation and lack of personal commitment. Most leadership styles require a greater or lesser degree of mutual alignment between leader and lead, and as the process of joint action proceeds, mutual adjustment, compromise and negotiation all play a part in the career of the social relationship (Ball 1984, p. 83).

Research produced on the subject of effective schools, defines the principal of an effective school as an educational leader, as opposed to that of simply being manager whose role is that of organiser of school activities, providing resources and problem solving, as mentioned by Gaziel (1993, p.16). Pedagogical leadership is a main factor in school success (Pasternack and Goldring, 1991). It is possible to implement pedagogy through the use of individuals who are professionals in their role, but demand a leader who possesses charisma and vision (Robbins 2000). On the other hand, principals can play a major role in a degree of implementation regarding certain new innovations (Hall

1988, pp.49-59). Principals in fact, may be concerned with a new innovation that relates to their background interest. He or she is not likely to favour innovations where they do not have a personal interest (Busher 1995). The principal's personal interests can be presented, whereby he/she is able to place him/herself in a high position within the ORT hierarchy. There are situations whereby the principal encourages innovation in order to promote his/her school, as well as members of staff. This situation is commented on by Smith and Andrews (1989, p.29) who found that 'strong instructional leaders' spent a proportionately large amount of time on improvement and innovation.

A different approach noted by Hall and Hord (1987) found that effective principals were involved in an active way in bringing about change. It is true when a variety of reforms are involved, success is achieved by a number of direct and indirect ways. One of the means of promoting implementation is by forcing the system to make change, as was done in Israel in 1968 with the Reform Act, whereby the Ministry of Education forced the implementation of six-year schools. This was done in order to promote integration. Another way of implementing change is by preparing the groundwork before imposing any innovations. The ability to cope with change is strongly reflected in the type of principal, whether he/she is strong or weak. This point is mentioned by Hopkins (1994), and Stoll and Fink (1992/1994) who claim that effective principals have to be extremely strong in order to cope with changes to the staff and school organisation.

Smith and Andrews (1989) have produced research on seven effective instructional leaders. Although their characters were in some ways different, with some being strong and aggressive, while others being quiet and supportive, they all paid attention to the three areas given by Smith and Andrews. These are in the area of resources giver, instructional resources communicator and lastly the physical presence of the principal. Each of the principals used different methods and styles but they were all effective instructional leaders. However, together with this it is necessary to examine the level of achievement perceived by the various principals. In any event, where there is a change of management style or methodology, there will inevitably be a change in the level of achievement, even in the case of effective principals (Friedman 1992). Some principals may place an emphasis on open communication, as well as team support, while others will place an emphasis on implementation of high goals. Fullan (1991) points out that it is the basic behaviour of the principal that provides efficiency. A junior-high and high

school principal who encourages high performance goals, open communication, a high level of support and rigid values indicates that these qualities can lead to the success for integration (Friedman 1995).

A further viewpoint regarding the principal's role is the relationship between school culture and school success. Leithwood and Jantzi (1990, p.22) have researched the area relating to the culture of the school and the school's success. Those principals that were successful and effective used the following approaches. They encouraged the school improvement culture, they reinforced cultural change, promoted staff development, established communication regarding cultural norms, values and beliefs, shared responsibility with others, as well as using symbols to express cultural values. Some are more or less directive and some outspoken and loud. However, it must be noted that effective principals promote continuous improvement within the school.

To sum up the principal's role section, it is necessary to maintain that change is not perceived by the implementation of single innovations, it is by changing the culture and structure of the school. Of course, that means that the principal's role is essential as head of the organisation (Lortie 1987). If the principal does not direct school culture and lead changes in the culture, then successful integration will not occur.

To sum up, the above section presented the differences between leadership and management whereby management relates to processes and structures whilst leadership is often linked to vision, objectives, values and ethos. The section also dealt with the two types of leadership – transformational and transactional with the aim of presenting an additional dimension of individual leadership regarding the impact of leadership and management style on integration. The section described Sergiovanni's model of leadership, which relates to five forces of leadership and their connection to their impact on school success. The section concluded with the principal's role in order to present the impact of the principal on the process of integration. The following section deals with management styles and presents Bush's theory and the Blake and Mouton model of management style.

Management Styles

Introduction

This section discusses the Blake and Mouton (1985) model of management style, which underpins a great deal of theory on management and leadership style. In addition, the six types of management style of Bush (1995) are presented. One of the purposes of this research is to examine the management style of the school, emanating from the principals and teachers. It is therefore necessary to consider the conceptualization of management styles, which allow different elements of style to be identified.

Blake and Mouton's model of management

Blake and Mouton (1985) noted that managers are not only divided into a class where they are concerned only about getting results, or only about relationships, but are analysed on the basis of the relative importance of people and tasks. It is feasible to be concerned about both together. In other words, getting the best results through good working relationships. This model of management was chosen for the research project due to the fact that the purpose of the research is to examine the problems of integration within the six-year framework. Due to the fact that the six-year framework consists of two schools with two different principals, the junior-high school principal is likely to be concerned for people as opposed to the high school principal who is likely to be concerned with tasks.

According to Blake and Mouton (1985), it is possible to present the relationship between achieving results and positive working relationships in a two-dimensional grid. Dunham (1995, p.35) explains the grid presented by Blake and Mouton as shown in Figure 2.1.

Point 1/1 shows the least concern for people, in order to achieve the result, which is of the lowest level. Point 1/9 which is at the top left corner of the scale, shows that a positive and friendly atmosphere provides a good working relationship, which does not necessarily result in high performance. Point 9/1 – at this point on the grid, is a negative relationship where feelings are ignored and the prime importance is in achieving the set goal. Point 5/5 which appears in the middle, shows a mediocre level of working relationships and task achievement, where those involved are considered to be neither creative or innovative but rather steady, reliable and conscientious. The top level of 9/9 is whereby there is a high sense of respect and trust within working relationships and there

is also a high sense of achievement in task aims. Members of staff are involved in decision-making, which in turn achieves the set aims. (Seen as 'ideal'). A leader high in consideration could be described as one who helps subordinates with personal problems, is friendly and approachable, and treats all subordinates as equals.

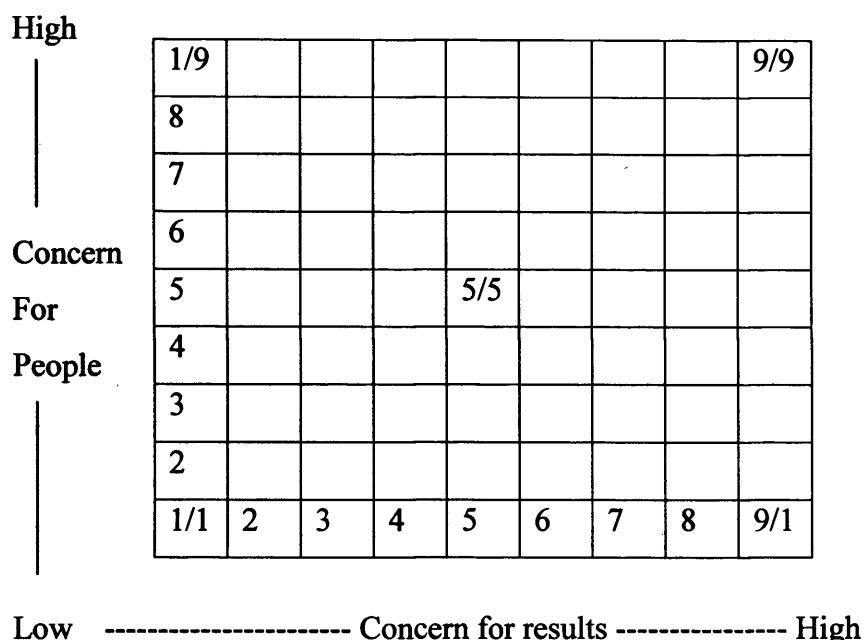


Figure 2.1: The Blake and Mouton grid (adapted from Dunham, 1995, p.35)

The question is asked, which type of leadership style promotes the success of integration, whether it is the leadership style aimed to advance inter-personal relationships – people oriented (consideration) or a management style which aims to achieve objectives – task oriented. The people oriented style of management could be interpreted as a weakness of the principal regarding teachers' demands, whilst on the other hand it could be used for advancing a positive response from the members of staff regarding their professional expectations. The task oriented style of leadership can create a basis for professional relationships between the principal and his or her staff, whilst on the other hand it can also create a barrier in advancing the principal's objectives (Robbins 1997, Gaziel 1993).

Research on school success has suggested that effective principals practice good human relations. Blase (1987, p.594) found that teachers viewed effective principals as those who were considerate, that is, they "recognise people and enhance their work satisfactions and self-esteem". It has been suggested that a major difference between effective and ineffective schools is that good human relations are not allowed to displace

management procedures viewed necessary to achieve educational outcomes (Fraser, 1982). In reality, it seems that the effective school principal is able to strike a balance between two leadership approaches and adapt the dominant orientation to the context.

The following presents the six central theories of educational management style mentioned by Bush (1995).

The six management conceptual styles

Bush (1995) presents six central theories of educational management style, which are inter-linked and inter-related. It is not expected that one model will be found in one school but rather that there will be a plurality of styles (Ribbins, 1985, p.223, Firestone 1985). The six models were chosen for the research project due to the fact that the imposed change to the six-year framework emphasises uncertainty, instability and complexity within the framework. In addition, the signals from outside groups are unclear, leading to confusion inside the school (ambiguity management style). The new framework emphasises conflicts and stress amongst the teachers of the two schools (political management style) as well as differences of interpretation between the principals and other staff (subjective management style). The six-year framework is likely to influence the values and beliefs of the staff (cultural management style). The collegial and bureaucratic management styles are also examined through the research project, due to the fact that the junior-high school principal's management style is likely to be collegial whilst the high school principal's management style is likely to be bureaucratic. The six models are as follows:

- The bureaucratic model.
- The collegial model.
- The political model.
- The subjective model.
- The ambiguity model.
- The cultural model.

Bureaucratic style of management

According to the **bureaucratic** model, organisations try to achieve goals which are set by their leaders. Their aim is to operate through imposing order and obedience to the rules, in a hierarchical structure headed by an authoritative leader who is in charge and who

rules the organisation. The principal usually sets goals, which the staff carries out without question. Ferguson (1980, p.535) says that leaders have special authority whereby they work towards the common goal. One of the aspects of bureaucratic decision and behaviour is through the use of rules and regulations. This is opposed to the approach of personal initiative. The rules allow for uniformity and continuity even when there is staff turnover. This allows for stability where there are rules to govern both pupils' and teachers' behaviour.

Weber (1989) claimed that bureaucracy is the most efficient management style. In Weber's model bureaucracy appears as a system, which emphasizes loyalty to the rules and standard operation defined areas of authority. A similar form of bureaucracy can be found in the authoritarian style based on the Friedman model (1993). Inbar (2000) claims that most of the high schools in Israel belong to Weber's definition of bureaucracy due to hierarchy, rules and regulations, sharing of work, impersonal activities and the use of technical criteria regarding employment (Sergiovanni 1984, Gonen and Zaki 1999). According to this definition of bureaucratic style, the organisation's tasks are divided amongst the various jobholders. There is a clear division of work, which enables high expertise. The roles are organised in an authoritative graded structure, usually in the shape of a pyramid, whereby the head of the year is in charge of the general educational subjects as well as the class teachers. This is opposed to the head of department who is in charge of the professional teachers. The form of a pyramid is whereby people in authority are responsible to those in command for performing their duties satisfactorily (Gaziel 1997). In schools this refers to the teachers who have to answer to the principal.

According to Livingstone (1984, p.9), bureaucracy is a result of the fact that as organisations become more complex and their size increases, it is inevitable that a more formal system of regulation will be used. The researcher of this project has seen that large and complex schools, such as those of the six-year framework do not always follow the rules and regulations of a rigid formal system. On occasion, there is need for a less formal style of management and more of a need for a collegial approach. This is in order to promote co-operation amongst all the parties involved. Hierarchical bureaucratic structures are likely to exist in organisations which operate in a stable environment and which have clear goals. However, today there is a real tendency in schools to decrease bureaucracy and limit hierarchy (Cashty 2000, Gibton 2000). In a situation where there is

a lack of stability, the members of the organisation are found to be confused and uncertain regarding their personal futures as well as that of the organisation. From this approach it can be seen that it is difficult to implement any form of hierarchy in an unstable environment.

Collegial style of management

The second model, the **collegial** model, is normatively considered to be the best style for managing educational institutions (Bush 1995, Inbar 2000). The collegial model's assumption is that organisations determine a policy and make decisions through a process of discussion, which leads to a consensus and power is divided among several of the organisation's members who understand the goals of the institution (Bush 1995, Cashty 2000). According to this model, work is conducted based on a value system, which is common to all of the organisation's members. The decision making process entitles discussions which lead to a decision on which there is a consensus. The model enables openness and a re-examination of operational methods at school. The manager has to adopt a democratic style, which encourages the staff to participate actively in the shaping of the school. Some theoreticians see the advantages of this model in the willingness of the teachers to become more involved in running their school (Davies, 1983). In other words, the teachers feel that they are part of the school system. The teachers are partners in the decision making process and therefore the implementation of decisions becomes more efficient. Collegiality means that teachers, in fact, take part in decision making as well. Campbell and Southworth (1993) claim that this approach is the most suitable for operating educational organisations, as it combines consistency in the process. They assume that there will be collegiality when the staff works in a school whose culture is cohesive and whose beliefs about society and education are common to all the participants. On the other hand, it is not easy to find members of staff who hold a similar opinion, in particular in the age of post-modern pluralism (Tzifroni 2001).

One of the benefits of collegiality is that the professionalism of the members of staff allows for natural respect regarding other teacher's ability, which involves a degree of collaborative activity. According to Noble and Pym (1970, p.433), teacher's professionalism goes beyond their own individual spheres and into the area of organisational planning. The rights of the teachers in this situation need to be respected and consulted, as well as being part of the system.

Bush (1995, p.53, and Inbar 2000, p.53) say that in order for the members of staff to be involved in the decision making process, the school must set common values. This is not a natural role of any institution but in fact the leader is the one who encourages and defines common beliefs. The common ideal can only be put into operation when there are obtainable objectives and this in turn will pave the way for integration and school success (Campbell and Southworth 1993, p.66). This is done through shared values and beliefs (Bush, 1995, p.54). In smaller schools it is much easier for teachers to be involved in the decision making process. On the other hand, in the six-year school staff meetings generally go against collegiality when all members of staff are present. Each member of staff has an interest in presenting his/her opinion on the subject discussed and occasionally presenting an opinion that opposes the views of other members of staff, during the course of discussion (Friedman 1992). The concept of collegiality recognises that there will be differences of opinion but decisions are arrived at through consensus, as opposed to conflict. Decision-making that uses consensus is one of the main aspects of collegiality (Bush, 1995, Tzifroni 2001).

Collegial approaches to decision making tend to be slow. Critics of the collegial method point at its disadvantages in that the system cannot cope with conflicts. It ignores previous continuous struggles for agreement, whereby agreement is the victory of one group over the other groups (Busher and Saran 1995). Coleman (1994), supports the idea of collegial management in an educational institution, yet she claims that the transfer of autonomy to schools sometimes acts against cooperation, as the changes which are introduced, are followed by increased bureaucracy, a functional division of roles, a preference of a system of rules relating to rights and functions and not to relationships, as well as an emphasis on the manager's responsibility.

Baldrige (1978, p.33), criticized the collegial model regarding higher education, whereby reality does not allow for consensus of round the table decision-making. Decision-making will inevitably be prolonged where there is collegiality. Schools are in fact complex organisations. The principal is able to point to competing and conflicting bodies, which may be involved in decision-making. Often there are conflicting interests that will invariably involve numerous meetings which are time consuming and stressful. The collegial approach involves a high level of inter-personal contact, which is connected

to getting acceptance from most members of staff. This is not only time consuming during school time but involves the giving up of a teacher's free time in order to continue discussions after school. This style of management is totally opposed to that of the bureaucratic style whereby the principal makes all major decisions, without consulting members of staff. Hellawell (1991, p.335) noticed that such collegial structures are very time-consuming and that within certain levels of education, it is not possible to devote so many hours outside of school time to meetings. The success or failure of the collegial approach (Campbell 1985; Bush 1995) has much to do with the attitude of staff regarding the process of decision-making. With a staff that wants to be involved and is open minded, flexible, and agrees to democratic decisions, there is a strong possibility that the collegial approach will succeed. Success will be minimal when the staff is hostile or resent approaches that are collaborative (Bush, 1995, p.69).

Political style of management

Another theory of management which is analysed by Bush, is the **political** theory, most closely associated with the work of Hoyle (1986). It is based on the assumption that there is conflict at the base of each organisation. First and foremost this model is against the principle that the functioning of the social system depends on a consensus about goals, targets and values. Those who represent this model claim that it is impossible to maintain a society in which all the members share the same values and goals (the disadvantage of the collegial management style). It seems that the values, which are widespread in a society, are those imposed by a certain group on another group or on other groups (Hoyle, 1986, Bacharach 1980). This approach claims that educational organisations and their regulations are a result of this coercion. The political theory emphasizes conflict and thus prevents the possibility of cooperation as it is expressed, in collegial theory. At the centre of the political theory stands the relationship between the groups, in contrast to the bureaucratic and collegial theory, which emphasizes the institution. Bolman and Deal (1984) claim that many educators are wary of the political theory as the cynicism and the lack of morality of this approach are contrary to values, and every educational institution is based on its own system of values.

The basic concept of the political model is of major importance rather than the school itself (Becher and Kogan 1992). Within political approaches interaction is between groups, especially within the six-year school, whereby there are two different teams. This

is opposed to formal and collegial models, which stress the level of the whole institution (Glatter 1982, p.16). Professional interests are defined as those concerned with curriculum, teaching methods and pupils grouping, whereas personal interests reflect working conditions, promotion, status etc (Hoyle 1986, p.128). Hoyle maintains that interest groups are a major way of achieving individual interests. This is usually done by the use of collaboration amongst individuals who have a common goal. Some of these may show a form of cohesion while others will only come together occasionally where there is a common aim. The difficulty here is that teachers feel that their own responsibility lies with their department rather than the school itself. Hargreaves (1994) has called this concept "Balkanization" of teaching (Gibton 2000, Fullan 1994). This situation particularly applies to the case whereby there is a conflict of interests between advancing technological subjects as opposed to advancing subjects on the humanities level (as within the six-year school).

Bush (1995) noted that the goals within political organisations are ambiguous and problematic. Achievement by individuals and interest groups are a result of certain coalitions following their own aims. A problem may arise that goals can be conflicting. Disagreement arises as a result of conflict regarding the aims of individual units and the overall aims of the total organisation. Cyert (1975, p.28) added that a never-ending process within organisations is that of the disagreement over goals. According to this approach which means it is not possible to reach a common agreement it is not possible to implement a collegial style of management, which is based on common agreement.

Decision-making is likely to be established by the relative power of the various individuals and interest groups involved in the process of decision-making (Bush 1995, p.77). The individuals use aspects of power to support their own policy, which in turn determines decision-making. According to Mangham (1979, p.17), the direct result of power is seen by decisions in action within the organisation, as a result of political movement.

Morgan (1986, p.148) sees political behaviour in terms of relationships that involve interests, conflict and power. This kind of organisational politics arises as a result of people thinking differently and wanting to act differently. This is seen as various kinds of power play (Inbar 2000). Power play may lessen the impact of action within the

organisation, with each member of the organisation demonstrating his/her strength instead of dealing with educational goals (Inbar 2000). In power play there are situations whereby it is necessary to have an interchange of ideas in order to receive any missing information.

Subjective style of management

Another identified model of management is the **subjective** model (Bush 1995 and others, particularly Greenfield).

"The pre-existing norms in society are formed, primarily, as a result of each individual's preference of his needs" (Greenfield 1973, p. 570).

According to this model the reason for educational organisation in a set up, such as a school, is based on the individual's needs being catered for. The theory focuses on the members of the organisation as individuals who reflect different values and aspirations and who interpret the organisation's activities differently.

The subjective theory is based on the work of Greenfield (1973, p. 571), who claims that:

"The wish to see the organisation as an entity with a life of its own, prevents us from seeing the complexity and the variety of organisations, which people build around themselves".

This theory claims that each individual has a subjective and selective perception of the organisation. A different interpretation of the activities and situations of the organisation emphasizes the priority of the individual's goals and denies the validity of the perception, which deals with the organisation's goals.

Bush (1995, p. 93) notes that individuals have prime importance in the subjective model, as opposed to those areas that focus on the institution itself. Here the individual is at the centre of the organisation. Of the various individuals who make up the organisation, each has a subjective and selective perception of the institution. The individuals within the organisation view events and situations from a personal viewpoint. Hoyle (1986, p.10) claims that the subjective model gives priority to people and their actions (people oriented). The main aspect of this concept is that within the social world people interact with one another, whereby they form patterns of relationships and build their own image of the world around them.

Hodgkinson (1993) claims that Greenfield's theory is a major concept in understanding the modern theory behind individual educational management due to the fact that organisational theory places an emphasis on the individual's understanding of behaviour, as opposed to the situation and action themselves. The perceptions of those involved in the organisation tend to be unrealistic as the institution is often extremely complex (Bush 1995, p.94). Hoyle (1991) draws attention to the fact that the school principal views his/her school separately, as opposed to the view of the teachers. There are competing realities whereby the teachers and the principal each have their own perspectives regarding reality.

Ambiguity style of management

The **ambiguity** theory, (Bush 1995), regards educational organisations as operating on a basis of changing ideas, through trial and error. Uncertainty and unpredictability in organisations can be summed up by the use of ambiguity models. Institutional life is extremely complex with a great deal of instability. Within this theory is the belief that institutions have problems in setting their priorities. Within the organisation, sub-units, such as the junior-high school team within the six-year framework, are seen as autonomous groups. They are only connected to each other and the institution itself, in a loose manner. Decision-making happens within formal and informal situations where there is a great deal of mobility. Policy making groups contain members who are extremely mobile and participate according to the subject being discussed and the interest of the individuals.

During periods of change ambiguity is a very strong element within schools. A group of theorists, mostly from the U.S.A, developed ambiguity models in the 1970s. They developed these models as they found the formal models inappropriate for many organisations, especially during periods of instability. Educational institutions are the ideal setting for supporting ambiguity models.

Within the educational environment, such as the six-year school, there are many demands relating to change and movement. The best example of demand relating to change within the six-year school is the integration of the two schools. Many organisations do not have clearly defined goals (Friedman 1992). Their objectives are inconsistent and unclear. In the situation where there is a lack of clear definition regarding the aims of the school, the

members of staff are unaware of the aims and therefore unable to co-operate in situations that are not clearly defined. Ambiguity models see goals as being very vague and almost any behaviour is acceptable (Yassur 1998).

The aims of the organisation only become clear, as a result of the behaviour of members of the organisation. According to Cohen and March (1986), theories of choice have certain requirements that do not fit in with the goals of an organisation. In other words, organisations tend to use inconsistent and unclear models. Instead of calling an organisation a coherent structure it can be considered as a loose collection of changing ideas. It is very common for educational institutions not to have clearly defined objectives, or alternatively, written and actual goals that are different. This is due to the fact that teachers are able to identify their own educational purposes and to behave and function accordingly. Teachers work independently most of the time, and they are able to follow their own interests. As a result of this, it is thought that schools do not have clearly defined aims. According to Bell (1989, p. 134) different goals are seen by the various members of staff and they set different priorities to the same goals. There is a problem of ambiguity in that although the achievement of educational goals should be of major importance, in practice it is not central to the functioning of the school. There are a number of cases whereby the principal is constantly looking at "putting out fires", (Gonen and Zaki 1999), and preventing any kind of eruption. As a result, he/she has no time to establish and achieve the school's goals, in particular, where there is an unstable and ambiguous environment.

The acquisition of knowledge is an unclear process as claimed by Bell (1980, p. 188):

"Teachers are often unsure about what it is they want their pupils to learn, about what it is the pupils have learnt about and how, if at all learning has actually taken place".

Due to the inadequacy of the understanding of learning processes, effective learning by pupils is not understood. Therefore, as a result of related technology being unclear, the processes of technology and learning become ambiguous.

The terms fragmentation and loose coupling are used a great deal by individuals discussing ambiguity theories. Common values and goals provide unity for specific groups within the institution. Weick (1976, p. 3) uses the term 'loose coupling' when

describing what occurs between sub-units. In the six-year framework, the two schools do not always share the same values and goals (Beheri 1997). This is in fact one of the problems within the six-year framework. Formal models presume that problems appear and solutions are automatically found. Within the ambiguity models this rarely happens. This is due to the lack of agreed goals and clear aims. As a result of various situations arising and the general feelings of confusion, decisions are made. According to Bell (1980, p. 190), the solutions and decisions are not formed according to a common aim. They come together as a result of linking together problems, solutions, participants and choices in conditions of ambiguity. As a result, the final solution and the related problems are very seldom connected. It is necessary to make the point that in the case where there is no connection between the solution and the problem, the ambiguity state takes preference and causes frustration amongst the members of the organisation, up to the point whereby the system takes advantage of one of the positive aspects within it. In other words, it can be beneficial to have a loosely coupled system whereby individual problems do not have a knock on effect. This is known as decentralisation. Decentralisation is one of the advantages of the ambiguity models. As organisations are complex and unpredictable, it is believed that sub-units and individuals need to make many of their own decisions.

Generally speaking departments are relatively coherent and are able to adapt quickly to changing circumstances. As professional staff use their own initiative in dealing with a situation, it is seen suitable to use individual and departmental autonomy. This is particularly suitable for successful departments but is problematic for weaker ones. According to Weick (1976, p. 7), if there is a breakdown in one portion of a loosely coupled system then this breakdown is sealed off and does not effect other portions of the organisation. Weick adds that when any element misfires or decays or deteriorates, the spread of this deterioration is checked in a loosely coupled system. In other words, a loosely coupled system can isolate its trouble spots and prevent the trouble from spreading. This situation depends on the principal pinpointing trouble spots, in order to prevent the spread of those problem areas (Gonnen and Zaki 1999).

Cultural style of management

The last model outlined by Bush (1995) is the **cultural** model. Informal aspects of the organisation can be emphasized and paid particular reference to by the use of cultural models. The shared organisational meanings are reflected by the values, beliefs and norms of individuals within the organisation. The use of symbols and rituals reflect the culture of the organisation as well as through a formal structure. At the centre of organisations are the beliefs, values and ideology that are considered to be the heart of cultural models. Individuals behave in a certain way and view the behaviour of other members due to certain ideas and a set of values. Including values and attitudes in schools produces a balanced picture of an educational institution. Harling (1989, p.20) notes that every organisation has a formally instituted pattern and an official body of rules and procedures, which are intended to aid the achievement of those goals. In other words, a school that places emphasis on cultural aspects within the curriculum also includes formal elements, which promote the school's goals.

Schools are often thought of as being special by the fact that generally speaking, they are becoming self-managing units. Within this concept Caldwell and Spinks (1992) maintain that self-management promotes a specific form of culture where leaders are given power as well as taking responsibility. One of the major features of culture is the emphasis on the values and beliefs of people within the organisation. These values are not always put into words because the members of the specific group understand and share certain beliefs. The dominant culture within the organisation is the one that is not always in harmony with that of the values of the individual (Tzifroni 2001, Friedman 1993)).

Various types of culture

Morgan (1986), in fact, sees that schools do not belong to one specific type of culture. The ideal situation is maybe when all aspects of culture are interrelated. All types of culture that are interrelated provide a positive environment for change. This is an ideal situation but not necessarily a realistic one. Different types of culture do not automatically bond together. According to Sergiovanni (1984, p. 8), in large comprehensive organisations e.g. universities and schools, it is possible to find more than one culture. There are a number of subcultures in universities and schools, where sub-units want to encourage and keep their own values. This concept is related to multicultural societies where there are various forms of subcultures, which in turn

provide their own conflicts and tensions as each tries to maintain its own individuality and uniqueness.

According to Fullan and Hargreaves (1992, pp. 71-72), some schools maintain that culture is formed of individual groups, which occasionally compete with each other. A natural formation occurs whereby teachers place their loyalties to particular groups of their colleagues. They usually identify with those members of staff they work closely with and with whom they spend most of their time. The fact that such groups exist in the six-year school means that these groups often reflect a certain approach towards learning, teaching and the curriculum.

It is possible that several subcultures exist in a school, which are based on professional and personal interests. Within this group there is strong internal cohesion whereby interrelationship with other groups is often difficult. According to Pfeffer (1981) there has to be a sense of interrelationship between the structure and culture in order for there to be effective and efficient support. Research on school management teams in England and Wales (Wallace and Hall, 1994, pp. 28 and 127), shows that senior management teams have clearly defined internal norms but have weak connection to other groups and individuals. This model of culture shows loyalty to a department, or other unit, rather than to the school or college as a whole. There are certain situations in some schools in Israel where one of the members of the management team is both a head of department and part of the management team. In management team meetings, this individual may be interested in promoting his/her own department as opposed to the overall aims of the school (Tzifroni 2001).

Summary of leadership and management styles

In this section various types of management styles were discussed. They included the Blake and Mouton model as well as the six types of management style (Bush 1995). It appears that bureaucratic management style could be linked to that of task oriented management style, whereby collegial management style could be linked to people oriented management style. Political, ambiguity and cultural management styles could be linked to both people and task oriented styles of management. The types of management styles presented in this section will be used by the researcher of this project in analysing the management style of the various principals. We can conclude that no one school will

be represented by one model of management (Ribbins 1985). Each of them will have elements of several models within them.

The next section deals with school culture covered in the second area of the literature review. School culture is related to the third and fourth research questions covered. They are as follows:

What do the principals and teachers perceive as the impact of school culture on integration?

What are the principals and teachers' perceptions of the impact of social interaction between teacher teams, on the integration process?

School Culture

Introduction

This section focuses on two particular models of school culture and relates to the third and fourth research questions. The first model is based on Hargreaves' (1995) model of school culture. This model was chosen for the research project due to the fact that the six-year framework, which consists of two individual schools, is likely to have some level of social cohesion and social control. The second model is based on Friedman (1988), which takes account of the external context of the school, and will be discussed in relation to school culture with the aim of linking school culture to management style. Firstly, general aspects of culture are discussed, where the last part of this section deals with a particular aspect of culture, namely social interaction amongst the teachers of the six-year school.

Organisational culture

A school is an organisation in a social and administrative context. As an organisation it is possible to analyse the behaviour of the people in it, in terms of organisational culture. It is difficult to define culture, but some of the different aspects, which are most relevant to the thesis, are presented here. At the present time, literature consists of three major groups for the definition of organisational culture. One group is defined in the following terms:

"Symbols, atmosphere, myths and ceremonies" (Martin and Powers 1983; Trace and Beyer 1983).

This above definition appears in many research articles and helps to define the concept of organisational culture. Those professionals who are unwilling to accept this definition claim that this definition does not cover all the required aspects of a particular organization. The second group defines organisational culture more widely. Schein (1985) and Turner (1990) note that within organisational culture, it is possible to include norms, values and rules of management. It is possible to add management operation to those factors, as well as the atmosphere and environment within the organisation. The third and last group relates the term of organisational culture to the concept of shared beliefs and expectations of all workers.

According to Pettigrew (1989), shared beliefs create social norms and behaviours within the organization, which in turn, conditions individual and group behaviour. Conway (1985) claims that a lot of research into this area relates to the term as a concept of values and beliefs. These values and beliefs are put into action with the help of symbols, language, ideology, myths and ceremonies (Dimmock 2000). A number of researchers make the point that without culture, the organization is unable to maintain its status and power for a lengthy period of time (Siel and Martin 1981; Tichy 1982). It is believed that organisational culture is what individual beliefs emanate from. It is possible for there to be a wide range of individual beliefs due to the fact that each group of teachers believes in a different approach with their own various goals and aims. This is often in conflict with those presented by the school (Dana 1993). In this situation, several cultures exist in the school, in particular within the six-year framework whereby there are in fact two individual schools. This is likely to happen when the teachers and other members of staff give their primary loyalty to the departments rather than the organisation itself. There is then the existence of different cultures.

Fullan and Hargreaves (1992, pp. 71-2), note that a 'balkanised' culture is developed by some schools which is made up of separate groups:

"Teachers in balkanised cultures attach their loyalties and identities to particular groups of their colleagues. They are usually colleagues with whom they work most closely, spend most time, and socialise most often in the staff room. The existence of such groups in a school often reflects and reinforces very different group outlooks on learning, teaching styles, discipline and curriculum".

The concept of different cultural values may be particularly significant in technical education with its commitment to specialised subjects. The principal in formulating strategy has to be sensitive to the values and beliefs of the staff. According to Schneider and Barsoux (1997, p. 108), the strategic management process is problematic:

"Where there are multiple cultures, rationality in decision-making is limited, or ... culture – bound".

Shared norms and meanings are a result of the development of the culture. Within the system the interaction amongst people within the group or in the subgroup, reflect the cultural features of the school.

Beare's definition of culture includes all the various components:

"Culture as the knowledge, beliefs, values, customs, moral, rituals, symbols and language of a group". (Beare, et al, 1983).

Three modes mentioned by Beare (1989, p. 176), symbolise culture. The first is conceptual expressed by the use of language and an expression of organisational goals. The second is of behavioral, which is expressed in terms of rituals, ceremonies, rules, support mechanisms, and patterns of social interaction. The third is visual, which is expressed in terms of facilities, equipment, mottoes, crests and uniforms.

A different dimension of school culture is the basic assumption of the role of the organisation. The basic assumptions are the accepted ways, methods, and principles of the meaning of the school (Bennett 1993). Its not always possible to find teachers who are in agreement with all the principles presented by the school, particularly when there is imposed change which may be perceived as harming the teachers. In a situation where teachers are harmed by enforced change, there is a possible conflict regarding the aims of the school. This conflict may also cause an unpleasant atmosphere in the school as well as lack of shared norms, which in fact is a basic concept of school culture (Beare 1983, Hoyle 1986). The situation of imposed change on the six-year school is an example of teachers in both schools who have been forced to work in a new environment. From this point, it is possible to lead into the difficulties encountered within the six-year framework mentioned earlier.

Within organisational culture it is possible to find some elements which can be reflected in the way the members of the organisation view their working environment and atmosphere - "the personality" of the organisation. Each individual has his own perception of his work requirements, as well as his own functionality within the work environment. Friedman (1988), reports that in certain schools the members of staff and principals reflect a positive and secure environment, which is in turn reflected by the

pupils in their enjoyment of the school. Opposed to these schools are schools where the principal tries to hide his or her own professional inadequacy by a display of power and authority but which in reality does no way help them solve problems within the school (Kenworthy 1994). This negative atmosphere provides the students with a sense of despair. In other schools, there is no evidence of particular happiness or sadness. Sargeant (1987, p.3) claims that it is possible to envisage the school culture/climate in relationship to the personality of the school. In the same way as an individual's personality defines a person's character, the school culture reflects the essence of the institution and the interpersonal relationship between members of staff in the organisation. Hoy and Miskel (1982) define the school culture as a final product of the activities of the members of staff, pupils and management team. It is possible to add that the aim of these activities within the school is to provide a balance between the organisational and individual aspects within the school. These activities should include a balance between shared and common values, social beliefs, as well as social integration. This is likely to exist within the collegial organisation, which was discussed in the section relating to management style.

The following presents the theory related to school culture.

School culture

Whereas organisational culture theory focuses on the management of an organisation, school culture tends to focus more on teachers and pupils, and social interaction amongst the members of staff, as well as the relationship between principals and teachers (Metz 1991, MacGilchrist 1995). Rutter (1979) claims that the terms used in the concept of school culture are generally related to people and ethos. School culture incorporates moral values, beliefs, customs traditions, attitudes, rituals as well as written and oral rules. School culture is dynamic and has an influence on all those who are connected to it. However, by its very make up, it is constantly being redesigned as a result of new members joining it e.g. when a new pupil enters the system, he or she has to get used to the culture and vice versa.

Israeli society is a good example of a wide variety of beliefs, customs, rituals and ceremonies due to the ethnic background of its population who emanate both from the east and west. In many cases, the pupils' mother tongue is not Hebrew, rather the language that their parents spoke before their arrival in Israel. The six-year framework

provides an illustration of an organisation whereby both established members of staff and newcomers are forced to come together into a different culture. In other words, the high school has been present on the same campus, with a large number of established members of staff who placed a high emphasis on academic achievement and high standards in the matriculation examination (Chen 1997, Friedman 1992). This approach is opposed to the members of staff of the junior-high school who are not only new in the system but view the pupils in terms of child centred education and relating to the individual needs of the pupils (Cashty 1997, Beheri 1997, Maw 1977). The newcomers have to get used to a different culture or retain the culture that they were accustomed to in the past. This creates a cultural conflict within the six-year system (Fullan and Hargreaves 1992). Within schools, the behaviour and attitudes are paramount to the school system. They are however not necessarily well defined. Nias (1989) notes that beliefs are indeed so deeply buried that individuals do not even know what they are. Within schools there exists the concept of staff culture and pupil culture. Woods (1983) claims that the pupils' social behaviour and their personal interests make up pupil culture. Woods (1983) also notes that staff culture consists of professional ideology and power struggles between teachers and pupils.

A further point mentioned by Prosser (1999) is that in modern times the interest has been on teacher culture when in the past the emphasis has been on student culture. School culture with a more specific emphasis of teacher and student culture and the relationships between them, needs to be an integral part or concept within the school's success studies (Deal 1982). However, it is difficult to combine the ethnographic approaches used in culture with quantitative studies used in the measurement of schools' success research. School culture is generally measured by using a qualitative approach, which is opposed to quantitative studies whereby exam results are measured.

Rutter (1979), used the idea of ethos, which is a common term used in the teaching profession and linked the notion of school culture with the benefits for the school. School success has been defined by Mortimore (1980, p.68) by considering the elements of school success and the relationship of these elements. Schools are institutions of vast complexity whereby teachers and pupils influence each other and vice versa. There are many kinds of behaviour in the institution, as well as various causes of this behaviour.

The result of these various interactions, whether it is the influence of a particular teacher, the school environment and its policy, or even other pupils is known as the school ethos.

On the other hand, Tagiuri (1988) defines culture and atmosphere within the school as the environmental quality within the school. In the same way as Tagiuri defines these concepts, Moos and Insel (1974) define culture as the social ecological culture of the organisation, which according to this definition shows that interpersonal relationships are influenced by physical and social environmental dimensions. In recent years, school culture has been used as a standard of measurement in relation to school healthiness (Hoy and Tarter (1992). This school healthiness is measured by the honesty of those employed by the school, the atmosphere of responsibility, consideration of fellow workers, support of the principal for his members of staff, teachers' morale and the emphasis on academic achievement factors which are used in the research project regarding the link between school culture and management style.

The theories of school culture can be defined by four different environments (Friedman, 1989, Grosin 1991). The four environments are as follows. The first is the social environment, which is made up of the social interaction amongst pupils and members of staff. The second is the organisational environment, which is made up of the level of communication between the principal and members of staff, personal relationships between members of staff and the management team, as well as inspection and backup by the principal. The third is the physical environment, the extent which it constitutes to a clean and aesthetic environment, equipment and facilities, noise factor etc. The fourth is the general environment in the school, which constitutes the atmosphere, the workers' motivation, competition amongst the workers and mutual assistance.

In addition, Brown and McIntyre (1993) note that it is not possible to prove that teacher or school culture has a direct impact on student learning and achievement. They can, however, show that through the framework there is a certain impact in the classroom. Friedman (1988) also notes the aspect of curriculum continuity and progression for students. This prevents unplanned repetitions and teachers continue the work of their colleagues in related subjects in earlier classes, as mentioned in the first chapter of the literature review relating to the six-year continuity.

The four particular environments, mentioned above, in fact include all the components of school culture to be researched by the research project. These components are described in more detail in Friedman's model (1988). This model deals with two angles of culture. The first being how the teacher sees the principal and the second how the teacher sees the general atmosphere in the school as well as his/her colleagues.

An alternative model of school culture, used in this research project, is that of Hargreaves (1995) which shows how it is possible for schools to deal with and promote change within their own school culture. The Hargreaves' model, which helps schools understand what their culture is, as well as being able to make changes within the culture.

Hargreaves' model of school culture

Schools have various instrumental functions, especially those directed towards student cognitive achievement. Such functions require social control over teachers and students so that they work together in an orderly fashion. It is important to concentrate on teaching and learning and not be distracted or delayed. According to Lieberman and Miller (1984), schools require social control norms. In the same way, schools have an expressive task of maintaining social relationships so that they are satisfying, supportive and sociable which can be defined as the expressive social cohesion domain of school life (Hargreaves, 1995). According to this model, described by Hargreaves (1995), these two domains makeup school culture. However, there is always the possibility of tension and conflict between the two. Also, there is an optimal level for the benefits for the school. A balance has to be achieved between the domains of control and cohesion. Hargreaves (1995, p. 26) says,

"Too much social cohesion or no social control can undermine the pressure to achieve instrumental goals. Too much social control results in the expressive needs of its members not being fulfilled".

Every school has to find some combination of, and balance within and between, the cultural domains of control and cohesion. The six-year framework may contain two cultural domains. In the junior-high school, it is possible to note the fact that there is more likely to be social cohesion whilst in the high school there is social control (Chen and Beheri 1997). One of the difficulties of the six-year framework is finding a solution

for decreasing the gap between the two domains. An important factor is the extent of cooperation between the principals of the two schools (Shmidar 1991).

The basic model, as mentioned above, has been further developed by Hargreaves (1995) as shown in Figure 2.2.

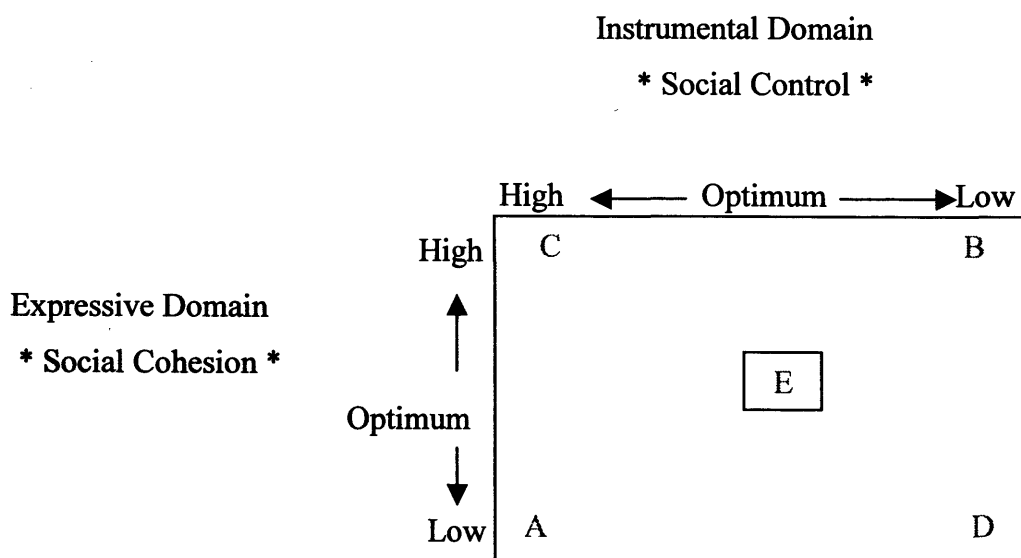


Figure 2.2: A typology of school cultures (Hargreaves, 1995).

The school culture of type (A), in the south west corner, is high in the instrumental domain with great pressure on students to achieve high performance in examinations and athletics, but at the same time there is weak social cohesion between staff and student. School life is orderly, scheduled and disciplined. Keeping to a strict time schedule is of basic importance. There is no time and place to have goal achievement interfered with. Homework is given and corrected on a regular basis as well as an abundance of tests. Prizes and prestige are given to those who succeed in the school's goals (transactional leadership). There is low tolerance for students who do not live up to the high expectations of the school. To staff, the principal appears cold and distant (bureaucratic and task oriented) to students, staff appear distant, strict and unapproachable. Each side shows little personal contact but at the same time maintains the prime importance of the institution. Social support is given by informal peer groups that provide the missing care that is denied because of students' social and emotional isolation from teachers. This peer group support is strong and influential and it is unimportant whether it is pro-school or anti-school. The ethos of the school is very strict and could be described as coercive. It

fosters traditional education values which are based on educational institutions of 50 years ago.

The next school culture to be discussed (B) is in the northeast corner of Figure 2.2. It is characterized by a relaxed carefree and cosy atmosphere. It places a high emphasis on informal, friendly teacher - student relations. The main emphasis is on individual student development within a caring environment. The educational philosophy is child-centred (Chen and Addy 1993, Maw 1977) and relations between principal and teachers are maintained on a democratic basis as well as cultural and people oriented. Due to the lack of social control, there is very little work pressure and academic goals are easily neglected. Social cohesion goals of life skills and adjustment take prime importance. As a result of the relaxed climate within the school, there is an overall atmosphere of contentment and peace. In this child centred model (B), the students are happy within the school framework but as adults, resent the lack of the system to prepare them with hard academic goals (Inbar 2000, Israelshvilli 1997). On the other hand, the formal school model (A), where students are often unhappy during their school life, look back with gratitude at the school system and with the achievements maintained within the framework. Schools within the ORT network place high emphasis on academic achievement as opposed to being child centred (Tzifroni 2001, Gordon 1997). This is mainly due to the approach and resultant pressure from the ORT managing director. His main aim and goal is being able to present ORT in the light of its academic achievements. It is important to note that according to certain educators within Israel, when emphasis is placed on a child centred approach, teachers who apply this methodology are considered to be of less worth (Cashty, 2000, More 1999, Salomon and Almog 1999).

In the northwest corner (C) the high instrumental and expressive emphasis creates an atmosphere of extreme pressure and diversity. The students try to participate actively in the full range of school life. Students are expected to work hard and achieve high standards as well as their own personal development. Teachers are enthusiastic and committed, demanding high standards from themselves and from their students. Teachers and students experience anxiety about failing to achieve instrumental goals. There is also concern about intrusions into privacy with a consequent reduction in independence, autonomy and individuality. Social control is maintained by members who use challenge and emotional blackmail rather than punishment. Members of this culture often feel like

prisoners. Goffman (1981) described this concept as "*total institutions*" when talking about "*hothouse school culture*". This is in fact an example of the potentially ideal situation whereby both domains of educational culture are presented (a combination of management styles, Ribbins 1984). There are a number of elite schools in Israel e.g. Hertzelia Gymnasia, Blich, where there is a high level of both social control and cohesion (Inbar, 2000).

Point D in the southeast corner of Figure 2.2 is a culture where both social control and social cohesion are exceptionally weak. The school is in a dangerous situation for both teachers and students. According to Hargreaves (1995), this is a *survivalist school culture*. Teachers allow students to avoid academic work so that they will not misbehave. This is done in order to keep basic control. Social relations within this framework are weak. There is little pressure put on students and lessons are conducted at a leisurely pace. Academic tasks have very little importance within this framework. Classroom control and curriculum planning is an individual teacher's task that must be completed without support from either the principal or colleagues. Each lesson that the teacher gives is on a daily basis with many students feeling alienated from their work, which bores them, but unlike model (B) there is no compensation in good social cohesion. Teachers have very little professional status, and students are often delinquent and play truant. Teachers are also often absent without valid reason. The atmosphere in the school is very negative with low morale (Hunter 1980, Bailey 1977). A small minority of schools in Israel may have this approach to culture. These schools can be found affiliated to the Ministry of Labour where pupils are not examined, as well as an extremely weak contact with the teachers (Eshel and Klein 1987). The main aim of these schools is to provide a framework for those difficult pupils, in order to keep them "off the street" and away from crime (Beheri 1997).

The extreme positions mentioned in the four groups above are extremely rare. Real schools are located at any point in the space between the corners. According to Weick (1976), schools are 'loosely coupled' institutions. Different parts of the school, which include a teacher's subculture and/or individual classroom, could be placed in a different section from the rest of the school. In this model, the ideal school is around the centre (E), which balances both social control and social cohesion. The principal's expectations of staff and students is high because these expectations are not considered unreasonable

(Aderet 1982, Gavish 1992). There is support for both teachers and students (King 1998, Busher 1990). Although it has been pointed out that (E) is the ideal model, many schools consider their own model as being the most effective with the exception of (D).

The above section described the various points relating to school culture. The following section is going to focus on traditional/formal, as opposed to collegial means of culture.

Traditional vs Collegial approach

Within the professional framework, there is a certain amount of tension between traditional and collegial approaches, due to the school system (Friedman 1988, Inbar 2000). The changes in school culture are often as a result of the conflicting interests between the traditional and the collegial. As a result, some teachers and especially principals work towards either one or the other types. As a result of two potential conflicting cultures within the six-year system, it is possible to note that there are likely to be conflicting interests between the two schools and their principals. A question is asked whether one type of school culture is more closely associated with the benefits for the school than another. The answer depends on the criteria by which success is judged. In Hargreaves' model, the school which least meets criteria for success for integration is the survivalist school (point D). The other three types are linked to various other problems.

Low rates of delinquency can often be seen in the school, which is weak in an academic framework but provides a strong support system in the context of welfare (point B). The formal school (point A), on the other hand, achieves positive academic success but there is little emphasis on creativity and self-expression. In cases where the students come from homes where academic achievement is of paramount importance, the school will be effective. On the other hand, students from homes where academic achievement plays little importance, and the students suffer from a low self-image, the formal school is not effective in achieving academic success. Only when equal weight is given to instrumental and expressive outcomes is the maximum achievement realised and the school of "balanced" culture becomes effective. Many parents and politicians place great importance on the instrumental social control system. The popular conception of the effective school in the city of Netanya could be placed to the north of the (E) space in Figure 2.2. (E) is not necessarily the correct location for the collegial school culture

which with its emphasis on working together, consistency and agreement could take the form of hothouse and welfare culture. According to Campbell and Southworth (1992), collegial culture varies sharply in terms of culture content and mission and so can be located anywhere to the north of (E). In other words high social cohesion. Huberman (1992) claims that teachers, parents and students may find school culture of particular types more attractive and satisfying than others. The question remains in what ways school culture is related to various outcomes, especially cognitive skills, as well as the ability to cope with changes.

Hargreaves' model regarding coping with changes

Survivalist schools, which appear in Hargreaves' (1995) model, are barely able to cope with change at all. Regarding the other three types (formal, welfarist, hothouse) there is nothing to indicate whether one type is inherently more able to cope with change than others. If the external pressure is towards higher social control, traditional and hothouse cultures have the advantage; if the trend is towards greater social cohesion, welfarist and hothouse cultures have the edge. Figure 2.2 shows that the school in the middle positions (point E), as opposed to the schools in the corners, have an advantage that they can move freely and easily, and do not have to make as many adjustments in changes of instrumental and expressive domains. However, schools in the middle are not necessarily flexible. The fact that they are in the centre may reflect confusion or incoherence over the two domains. However, if the school is intentionally balanced, then the school management will probably be more aware of any change and the need for adjustment to unavoidable problems (Cuban 1992, Hall and Hord 1987). Those schools, which have a high order of organisational flexibility, as well as a heightened sensitivity to changes in the external environment, are acceptable elements within the school system. Those schools operate in the central position in Figure 2.2 because they are able to detect, respond to and control change, at the same time managing to balance between social control and social cohesion.

According to Inbar (2000), the collegial school may be able to handle rapid change due to its strong development structure as well as collaborative relationships, which gives support to teachers under stress (Leithwood and Jantzi 1990). This is one criterion of success for integration which may or may not correlate with benefits for the school (Hopkins 1994, Stoll and Fink 1994). Friedman (1989) notes that if there is no collective

agreement to the change, implementation may be delayed, as staff will become engrossed in discussion or become divided, and therefore reject implementation as it damages staff cohesion. In contrast, Cashty (2000) claims that the traditional school accepts partial implementation, as it is not necessary to have complete staff agreement in order to accept change. Although it is believed that collegial cultures are positive towards change in cases where the staff is against change, it becomes difficult to implement any new innovation without their strong support (Hall 1988, Busher 1995). Welfarist and hothouse culture that are strongly collegial are likely to be highly resistant to external change that is incompatible with their own policies. Tzifroni (2001) claims that the school does not want to accept innovation from outside pressure, where the relationship amongst the teachers is that of convergence rather than trust. In this case there is low toleration of opinions that are not common, rather than respecting different views. Huberman (1993) and Little (1990) claim that it is possible to have collaboration in both traditional and collegial culture. However, collaboration within a collegial school is better suited to the school framework. In collegial culture there are examples of collaboration as well as certain other features which encompass a shared vision for the school. This provides teachers with a clear purpose and therefore maintains strong morale (Hunter 1980).

In order to examine the link between school culture and management style, the following section describes the Friedman model (1988) of school culture mentioned earlier.

School culture according to Friedman

In the past thirty-five years, there has been a development of the required tools to measure the evaluation of school culture. Gottfredson and colleagues (1986), found about seventy different questionnaires which dealt with the evaluation of school culture. Most of the tools used included components, which characterised effective schools such as - self-management, educational leadership, organised curriculum, team development and morale. In the following paragraph Friedman's model (1988) will be presented in order to analyse school culture. Although this model is different from that of Hargreaves (1995), it was chosen in order to present the link between management style and school culture. The questionnaire, which is to be given to the teachers, includes questions which relate to analysing the connection between school culture and management style. As a result, it

will be possible to gather information regarding their opinion of the specific management style.

One of the most commonly used measurement of school culture, is that produced by Friedman (1988). A large number of teachers and principals were interviewed with the aim of trying to learn about the major factors regarding school culture and the atmosphere within the school. The interviews and discussions between the researcher and principals resulted in the production of approximately a thousand different items. Each item described a different aspect of school culture. As a result of this research a questionnaire was produced entitled 'Organisational Culture Questionnaire'. According to Friedman's approach, the components of school culture are divided into two main groups of items (bunches). The first bunch expresses the collegial approach of the teachers regarding the principal's behaviour. The second, expresses the collegial approach of the teachers towards each other. Each individual bunch is made up of four factors - two positive and two negative. The researcher found that the atmosphere and morale in a school are a major factor of differentiation between schools. According to Friedman (1988) and Freiberg (1987), the teacher is the central point of observation in order to analyse the school culture. It was noted that the school culture can be viewed from two different angles. The first angle is how the teacher sees the principal. The second angle is how the teacher sees the general atmosphere in the school, as well as his colleagues. The first angle consists of the relationship between the principal and his members of staff, which is made up of four components. They are as follows:

The first component is direction and emphasis on academic achievement – (*task oriented, bureaucratic*) - a principal who receives a high mark in this component is one who makes his/her own decisions regarding the curriculum, he/she dictates to the teachers what is to be done, criticizes them and pushes the teachers towards higher achievement (Preston 1993). His/her management style is directive and **authoritarian**. His/her management style does not provide a place for a teachers response or discussion of the particular matter. A principal in this situation, issues instructions and guides the teachers to achieve results (*task oriented*) that can be measured, as well as being concerned that each teacher will give of his/her best. This kind of behaviour necessitates the inspection of teachers by the principal. The principal plans the teachers' work schedule, corrects mistakes made by teachers and evaluates teachers' achievement (*social control domain*).

The second component is one of distance and organisational discipline – (*bureaucratic, social control*) - Organisational strict control by the principal can be explained by formal behaviour, which is totally inflexible. The principal maintains a disciplined routine, and establishes strict discipline (Brookover 1984, Slavin 1996). In order to speak to the principal it is necessary to make an appointment, whereby strict rules are followed in the meeting. The principal follows the book to the letter of the law and does not show any kind of willingness to adjust to changing conditions and situations. The principal keeps his distance from the members of staff. There is no place to question the principal's decisions. He/She has a rigid and set calendar with clear defined subjects to be dealt with. Under this kind of management style there is an environment which is controlled and strict, with distance amongst the members of staff, as well as with the principal (Friedman, 1997).

The third component is consideration together with empathy – (*people oriented, collegial and cultural*) - This quality is thought to be a positive factor. The principal shows warmth and friendship towards the teachers. He or she assists the teachers in solving professional and personal problems, as well as supporting them in their work so that they will function more effectively and receive satisfaction from their work (Mor 1999). The principal considers his/her teachers, as well as helping them with their own personal problems with the aim of improving their work environment.

The fourth component is enthusiasm together with devotion – This quality is also considered a positive factor. The principal puts a great deal of effort into getting matters moving, advancing the school and providing a dynamic personal example. He or she does the maximum in order to promote the school, as well as spending time on less important issues (Gonnen and Zaki 1999). This kind of principal is personally involved in a variety of situations within the school. His/her responses are generally positive and he or she causes the members of staff to follow his/her example (Robbins 2000).

The second angle is how the teacher sees the atmosphere in the school and the behaviour of his colleagues – teachers' collective opinions of their colleagues and how they view them, reflects the social environment within a school. It is possible to evaluate this

concept by looking at four separate factors. The first two are negative and the second two are positive.

The first component is alienation – (*ambiguity*) - Alienation is when teachers feel they are completely alone in the school. They are unable to communicate with their colleagues. Teachers do not relate to fellow members of staff, do not assist each other and create an unpleasant atmosphere when one is in their company. Friedman (1988) found that this situation is linked to the lack of commitment by teachers to promote the educational aims of the school (subjective). Alienation is not only between the individual and his/her colleagues but also between the worker and the tasks expected to be performed and completed. The feeling of alienation is directly opposed to the feeling of togetherness which characterises a positive team atmosphere with high motivation.

The second component is one of delay together with obstacles – (*bureaucratic*) - This factor reflects the teachers feelings of a *bureaucratic* institution where there is a lack of a sense of fluency with unnecessary paper work and the work demands do not fit in with the teachers training and ability. Tasks are undertaken at a very slow pace, there is too much emphasis on paper work as well as too many after school meetings. Teachers in this kind of school feel they are under pressure from an overloading of tasks and irrelevant after school meetings and activities.

The third component is intimacy – (*people oriented, cultural, strong social interaction*) - This factor is considered a positive aspect of school culture. As opposed to the sense of alienation, intimacy is reflected only amongst the members of staff (Friedman 1989). The feelings of intimacy, are reflected by the strong sense of friendship amongst the members of staff. They invite each other to their homes for social visits. The teacher feels close to those he/she works with, and confides in them regarding his personal problems. This component relates to the part of school culture which is described in the section on social interaction.

The fourth component is, team work – (*collegial, social cohesion*) - Teamwork means that there is a high level of cohesion amongst the members of staff. This is seen in the form of high morale and the implementation of set tasks which are allocated to the team members. Team work demands co-operation amongst the teachers, as well as assistance

to members of staff dealing with difficulties within the work environment. Members of staff have high motivation, as well as working with a united team. This kind of teamwork demands that each of the members accept the failings and weaknesses of their colleagues. Successful teamwork promotes a sense of joint achievement and a challenge for even greater success in the future.

A summary of school culture, according to the above mentioned bunches, is expressed by either an open or closed culture. An open culture is a positive culture. A closed culture is of course a negative culture (Friedman 1988). An open culture is characterised by good team work, teachers' enthusiasm, consideration by the principal and very little feeling of alienation. In addition, there is a lack of emphasis by the principal on achievement and production, organisational control, delays and obstacles. This kind of culture is characterised by a certain level of intimacy amongst the members of staff (social cohesion). A closed culture is the opposite of an open culture. It is characterised by a high level of delays and obstacles, a feeling of alienation, emphasis on achievement and production, as well as organisational control (social control). The closed culture is characterised by a lack of team work, a lack of consideration and enthusiasm by the principal, as well as a low level of intimacy amongst the members of staff. School culture can be evaluated by using a summarising grade, which shows the openness of the culture. The grade is made up as follows. The grade is issued by the sum of the items, which express the principal's enthusiasm, with additional items for team-work, and then less the grade. This summarises the teachers' alienation. The higher the grade given from the above formula, the more open and positive is the school culture.

$$[\text{Principal's Enthusiasm}] + [\text{Team Work}] - [\text{Alienation}] = [\text{Open Culture}]$$

Friedman (1988) notes that the eight components of school culture, which are mentioned above, form six different types of culture which are linked to management styles. The first is the **open culture** (collegial management style) - a living organisation, which is full of energy and various dynamics in which all those taking part in the organisation do so with enthusiasm in order to achieve the aim of the organisation. All social needs of the participants are provided for within the organisation. The second is the **autonomous culture** (subjective) - where active members of the organisation initiate new ideas to a far greater extent than the leaders within the organisation. The third is the **controlled culture**

(political) - where there is a lack of inter-personal relationships and where the main aim of the organisation is to achieve the set goals. The fourth is the **innovative/family culture** (cultural) - where there is a friendly atmosphere with no restraints on achieving the aims. The fifth is the **authoritarian culture** (bureaucratic) - where the leader is the main instigator of new ideas and prevents members of the organisation from having an influence. The sixth is the **closed culture** (ambiguity) - where the workers are not bothered by what happens within the organisation.

An open culture can be observed in a school where there is a positive atmosphere and the workers relate to each other. The principal is not too dictatorial but at the same time he or she is committed to his or her work and cares a great deal for the organisation. This type of principal receives "top marks" from his or her members of staff. This is also so regarding the school environment and atmosphere. In contrast, a closed culture is one where the individual members of staff feel 'closed in'. They are constantly being directed by the principal, they feel they are being pressurised and do not feel comfortable with their friends. Friedman's method of measuring school culture has been adapted by the researcher of this research project, due to two main factors. The first one being that his approach to school culture research is logical, clear and simple. The second one is that his approach provides for analysis of the findings relating to the link between the management style and school culture. With the help of Friedman's method of measurement, it is possible to evaluate school culture and define the different levels of the various factors, which have previously been measured. The main disadvantage of Friedman's method for measuring school culture is that the measurement is limited to only two main areas. These are the relationships created within the school culture between the teacher and his or her colleagues and the teacher and his/her principal. Within the disadvantage lies the fact that other important features, such as pupils, parents and the physical environment, which influence the school culture, are not included. This research project does not deal with parents and pupils, but focuses on the teachers and principals.

An alternative view of organisational culture was taken by Likert (1991) who maintains that it is possible to identify some processes, which characterise an organisation such as the communication process, the process of relationships amongst the workers themselves, the decision making process, the process of defining goals and objectives as well as the

process of putting things into operation and achieving aims. Likert has contended that these processes in fact create four types of organisational cultures: authoritarian, considerate authoritarian, counseling and cooperative culture. The authoritarian culture is where there is little trust between the workers and the manager, due to the fact that the workers are taken advantage of by the manager. The manager in this situation, offers very little support to his/her workers. The considerate authoritarian culture is where the manager behaves as in the first one, except in this case he takes into consideration the needs and requirements of his/her workers. The counselling culture is where the manager greatly considers the opinions of the workers but final decisions are made by the manager, similar to people and target oriented. The cooperative culture is whereby the manager supports his/her workers, encourages them to do their best and involves them in decision-making (*collegial*). If one adopts Likert's principles, it is possible to use them for building a profile of the school culture. This kind of profile can, for example, emphasize the fact that one particular school has strong leadership potential, is weak regarding communication, has strong decision making factors, has strong aims and goals but mediocre in terms of inspection.

The effect of the school culture

Sweeney (1992) claimed that in most schools in England and the U.S.A there is a positive culture. However, the size of the school and type of community from where the pupils are brought, create various different cultures. The pupil's behaviour regarding the school can create a negative school culture, as well as the principals having influence on the culture (Millikan 1987). Meyesed (1997) studied the school culture in various schools in Israel and found that "Iyuni" schools, (an academic high school that specialises in matriculation without offering technological subjects), emphasise the intellectual development of the individual. In vocational schools the emphasis tends to be on the personal relationship between teachers and pupils. In comprehensive schools there tends to be a democratic atmosphere with an emphasis on individual learning.

In ORT schools the emphasis is generally on technology and scientific academic achievement. Schools under the auspices of the municipality dedicate time to discipline, as well as curtailing democracy and openness. Schools under the auspices of the Kibbutz movement, emphasise individual, creative and original approaches to education. Schools

in development towns emphasise social integration, with the intention of increasing the pupils self image and social status (Skinner 1990). The general opinion of educators in Israel is that the larger the school, the greater the alienation of teachers and pupils. However, this is not necessarily always the case. Kels (1989) found that opposed to the general opinion was the fact that the larger the size of the school, the feeling of alienation decreases. This is due to the fact that larger schools organise themselves in such a way in order to prevent alienation.

In order to emphasise academic achievement as being paramount to school culture, the next section describes the characteristics of school culture and their relationship with academic achievement.

The relationship between academic achievement and school culture

According to Chen (1997), close compatibility was found between atmosphere and order and academic achievement. The characteristics of schools, which provide security, are as follow (Friedman 1992). The first is clearly defined rules. The second is the teacher job satisfaction and approval of the principal's management style. The third is the cohesion amongst members of the teaching staff. The fourth is the financial and emotional support from the principal. The fifth is the emphasis on the teacher's advancement and appropriate teacher support. The sixth is the appropriate class size, which facilitates good teacher - pupil relationships (Bronfenbrenner and Morris 1998, Ribbins 1987). The seventh is high morale amongst the teaching staff (Hunter 1980, Bailey 1977). The eighth is the relevant teaching material for the students, and importance of the school as an institution. The ninth characteristic is efficient school management, regarding emphasis on keeping discipline and order with a personal example of correct behaviour (Gonnen and Zaki 1999, Mortimore 1988). It is important to note that order and discipline on their own are insufficient to provide school success (Venezky, 1989). They become effective when they are used for improving the learning environment. Regarding twenty research projects dealing with discipline, mobility and other factors which are related to behaviour and academic achievement (Cotton and Savard, 1982), it was found that effective discipline is achieved when it is consistent with feedback. It is important to maintain order and discipline in all areas of pupil support.

Manor (1991) and Minkovitch (1987) researched the connection between social culture and the success or failure of academic achievement. They found that pressure has a positive effect on the pupils' academic achievement. Pressure can be defined as involvement in school activities, competition, variation in teaching style as well as teacher support. It also found that by measuring school culture, certain schools place an emphasis on the emotional aspect of the pupil, whereby the pupil is in the centre (Chen 1997, Gordon 1997).

Opposed to this concept, are schools whereby the emphasis is instrumental and the school is the centre. Nilsen and Kirk (1974) noted that there is a very weak connection between the school culture and the academic achievement of the pupils. Only a small amount of research has shown that there is a direct positive connection between 'good culture' and high achievement. Other research (M.O.E. and Tzidkyahu, 1988), has shown that there is a positive connection between an open culture and creativity, with positive self evaluation. Lack of direct contact between school culture and pupil achievement leads to a number of conclusions. The first one is that in the past, the validity of the measurement tools was low, which means that the measurement tools measured other factors rather than the school culture. The second conclusion is that the concept of school culture is too wide and variable and can not be measured. The third one is that the results, such as achievement or educational yield can not be achieved by one factor alone or even a number of factors, but by a wide variation of possible factors where the connection between them is very complicated.

In the past, the success rate of pupils passing the matriculation exam in Israel was measured according to the number of pupils who finished the 12th grade together with the number of matriculation certificates received. As a result of this policy, "good" schools who wanted to be part of this statistic did not allow weak pupils to attempt the exam. They were pushed out of the system before reaching the 12th grade. As a result of this policy the chances of success in the matriculation exams were much higher. In 1999, the Ministry of Education changed its approach towards analysing matriculation results whereby the percentage of the drop-out rate, (which is influenced by school culture), was included in the overall analysis. Due to this change of approach it is now possible to analyse the success of matriculation results from a more objective point of view. This approach leads to the connection between school culture, (drop-out and academic

achievement), and the principal's role in decision making regarding academic school policy.

As mentioned previously, within school culture, there is a specific element which relates to social interaction amongst the teachers (the fourth research question). This has implications for the level of social cohesion, social control, as well as the general atmosphere within the school. Within the six-year framework, a further indication of social interaction might be found within the elements of a closed or open culture. In the following section a particular aspect of culture, social interaction will be considered.

Social interaction

It is possible to divide the network of social relations into two areas. The first is the informal relationship of the staff room (Glover 1999), which relates to the area of interpersonal politics. This in turn examines a few of the subgroups of the school staff. The second type of relationship is that of the formal structure of teachers into departments. The social network, investigated by the researcher of this project, will look into the areas of organisational facilities such as time, territory, personnel, finance and influence.

There is a marked similarity between school staff rooms universally. According to Woods (1979, p. 213), it is possible to understand staff rooms 'in terms of laughter, cynicism and anti-intellectualism'. The complaints are almost identical, the jokes are repeated and the categories under discussion are amazingly alike. However, despite the similarities, each staff room shows and reflects the individual aspects of the school. Slater (1991) and Ball (1987) maintain that the social relations of the staff room are often a near direct reflection of the micro political structure of the institution. The social relationships within the system no doubt reflect the political history of the institution. It is important to remember that past history has an impact on change and the interpretation of new events. According to Burgess (1983), there is a common form of social groups, which are divided into heads of departments, heads of pastoral care, men's sport group, and young women's group. None of these groups are likely to be exclusive. In each case, the conversations of the groups reflect their main preoccupations in and or outside the school. Burgess (1983, p. 73), claims that:

“The informal relationships among the teachers seemed to reinforce the basic divisions and duties which I had already recognized in the formal organisation of the school”.

The social form of relationships, which operates in the staff room, is also a means of passing on information and ideas, as well as in certain instances, gossip. Teachers form political relationships as well as shared interests, within this system (Glover 1999). It can also be a way of pursuing career moves and progress. Burgess (1983) notes that certain teachers sit within a grouping with the hope that one day they might also belong to that senior management position.

The staff room is found to be the most suitable place for information flow. Generally speaking, teachers who meet during breaks openly discuss matters dealing with the school, management style, inter-personal relationships and decision-making. In order to understand the processes and possibilities of decision-making, it is necessary to have a good grasp of the network. This involves knowing who is consulted, whose opinion carries weight, who is likely to support what, what will carry widespread agreement and what will provoke disagreement. Ball (1984, p.215) claims that it is through the social network that the negotiated order is arrived at, maintained, and/or changed. It is possible to add that role relationships turn into either friendship or hatred. Decisions are influenced by revenge, spite and personal preferences. Richardson (1973, p. 181-2) notes that beneath this formal pattern of roles and relationships there are informal, largely emotional groupings in existence that also effects people's behaviour towards one another and their ability to work together as a cooperative group.

Co-operation, Competition, and the Structure of Peer Cliques in Schools

One of the important aspects of social interaction is the affect of cooperation and competition on peer relationships in educational settings. According to Johnson and Johnson (1975) and Pepitone (1980), cooperative social interaction as opposed to competitive interaction allows for and encourages increased friendliness, mutual concern and interpersonal relationships. In addition, according to Slavin (1979) and Wiegel, Wiser and Cook (1975), cooperative social interaction increases friendships using cooperative classroom intervention. However, although there has been extensive research in this area, no studies have explicitly investigated the effects of cooperation and

competition on the structure of peer groups. There has been research on the relationship between popularity and friendliness amongst individual students but it is not known how cooperative and competitive experiences effect naturally existing cliques.

According to Hansell (1981), intergroup relations in schools are relatively segregated and exclusive because peer cliques in schools tend to consist of members of a similar sex, race, age, and ethnic background. The probabilities of intergroup communication and cooperation are structurally limited due to the fact that there are relatively few contacts between naturally existing peer cliques. Also, difficulties in whether it is possible to change clique structures in ways that would improve intergroup relations. Another issue is whether competitive interaction has an effect on peer clique structures and what the implications of competition are, for intergroup relations in schools.

Discussion of strong and weak ties helps to conceptualize the linkage between individual relationships and clique structures (Borgatti 1990, Granovetter 1982). Strong relationship ties take more time, involve more emotional intensity and intimacy as well as being based on reciprocal communication and exchanges of rewards, (transactional leadership), as opposed to weak ties. Contacts within peer cliques tend to be strong ties while other forms of contact between cliques, known as bridges, tend to be weak ties. The distribution of strong and weak ties in a network has implications for cohesion between and within peer groups. In a network with a high proportion of strong ties, group cohesion will be high, but there will be few opportunities for bridges between cliques, resulting in relatively high inter-group isolation and fragmentation. A network which has a large number of weak ties will end up being less internally cohesive, but with more highly inter connected group structures.

Social Network Analysis

Social network analysis has been used to deal with communication patterns in schools. This was seen in a recent work of Durland (1996); Durland and Teddlie (1996); Teddlie and Kochan (1991). Within this work, interesting differences were found in the communication network of effective schools. They also used sociograms to illustrate the differences. Social network analysis is based in the work of Burt (1983) who developed a subject known as Sociometry, which measures interpersonal relationships in small

groups. Burt's sociometric questions and following sociograms and matrices allows for the study of relationships within a group of people (Teddle and Reynolds, 2000, p.308).

Questions that follow sociometric patterns are usually very simple. For instance, they may ask teachers to list all the members of staff that they have talked to the most in the last month. Burt (1983) developed both sociometric patterns and sociograms. This research project includes a sociometric questionnaire whereby the teachers are asked questions such as to the number of times they have met with this or that person during the school day and outside of the school day. Wasserman and Faust (1994, pp. 78-9) showed that the use of the sociometric technique increased as a reliable means of explaining social network data. Sociograms became less important as a more mathematical and statistical approach was used. This was to the dismay of Burt. According to Wasserman and Faust (1994, p.10), the use of social networks is in fact an interdisciplinary concept, which involves social theory and application together with formal mathematical and computing methodology. In this research project, a mathematical tool is used which was developed by Fershtman (1993). It is possible to use this tool in order to receive information regarding the social network of the teachers in the school, relating to the sociometric questionnaire. The social network that is compiled will present the strength of the cliques amongst the teachers within the six-year system. This pattern of network is measured by the factor SMI, which is a Segregation Matrix Index (SMI).

Teddle and Kochan (1991) used school success research within a study of highly ineffective schools. This was done by using the sociometric technique to analyse the patterns of interaction which existed amongst teachers. The result of this research shows that within a staff of twenty, there were four different cliques. Two were mostly of white members and two mostly African-American members. Racial groups formed 80 per cent of the interaction amongst staff. Only 18 per cent included white and African-American members regarding interaction. The principal of the school was African-American and seemed to be isolated, apart from interacting with only one or two African-American teachers. The result of this particular study encouraged Durland and Teddle (1996) to apply social network analysis in differently effective schools regarding the study of leadership and communication.

Durland (1996) developed a model known as the “centrality-cohesiveness model of school success”. The aim of this model was to predict the kind of sociogram patterns that were expected from a variety of schools that were either effective or ineffective. The research produced by Durland (1996), Durland and Teddlie (1996) made use of advanced computer programmes in order to work out and analyse sociometric patterns and sociograms. It was seen that there was a difference regarding the position of the principal between effective and ineffective schools. This also related to the cohesiveness of the teachers. The result of the study showed that generally speaking, principals who performed central roles had high scores in terms of school success. Effective schools also showed high levels of cohesiveness with a much higher network level. However, there was a high level of variance on the numeric indices. Sociogram analysis, however tended to show effective schools as being dense, where as ineffective schools appeared to be much thinner on the ground.

The social network approach will be used, through Fershtman’s SMI tool, to map the relationship amongst the teachers of the six-year comprehensive school by using a sociometric questionnaire to be given to 20 teachers of the three case study schools. The findings from the questionnaires will be analysed by using Fershtman’s SMI tool.

Summary of issues relating to school culture

Hargreaves’ model presents school culture in two domains. The first being social control, whilst the second is social cohesion. Both of these domains are linked to the management styles mentioned earlier. Collegial and cultural styles tend to be linked to social cohesion whereas the bureaucratic and political styles tend to be linked to social control. Hargreaves’ model will be used by the researcher of this project in order to analyse school culture together with the use of Friedman’s model. Friedman’s model will provide details regarding the link between school culture and management style (refer to the relevant factors in this section page 86). An open culture is linked to the collegial style. An autonomous culture is linked to the subjective style. An authoritarian culture is linked to the bureaucratic style. A controlled culture is linked to the political style. A family culture is linked to the cultural style. A stress and conflicted atmosphere is linked to the ambiguity and political styles. Table 2.2 indicates a tentative attempt to draw some links between school culture domains and management styles.

Bush

Hargreaves	Bureaucratic	Collegial	Political	Subjective	Ambiguity	Cultural
Social cohesion		X		X		X
Social control	X		X			X
Friedman						
Open culture		X				
Autonomous culture				X		
Authoritarian culture	X					
Controlled culture			X			
Family/ Innovative culture						X
Stress/ Conflict			X		X	

Table 2.2: A tentative attempt of some link between school culture domains and management styles.

Summary of the literature review

This chapter presented the three main areas of the research questions – integration, management style and school culture. The integration section presents the advantages and disadvantages of the six-year framework, as opposed to the independent junior-high school in order to indicate the problems of integration. The management issues regarding integration were discussed in order to link the problems of integration to management styles of the principals.

Regarding the leadership and management style section discussed in this chapter, two models of management were presented. The first model is based on Blake and Mouton and the second deals with the six styles of management analysed by Bush (1995). The summary of the management styles presents the link between the above models. The third section of this chapter relates to school culture and social interaction. Two models of school culture were presented. The first is based on Hargreaves (1995) and the second is based on Friedman (1988). The summary of the section on school culture presents a tentative link between management style and school culture.

In order to try and answer the first research question to achieve the aims of the research, which are related to the advantages and disadvantages of integration mentioned in Table 2.1 in the section on integration, the following group of factors will be used as a model for integration. The factors below have been examined in the questionnaire for principals and teachers. Some factors relate to several components of integration as follows:

The impact on the pupil – relates to *transition, pupil needs, dropping out, size of classes*.

The effect of change – relates to *curriculum and pedagogy*.

Maximisation of learning time.

Learning conducive atmosphere – relates to the *enhancement of school culture*.

Clear goals and expectations

The principal's role – *principal loses authority and control*.

Emphasis on academic achievement.

The impact on the teacher – relates to *assessment and documentation, commitment of the teachers, teacher "burn-out", advance of teacher status*.

Staff morale

Stress and conflicts – relates to the *effect of change on teachers*.

Work relationships – *joint resources, social integration*.

Collegial management style - *joint management*.

Principal / teachers relationship – *nature of work relationship*.

Team development

Involvement of parents

The second group of factors, which relate to the types of management styles were examined in the questionnaire for the principals and teachers. In order to present this subject in a convenient way, all styles that are linked are shown in Table 2.2. The purpose

of using these particular styles is to examine the impact of those leadership and management styles on the process of integration (relating to the second research question). In this group of factors, there are six management styles, which were explained in detail in the literature review. The six management styles are as follows: Bureaucratic, Collegial, Political, Subjective, Ambiguity, Cultural.

The third group of factors relates to school culture with a link to management styles. These factors will be examined through the principals and teachers' questionnaires, which relate to the third and fourth research questions. The factors, which are mentioned in the Friedman and Hargreaves' models for school culture, are as follows:

Open culture – *collegial*.

Autonomous culture – *subjective*.

Authoritarian culture – *bureaucratic*.

Controlled culture – *political*.

Innovative/family culture – *cultural*.

Closed culture – *ambiguity*.

Achievement oriented school - *task oriented*.

Social interaction.

Social control.

Social cohesion.

Shared norms.

An open culture is characterised by good teamwork as well as a certain level of intimacy amongst the members of staff (collegial management style). Autonomous culture is concerned with situations where active members of the organisation initiate new ideas to a far greater extent than the leaders within the organisation (subjective management style). Authoritarian culture deals with situations where the leader is the main instigator of new ideas and prevents members of the organisation from having an influence (bureaucratic management style). Controlled culture deals with situations where there is a lack of inter-personal relationships (political management style). Regarding the innovative/family culture, this type of culture is concerned with a friendly environment (cultural management style). As opposed to the open culture, the closed culture deals with situations where the workers are not bothered by what happens within the organisation (ambiguity management style). The closed culture is the opposite of an open

culture. It is characterised by a lack of teamwork, a lack of consideration and enthusiasm by the principal (ambiguity management style). Regarding the achievement oriented school culture, the principal in this situation, issues instructions and guides the teachers to achieve results that can be measured, as well as being concerned that each teacher will give of his/her best (task oriented). Social interaction relates to the discussion of strong and weak ties which helps to conceptualize the linkage between individual relationships and clique structures. The distribution of strong and weak ties in a network has implications for cohesion between and within peer groups. Social control school culture is concerned with situations where teachers and students work together in an orderly fashion. This type of school culture concentrates on teaching and learning without distraction or delay. In the same way, schools have an expressive task of maintaining social relationships so that they are satisfying, supportive and sociable which can be defined as the expressive social cohesion domain of school life. Shared norms and meanings are a result of the development of the culture. Within the system the interaction amongst people within the group or in the subgroup, reflects the cultural features of the school. This factor relates to the link between six-year continuity and school norms amongst the members of staff. The shared norms also relate to the connection between written norms and operative norms.

The next chapter considers in detail the research methodology used in this research project and the approaches used in relation to the research questions. The research project is in two parts: a survey of all the integrated schools belonging to the ORT Network in Israel, and case studies of three of the integrated six-year schools. The research is generally positivist in approach and based on large-scale findings. These findings will be used to make generalisations. In addition to this information, three case studies have been included in order to add depth and colour to the questionnaire data.

Chapter Three: Methodology

Introduction

This research project is a result of the researcher's involvement in the transition from a four-year technical school to a six-year comprehensive school in Israel. It was possible to see from first hand experience that the process of transition resulted in a number of integration problems. These integration problems were then considered in terms of the principals' different management styles. Teachers who taught in both schools could be exposed to two different management styles, which had an impact on their own effectiveness, with a resulting impact on the success for integration. Integration problems could also be considered in relation to school culture. This culture in turn influenced the implementation of six-year continuity and the nature of the transition of the pupil from the junior-high school to the high school. Integration problems could also be seen within the patterns of social interaction of the members of staff of the two school sections (part of the culture), which in turn impacted on the nature of teamwork and the culture. The purpose of this research project is to examine the problems of integration of the six-year ORT comprehensive schools, from the perspective of principals and teachers, concentrating on the influence of management style and culture.

This chapter deals with the all components regarding the research methodology, in order to answer the four research questions presented in the introductory chapter. The four research questions are as follows:

- 1. Do principals and teachers of ORT six-year schools perceive that integration has brought benefits for the school? If so, what factors are perceived to have most impact on integration?*
- 2. What are the principals and teachers' perception of the management styles and the impact of these styles, on the process of integration?*
- 3. What do the principals and teachers perceive as the impact of school culture, on integration?*
- 4. What are the principals and teachers' perceptions of the impact of social interaction between teacher teams, on the integration process?*

The research project is in two parts: a survey of all the integrated schools belonging to the ORT Network in Israel, and case studies of three of the integrated six-year schools. This will be explained in detail later on. The research project has examined the success for integration within the six-year system, from the point of view of the principal and the members of staff in relation to management styles, school culture and social interaction of staff within the ORT Network schools. There are 70 secondary schools within the Network, of which 23 are six-year comprehensives. This number must be seen in relation to 110 six-year comprehensive schools in Israel (out of 500 secondary schools). The total number of pupils enrolled in the six-year system within the ORT Network is approximately 30,000 out of 220,000 pupils in all the six-year schools in Israel (13.6%). The 23 ORT schools are typical of the cross section of all the six-year schools. They represent 21% of all the six-year schools in Israel.

In order to gather the relevant information regarding their opinion, questionnaires were sent by post to the 23x2 principals. However, before receiving the questionnaires, the principals were contacted by phone with the main aim of explaining the purpose of the research relating to the questionnaires. The questionnaires related to integration, management style and school culture. In addition, questionnaires were sent by post to twelve members of staff – six heads of Math, English and Hebrew Literature departments in each school. The rest of the questionnaires were sent to teachers who teach the same subjects of Maths, English and Hebrew Literature. In addition, in the three case studies, further socio-metric questionnaires were distributed by post to twenty members of staff. Ten from the junior-high school and ten from the high school. The purpose of the socio-metric questionnaires was to map the social interaction network amongst the six-year school teachers. In addition to these questionnaires, the case studies included interviews, which were given to three junior-high school principals, three high school principals, three teachers and three pupils from both sections of the three schools. The six teachers, as well as the six pupils were chosen from a list given to the researcher by the principal. The principal indicated which teachers were most experienced. Regarding the pupils, the researcher randomly chose six pupils from a given list. One from each grade 7–12. This was done in order to gather information regarding the six-year continuity, management style, as well as school culture relating to moral norms and values, rituals, beliefs and symbols. From the above information, it is possible to see that the research is both quantitative (questionnaires) and qualitative (interviews).

Research Paradigms

The data gathered for this research project is intended to answer the research questions. The research is generally positivist in approach and based on large-scale findings. These findings will be used to make generalisations (Bassey 1999). In addition to this information, three case studies have been included in order to add depth and colour to the questionnaire data.

In order to gain detailed information beyond generally available knowledge, it is necessary to do research which provides a basis for analysis and comprehensive comments on the topic of inquiry (Johnson 1994), as well as satisfying complex set of technological concerns about sampling, question-wording and answer-coding (Robson 1993). The information which is obtained, is to increase knowledge regarding a certain subject. In order to measure and evaluate research it is necessary to use objective means and techniques to provide an answer. This approach is considered to be quantitative and fits in with positivist methodology, the basic stance of this research project.

Qualitative research relates to many facets of human behaviour (Denzin 1998, Hammersley 1999). On the other hand, quantitative research uses a scientific approach, which tries to be objective and follows a standard form (Sarantakos 1998, Robson 1993). Nachmias (1996) and Johnson (1994) see qualitative research as being based on experiences and that this form of research attempts to analysis situations in terms of those involved in specific events. It is important to understand the individual's relationship with his/her surroundings (Cohen and Manion 1994). In these cases the use of interviews are considered the best methods for researching various factors such as social, cultural and political elements, which in turn can be seen in terms of a social framework.

Research Approach

The survey approach

The survey used in this research project consisted of two types of questionnaires. Both questionnaires related to the three main areas of the research, namely integration, management style and school culture. In order to show all the research components, Figure 3.1 illustrates the methodology used. Figure 3.1 shows the different elements of

the research methodology. The two top right boxes of the diagram include the questionnaire given to the principals and the questionnaire given to the teachers. The principals' questionnaire consists of questions relating to the three areas of the research, which are: integration, management style and school culture. The teachers' questionnaire consists of questions relating to integration, management style, school culture and social interaction. The top left box of the diagram includes the three case studies of the research. The three case studies include the semi-structured interviews with the principals, the teachers and the pupils, relating to the three areas of the research project mentioned above. See appendix B and C for the questionnaires and interviews respectively.

Surveys promote the collection of information from a specific group of people, as well as generating a large amount of data of questionable value (Robson 1993). The specific group of people in this research being the principals and teachers. The information that is required is given in a form of standardised questions. The forms of the questions encourage an answer according to the style and method of questioning. For example, "to what extent has the six-year change improved the teamwork between teachers"? The use of surveys promotes a large amount of information, which is necessary for the researcher. Due to the size of surveys, it is understood that the findings will be dependable.

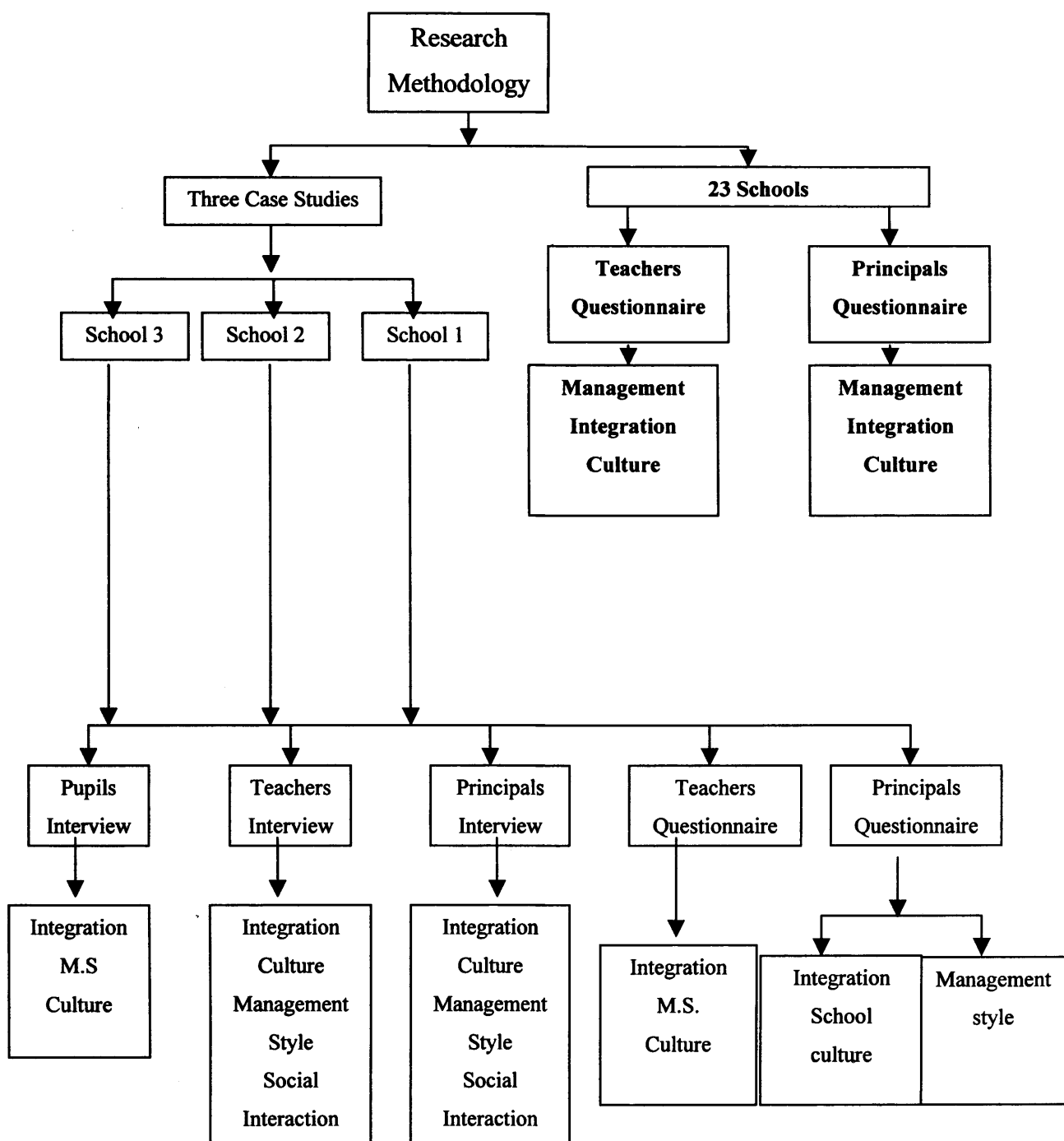


Figure 3.1: The research methodology flowchart.

The questionnaires to the teachers were made up of 74 questions. 73 questions were included in the questionnaires given to the principals. The respondents must represent a defined population with a survey sample being representative of this population. All the respondents used in this research were representative of the six-year school population. In addition, the principals were from the junior-high school and high school as well as the teachers being from the junior-high school and high school.

Bogdan (1982) and Bell (1999) claim that it is possible to find answers to questions that use the form of what, where and when but it is more difficult to find answers to questions using how and why. Surveys are relatively superficial. Questions, which ask how and why, usually need the use of case studies, due to the fact that this information needs to be gathered over a period of time (Yin 1994). In this research project three case studies were used specifically in order to answer the “how and why” questions. The use of semi-structured interviews assisted in this process. As opposed to the survey, a case study takes place over a relatively long period, during which it is possible to check how and why certain activities took place, through the use of interviews (Powney 1987, Wragg 1994). The interviews in this research project encompassed six principals, eighteen teachers and eighteen pupils with the process-taking place over a period of four months.

The advantages of the survey approach mentioned by Robson (1993) and Johnson (1994) related to the fact that it is possible to achieve a large amount of data due to the fact that a standardised system is used. In the research project, data was required from a large number of schools and was of a large quantity due to the extensive number of questions. This also applied to the high response of staff who returned their questionnaires within a period of two months. The survey was also low cost as it was sent through the internal ORT post service. Another advantage mentioned by Robson is the fact that it is possible to collect generalisable information from almost any human population. In the survey, the sampling only applied to teachers and not principals, due to the fact that all the 23x2 six-year comprehensive school principals took part. Due to the use of probability sampling, it is possible to reach and generalise from a wider population. The findings can be regarded as applicable to the population from which the sample is taken. In order to provide a large amount of data, it is possible to use surveys, which in turn have the potential for comparisons to be made. The questionnaires of the research project consisted of a large number of questions, which provided a great deal of information.

On the other hand, the limitations of the survey approach mentioned by Nachmias (1996) and Robson (1993) related to the fact that it is not possible to go into detail in surveys. Questions must be clearly defined and answers have to fit into a set pattern. Within the research project, there were a large number of questions (73) in the questionnaire, which resulted in the possibility of checking the topic widely in order to go into some detail and allow some check for internal validity. In addition, interviews were given to the principals, members of staff and pupils, which allowed the exploration of the topic in more depth. In other words, complementary methods were used within the research project.

Another point mentioned by Johnson (1994) is the scope for bias. The sample in the research project represented 25 per cent of all the staff in the schools in the survey. Regarding principals there was a 100 per cent response rate. Ninety-five per-cent of the members of staff responded to the survey, which meant that the response rate would have produced very little bias. However, a further bias that is present in the research project is that the researcher is an 'insider' and is familiar with the system. The researcher of this project made a concerted effort to try and place himself 'out of the system' and be objective as possible. The participants of the research were given the impression that the researcher was making every effort to be impartial. The researcher is interested in receiving an accurate overall picture of the problems of the ORT six-year schools due to the fact that he is a candidate for a high administrative post and it is important for him to be aware of the situation within the six-year school system.

Population and Sampling

The idea of a sample is linked to that of population whereby, population is the entire set of relevant units of analysis or data (Robson 1993, Nachmias 1996). A sample is considered to be the group of people who have been surveyed chosen from a population. The findings of the survey then apply to the specific population that has been identified. The choice of population relates to decisions that researchers have to make regarding resources and sampling (Cohen and Manion 1994). In the research project all 23x2 six-year comprehensive schools belonging to ORT were used. This is in a sense a sampling

of all the 110 six-year comprehensive schools in Israel. This is in fact 21 per cent of all the six-year comprehensive schools in Israel. All of the six-year comprehensive ORT school principals – forty-six in total, were included in the survey. On the other hand, the researcher chose twelve teachers from each comprehensive school, which forms a sample unit. In the six-year ORT comprehensive schools there is an average of fifty teachers. The teachers chosen were picked from a list given to the researcher by the principal. The researcher chose teachers and head of departments according to the subjects they taught (Maths, English and Hebrew literature). The list was then refined even more so, by random selection of the names.

Description of the 23 ORT comprehensive schools and their location is shown in Figure 3.2.

Name	Location	Pupils	Teachers	Type	Merging Date
ORT Henry Ronson	Ashkelon	800	40	State	95
ORT Afrider	Ashkelon	800	50	State	94
ORT Spanian	Jerusalem	400	30	State	96
ORT Ramot	Jerusalem	900	40	State	95
ORT Hulon	Hulon	800	40	State	94
ORT Shomron	Binyamina	1500	60	State	95
ORT Sapir	Yeruham	250	20	State	96
ORT Bet_Shean	Bet-Shean	630	30	State	96
ORT Bet_Shean	Bet-Shean	1000	50	Religious	95
ORT Horovitz	Carmiel	900	40	State	95
ORT Megadim	Carmiel	800	30	State	96
ORT Avret	Hatzor	670	30	State	96
ORT Rogozin	Migdal Ha-emek	1300	60	State	95
ORT Ma-a lot	Ma-alot	900	40	State	95
ORT Carmel	Haifa	900	40	Druze	95
ORT Singalovsky	Tel-Aviv	1400	60	State	95
ORT Ako	Ako	2600	90	State	95
ORT Achva	Naura	800	30	Arab	96
ORT Motzkin	Haifa	2000	80	State	95
ORT Netanya	Netanya	1600	90	State	96

ORT Gutman	Netanya	1500	80	State	96
ORT Rehovot	Rehovot	1200	70	State	90
ORT Kramim	Carmiel	900	50	State	96

Figure 3.2 - The 23 ORT comprehensive schools.

Sampling can be planned after the population has been identified. According to Cohen and Manion (1994) the researcher gathers data from a small group of the population to indicate that what is obtained is representative of the total population being studied. The smaller group is known as a sample where there are two forms. The first is the probability sample where the probability of selection of each person is known and the non-probability sample where the probability of selection is un-known (Robson 1993).

According to Blalock (1994), all samples tend to be biased. Researchers however, design the samples so that there is a minimum of bias. Also, they increase the possibility that the results of their research may be relevant to a large number of people.

Initially, no sampling was performed in terms of the school principals but the sampling undertaken in terms of the teachers was non-probability and purposive (Nachmias 1996), whereby from each school, heads of departments and teachers were chosen from those who teach English, Math and Hebrew Literature. Six teachers from each junior-high school and six teachers from each high school were chosen for the research due to the subject taught. The reason these subjects were chosen is due to the fact that they are core subjects of the matriculation exam. These subjects are also basic requirements when pupils move from the junior-high school to the high school (Autolony 1997).

In relation to the case study sampling, three teachers were chosen from each section by the use of a given list of names and subjects taught. The subjects that were chosen were English, Math and Hebrew Literature. In this case, it was done by systematic sampling. In addition to the three teachers, three pupils were chosen from a list – one from each year group in the junior-high school and three pupils from the high school were also chosen from a list. Again, one from each year group. Once again in this case, systematic sampling was used. The case study includes a sociometric questionnaire, which was passed on to twenty teachers in each of the three case study schools. This was done in

order to check social interaction amongst teachers, based on the SMI factor of cohesiveness (Fershtman 1997). Ten teachers from each section were chosen, according to the subjects they taught. Two who taught English, two who taught Math, two who taught Hebrew, two who taught History and two who taught Bible. The teachers who were chosen in this case are different from the teachers chosen for the interviews. Once again, systematic sampling was used. Regarding the case studies, three pupils from the junior-high school and three pupils from the high school were randomly chosen from a list provided by the principal.

Non-probability samples are those in which the probability of selection is not known (Ben-Yehoshua 1999, Johnson 1994, Robson 1993). If probability sampling is not used the information provided can be used for generalisation. In small scale research non-probability sampling is often used. According to Cohen and Manion (1994) there are five types of non-probability sampling. The first is convenience sampling, which involves picking people that are convenient and continuing until the right sample size has been found. The second type of sampling is that of quota sampling, which tries to choose representative elements of the total population in the same proportions. The third form of sampling is known as purposive sampling, whereby researchers handpick the case to be included using their own judgment of the population typicality (Nachmias 1996). The fourth type of sampling is that of dimensional sampling, which is very similar to quota sampling. This is done by choosing various factors of interest in a population and getting at least one respondent who combines all factors. The fifth form of sampling is known as snowball sampling, whereby researchers pick-out individuals with the required characteristics. These individuals then identify others who qualify for inclusion and this in turn identifies others. In the research project a convenience purposive sampling was used.

The following presents the case study approach used by the research project.

Case Study Approach

One of the basic approaches in producing social educational research is through the use of a case study. This type of research is appropriate for the single researcher. It is also particularly suitable for research within the school as it uses the school itself as the 'case'. Case study work involves the collection of evidence (Nisbet and Watt, 1994, Ball 1983). Alternatively, Sarantakos (1998) and Bell (1999) mentioned that case study work may

not only use a limited time scale but can be conducted over a long period of time. The long period of time allows for the collection of data, organizing meetings with the individuals, as well as the gathering of individuals in order to collect the information required. Cohen and Manion (1994) state that case study research usually involves investigating one unit, such as a school. This research goes into depth to observe the various aspects that make up the unit. It is also concerned with the connection between various factors and events. Nisbet and Watt (1980) note that sometimes it is only possible to get a real picture of the interaction of factors and events by observing practical situations within a case study. Johnson (1994) and Ben-Yehoshua (1999) maintain that within the case study it is necessary to use various factors of evidence, such as interviews.

In order to gather a sample of cases so that generalization to some population might be made, Yin (1994) recommends the use of multiple case studies. By the use of this method all the findings received from the case studies are integrated. This is done to centralize all the information in order for it to be analysed. The advantage of multiple case studies is that it is possible to make a comparison of the information received. In the research project the case studies relate to the following aspects presented. Figure 3.3 shows the method used in the three case studies of the research project.

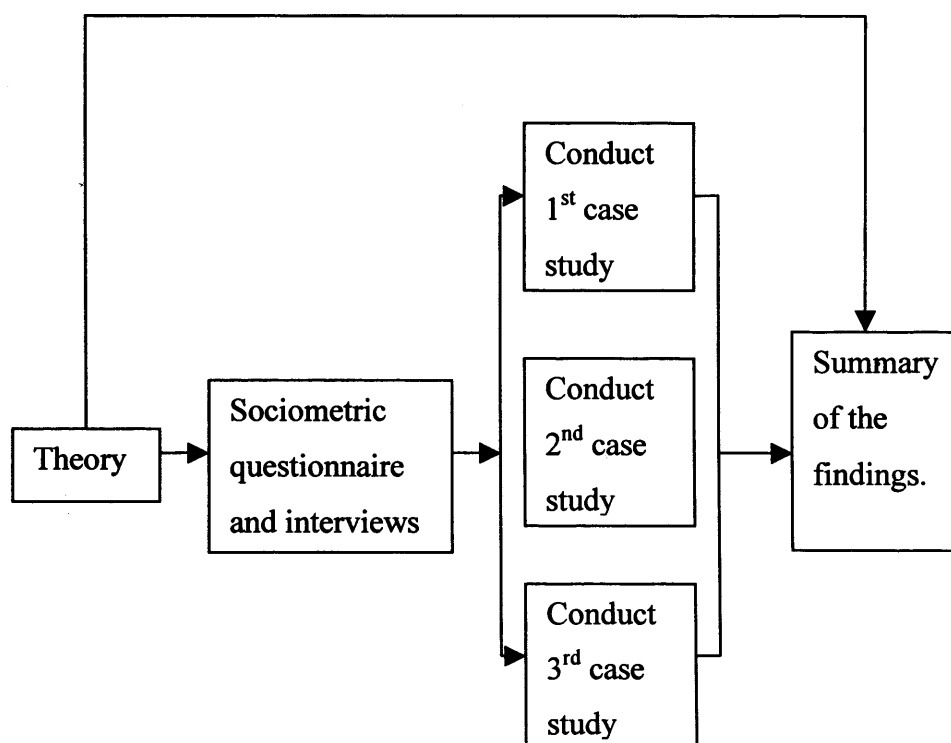


Figure 3.3: The three case studies methodology

The figure indicates the stages of producing the case studies in this research project, as reported in the findings. This includes the production of the sociometric questionnaire, the questions for the interviews for the three case studies, followed by the summary of the findings from each case study. The last stage is the analysis of the findings in relation to the literature review.

The three case studies of this research project were carried out to follow up and complement the survey. The three case studies were conducted after the survey and interviews were used with the principals, teachers and pupils, as well as socio-metric questionnaires. They were used specifically as a means of identifying key issues relating to problems of integration, management style and school culture, as well as social interaction. Adelman (1984) and Nisbet and Watt (1984) refer to certain strengths of case study research. They claim that case studies can cope with complex issues and provide descriptive data. A case study deals with problems of meaning, as well as examining the record of past events and relates it to the present situation. The use of an interview provided the researcher of this project with the background material necessary to relate to the present system within the six-year school.

Another advantage relates to the fact that case studies provide non-technical findings. In other words, case study based reports tend to be easily readable, able to be understood by non-researchers and reliable. Much of the work on the case studies dealt with reporting, quoting and general feedback, as a result of the interviews. This material can be clearly understood in terms of non-technical findings. Case studies provide an understanding of other similar cases. The information a case study gives is enough to be compared with other examples. The three case studies of this research provide an addition to the survey. The case studies used in this research were needed as a follow up to the survey, in order to examine certain conclusions through looking at problems of integration, different management styles and school culture. Sarantakos (1998) and Nachmias (1996) maintain that the importance of the case study method is that it allows the researchers to focus on a particular area and the researcher can focus on interactive processes.

Despite the advantages mentioned above, there are several difficulties relating to case study research. The first lies in the area of uniqueness whereby the case study can not be a reliable form of research (Johnson 1994). This is usually the case with the single case study as opposed to a complex study. The research project uses three case studies, which increases the reliability of the research (Robson 1993). Regarding the problem of generalisation, mentioned by Ben-Yehoshua (1999) and Bassey (1999), the research project includes more than one case study (Yin 1994). This is in addition to the survey, which increases the possibility of generalization and reliability. Another area of difficulty that the research project copes with is that of un-even access, where Johnson (1994) claims that researchers may have difficulty in reaching the subjects in case studies. This may in turn distort findings. In this case, the researcher of this research project has free access to all ORT schools in Israel with the permission of the ORT managing director. Although this may cause some bias, it is not possible to have unlimited access to all schools in Israel.

To sum up this section, it is possible to note that case study research is a valuable approach for many educational enquiries and provides the potential for rich data and in-depth analysis of real situations. It also gives a strong prospect of understanding complex phenomena but it lacks the generalisability of survey research. This research project uses both surveys and three case studies, which include interviews and socio-metric questionnaires. The case studies in the research project incorporate three six-year comprehensive schools, which are mentioned in the introduction. They are ORT1, ORT2 and ORT3: The three particular schools constitute a purposive sample chosen (Robson 1993), because they are being managed differently. These three schools were also picked due to the availability access to them as they were known by the researcher. They are geographically close together. The case studies contained the following elements: Questionnaires were given to the principals – the aim being to check the perceptions of the particular management style of the principal, success of integration, the problems of integration and school culture. Questionnaires were given to the teachers – the aim being to check all the same above-mentioned features, as those given in the questionnaires to the principals. Interviews with the principals – the aim being to check answers to the research questions in depth.

Interviews with three teachers from each section of the school – the aim being to check perceptions of the school culture, management style of the principals, success for integration and problems of integration in depth.

Interviews with three pupils from each section of the school – the aim being to check their perceptions of the school culture and problems of integration in depth.

A sociometric questionnaire – the aim being to find social network patterns and cohesive groups of the teachers in all three of the schools. This questionnaire is based on cohesive groups detection in a social network, by the segregation matrix index (SMI) presented by Fershtman (1997).

The questionnaires and the interviews will be explained in further detail in the next section. The interviews, which were used in the research, are of a semi-structured form. With semi-structured interviews we are dealing with a dimension of greater or less structure, rather than suggesting that there is a qualitative difference between this and the structured interviews (Robson 1993). The interviews included questions to the principals, teachers and pupils. The questionnaires and the interview questions are to be found in appendices B and C respectively.

Triangulation, Reliability and Validity

In this research project, both quantitative (questionnaires) and qualitative (interviews) data were used. Case studies and a survey were used to triangulate. Within the case studies themselves the triangulation was performed by taking opinions from three main groups : principals, teachers and pupils.

A pilot questionnaire was sent to a handful of principals and teachers, in order to check the validity of the questionnaires and check whether the questions asked related to the research. After the pilot questionnaire was returned, it was evident that certain questions were unclear. As a result, changes and adjustments were made to those questions that needed clarification. In addition, the number of questions in the questionnaires were of a high number (73). This was done in order to cover all aspects of the research. On the other hand, a high number of questions are liable to cause difficulties amongst the respondents due to the fact that people tend to become tired of answering numerous

questions. This may result in a delay in receiving the information. In the case of this particular pilot, a period of one month lapsed before any answers were received.

Cohen and Manion (1994) note that triangulation is the use of two or more forms of collecting data relating to the subject studied in order to ensure the collected information. When only one source of information is used, it is possible that there may be some inaccuracies. When several sources are used the conclusions reached are more likely to be accurate. Triangulation may use both quantitative and qualitative data. Triangulation is the comparison of data gathered from different sources, in order to check its validity. Evans (1983) and Ben-Yehoshua (1999) term it a multi-method approach. Multi methods could measure and investigate factors related to the research project, such as academic achievement, cultural interests, interpersonal relationships and management style.

Reliability

According to Bell (1999) reliability is defined as a test of procedure, which produces similar results. It is possible to check reliability in scales and tests by repeating the same test after the first, by using the alternate method where similar items are given and results correlated (Ben-Yehoshua, 1999). A further method is known as the split-half method, where the items in the test are divided into two equal parts and the scores are then correlated.

The researcher of this project made use of the split-half method in the following manner. The questions in the questionnaire were divided into the three major areas of the research, namely integration, management style and school culture. Within this sub division the questions were split again and put into two new questionnaires, which included questions related to the three main research areas. Each new questionnaire consisted of a smaller number of questions than in the original format. The two new questionnaires were allocated to the participants of the ORT management in-service training course. The researcher of this project was attending the course and therefore able to allocate the questionnaires to the number of participants, necessary for the task. The response for the two new questionnaires was similar and comparable to each other. Hence it is possible to note that the original questionnaire was highly reliable.

In surveys it is important to recognise reliability and validity, but this is less so in case study research, which is judged differently (Bassey 1999). In an interview, which only takes place once with the same person, it is more difficult to check the reliability of the results of the interview. In most cases different opinions are received (Robson 1993). Regarding validity, the results of the interview are somewhat dependent on the approach and direction provided by the interviewer. Evans (1983) claims that validity explains whether an item describes what it is meant to describe. It is possible to produce the same response on all occasions, but not to measure what it is meant to measure. The relatively large number of questions in the questionnaire (73), in fact covers all the three main areas of the research, namely integration, management style and school culture. All the items in the questionnaire comprehensively cover the three main research areas and describe what they are meant to describe. The use of a large and comprehensive number of questions has increased the validity of the questionnaire. Validity is not relevant in case study research, due to the fact that a case study relates to a singularity and is not necessary a typical example (Bassey 1999).

The following describes the research tools, which have been used in this research project.

Questionnaires

The research project consists of 73 closed questions and gives the possibility of straightforward analysis. The questions used were based on questionnaires which were compiled by the Henrietta Szold Institute for research and social science. The Szold institute is based in Jerusalem and is responsible for producing academic research in the area of educational management, behaviour and social science.

The effective use of the questionnaires in the research project is done by ensuring that the questionnaire is clear and comprehensive to desired respondents. This is done by the use of a pilot questionnaire. In addition, there was the task of getting the questionnaire into the hands of the appropriate respondent by using the internal and personal post of the ORT Network. The researcher of this project motivated the respondents to complete and return the questionnaires by sending a personal request from the ORT managing director regarding the questionnaire return. The researcher also made effective administrative arrangement for the return of the questionnaires by using the internal ORT post. Some of the respondents, the principals and teachers, were called from time to time to remind

them to complete the questionnaires. Regarding standardised questions, all respondents were presented with the same questions. The advantage of the standardised question is that you are strictly controlling the stimulus presented to all respondents with the intention of increasing validity and reliability.

Questionnaires are the most wide-spread way of obtaining data. The cheapest way of gathering information from lots of people is the use of postal questionnaires in a large-scale survey. In a questionnaire the respondent has to answer questions by ticking boxes, writing opinions or putting things in order of importance. Munn (1991) and Johnson (1994) noted that the researcher is not usually in the vicinity of the respondent when the questionnaire is being filled in. In other words, some of the questions might be understood differently by different respondents. A questionnaire is a research tool, which is in the hand of the respondent and is completed by him or her. This is different from the interview where the questions may be similar but they remain in the hands of the interviewer (Robson 1993). The interviewer completes the answers according to information given by the person interviewed.

In addition to the point mentioned above, respondents can complete the questionnaires in their own time, information can be collected from a large number of people, and analysis of responses is simple if the questions are mainly closed. On the other hand, it is time consuming to arrange appointments for interviews, as well as for the actual time involved in conducting the interviews. In addition, analysis of the interview questions is far more qualitative as opposed to analysing questionnaires, which are quantitative. Qualitative data is more time consuming and difficult to analyse. On the other hand, Munn (1999) notes that questionnaires lead to a description of why things are the way they are as opposed to explaining the information collected. The research project attempts to describe the present situation in schools as well as to explain the information presented particularly through case studies. Regarding the time involved in drafting and piloting the questionnaires, the pilot was returned quickly which shortened the time for preparation of the final version of the questionnaire.

Piloting of the questionnaire

In choosing people for the piloting, the aim is to get the maximum of useful feedback as readily as possible. The researcher of this project chose individuals who are likely to be

sympathetic to his work but willing to give forthright comments and sharp criticism. The four principals and twelve teachers from the six-year comprehensive schools in Pardess Hanna (near Hadera) and Ramat Hasharon (near Tel-Aviv) who took part in the pilot, were not asked to be part of the actual research findings. The researcher of this project asked the respondents to comment on the pilot questionnaire and to answer the following questions:

1. How long did it take you to complete? The answers were between 10 to 20 minutes. (Principals and teachers).
2. Were the instructions clear? The respondents noted that there were some typing mistakes in Hebrew. The corrections were made later on.
3. Were any of the questions unclear? One of the principals suggested to add 'in the school' at the end of question no. 2 of the first part of the questionnaire. It is clear that this question is related to school.
4. Did you object to answering any of the questions? Despite the fact that they gave a negative response they all answered that the questionnaire was too long. The researcher of this project did not alter the number of questions in the questionnaire due to the fact that it was necessary to cover the three main areas of the research, namely integration, management style and school culture.

Ben-Yehoshua (1999) maintains that a pilot run is central if questionnaires are to be used as a research tool. It is necessary to complete questionnaires for analysis in order to check that research requirements are going to be met by the information asked for. Peres (1995) maintains that it is necessary to pilot all data gathering means, in order to check how long it takes the respondent to complete the tasks and to check that all questions and instructions are clear and to remove any irrelevant information. Small-scale piloting can be done by working through a number of questionnaires and then discussing it with the researcher (Munn 1999). Peres (1995) and Ben-Yehoshua (1999) suggest that in smaller pilot studies it may also be possible to ask respondents to give comments on perceived strengths and weaknesses of the questionnaire.

Distribution and return of questionnaires

The research project population (principals and teachers) reacted positively, despite the length of the questionnaire (73 closed questions). It also seemed that the appearance of the questionnaire was more important than its length. The researcher of this project

established contact by phone with the principal of each school and explained the purpose of the study. In some cases where the schools were located in the north or in the south of the country, information was only received through the use of the postal service. In the case of local schools, the questionnaires were collected personally from the schools. As mentioned previously, permission had been obtained from the ORT managing director to distribute through the internal mailing system.

Regarding non-response, a record of the date of distribution of questionnaires and the date they were returned, was completed to follow the process of mailing the questionnaires. For the questionnaires, which were not returned by the specified date, a second letter and questionnaire was sent to the particular school principal. Five per cent of the research project population of teachers did not return the questionnaires after the second letter.

In addition to the questionnaire described above, the research project used a sociometric questionnaire in order to map the social interaction amongst the teachers within the three six-year schools of the case studies. Twenty teachers from each case study school (ten from the junior-high and ten from the high school) who were given the sociometric questionnaire, were chosen due to the subjects they teach – English, Mathematics, Literature, Bible and History which are subjects taught both in the junior-high school and high school. Added to the questionnaires of the twenty teachers was an additional list with the names of the same twenty teachers. Each teacher was requested to write the names of the teachers from the list with whom he/she has contact, according to the specific question. The information received was used as a basis for cohesive group detection, namely SMI – Segregation Matrix Index described next.

Cohesive Group Detection in a Social Network by the Segregation Matrix Index

Introduction

The concept of a cohesive group of actors in a social network is a challenge to sociologists who try to define it in rigorous terms (Alba 1973, Freeman 1992, Frank 1995 and Pearce 1983). Although, intuitively, a ‘cohesive group’ seems to be a clear idea, its exact operative meaning turns out to be difficult to define. The difficulty lies in the exact interpretation of what the term ‘high cohesiveness’ means. The main characteristic of a

cohesive group in a social network is that the relationships amongst its members are more important or more numerous than relationships between members and non-members (Alba, 1973, Boissevain 1994). A cohesive group can be detected by its relative inward to outward interactions. Fershtman and Chen (1993) claim that social networks differ in structural and methodological features, such as size, average number of interactions made between their members, and so forth. For example, members of a four-actor group in a network who each make two choices may direct all their choices towards themselves, whilst members of a four-actor group in another network who each make five choices, may direct ten choices inward and ten choices outward. Although the number of inward choices in the second case is higher than that of the first ($10 > 8$), it is logical to assume that the first group is more cohesive than the second one. This is because the *relative* inward versus outward density of choices in the first group, is higher than in the second group. A group which directs most of its interaction inward, reveals *self-reference* and is sociometrically segregated (Megamot, 1997). The intensity of sociometric segregation is measured by the Segregation Matrix Index (Fershtman and Chen, 1993) which will serve as the tool in this study for cohesive group detection.

A cohesive group – an operational definition

A social group of actors who prefer to interact with one another more than with others and reveal a highly self-preference segregative attitude, is a cohesive group (Fershtman and Chen, 1993). Social groups can differ in size, composition and segregative intensity. An actor may belong to several groups. He or she may be part of a small group which serves as the core of a larger one, or a liaison person who is involved in two or more different social groups.

A cohesive group is a group of actors whose choices for one another are greater in both number and intensity, rather than the choices between them and non-members. The cohesiveness of a group is expressed by the Segregation Matrix Index (SMI) (Fershtman and Chen, 1993). An operational definition of an S-clique, grounded on the segregation matrix index, serves as a base for an algorithm for cohesive group detection in a social network. The technique for cohesive group detection, which is based on the Segregation Matrix Index was checked in the case studies of this research project and was found to fit relatively well. For further details relating to SMI and its algorithm see appendix D.

In addition to the two research tools described above, the research project used interviews in order to emphasise the link between certain questions and the three areas of the research namely, integration, management style and school culture.

Interviews

Ben-Yehoshua (1999) and Dunne (1995) note that preparation for interviews follows much the same procedures as for questionnaires. Topics need to be selected (*the research project topic was known*), and questions devised (*three sets of questions have been used in the research project – one set was for the principals, another one for the teachers and one set of questions was for the pupils*) (see Appendix C). The researcher of this project followed the rules laid down for questionnaire design (no leading, presumptive or offensive questions) and prepared the topic and questions to be asked in the right order, when all topics were covered. The order was important in establishing an easy relationship with the interviewee. The researcher also managed his schedule to make sure his form of questioning was clear, he attempted not to antagonize the respondent and allowed himself to record responses in a way that he could understand when the interview was over. This was done by writing down the answers received by the respondent.

Bassey (1999) notes the importance of the interviewers social skills where the respondent often produces an answer that he or she had not previously thought of prior to the interview. During the interview with the teachers it was necessary to emphasise the link between certain questions and the three areas of the research. Robson (1993), Bell (1999) and Wragg (1994) claim that the main advantage of using the interview is that it is a flexible and adaptable means of gaining information. It is possible to investigate feelings and motives by using the interview, something that can not be done in the same way by the use of a questionnaire. During the interview with a number of principals, it was clearly evident that a number of principals were uncertain regarding their management style. Those same principals were personally known to the researcher and therefore had to be completely honest regarding their answers. An added advantage of the interview is that responses can be developed and clarified. During the interview with a number of teachers, it was necessary to clarify the link between school culture and the relevant questions.

Types of interviews

Once the researcher has decided what he/she needs to know, a decision has to be made about the type of interview, which is most likely to produce the information required. Grebenik and Moser (1992) see the alternative types as ranged somewhere on what they call 'a continuum of formality'. They note that at one extreme is the completely formalized interview where the interviewer behaves as much like a machine as possible. At the other extreme is the completely informal interview in which the shape is determined by individual respondents. During the interview with a number of high school principals, who were known to the researcher on a personal level, it was necessary to create a formal atmosphere in order to ensure that the principal would answer the questions in a straight forward and relevant manner, without considering the point of view of the researcher. Robson (1993) differentiates between two major types of interviews. Structured and semi-structured interviews. The semi-structured interview was used in the research project.

The interviewer works through an interview schedule, which is usually composed of semi-closed questions. The advantage over the questionnaire is ensuring response, and the possibility of receiving a great deal and variety of information (Johnson 1994). In a classic standardised interview only the wording on the schedule may be used by the interviewer. Questions may seek factually precise information from the respondent, offering a range of possible answers. These are known as 'semi-closed' questions, and are the kind most commonly used in semi-formal interview schedules. 'Open' questions, to which respondents may reply in their own words, are difficult to record in a structured interview, and survey resources may not permit the analysis of these replies (Robson 1993). Cohen and Manion (2000) note that a semi-structured interview means that the sequence and wording of the questions are determined by means of a schedule and the interviewer is able to make any necessary changes. During the interview with a number of teachers it was necessary to elaborate on certain points regarding school culture, in order to clarify the purpose of the question.

Piloting of the interviews

The first stage of piloting was conducted by interviewing the junior-high and high school principals, six teachers and six pupils from the six-year school in Pardess Hanna. This was done in order to receive a response from the participants in order to check the

interview questions, as well as the relevant approach relating to the interviews. In this first probe it became obvious that some of the interview questions were unclear. In the interview with the junior-high and high school principals it became clear that it was necessary to delete the following questions. Question 9 (see Appendix C), related to specialised schools, which was not really relevant to the research project. Question 25 related to the known situation regarding expressions and language, which were not really relevant to the research project. In the interviews with the teachers it became clear that it was necessary to delete question 5 related to the preferred division of year groups within the school. This was not relevant to the research project.

Ethical issues

Johnson (1994) uses the ideas put forward by Sammons (1989) when discussing the problems involved in doing research. One of the major problems when doing any kind of research is that there is an unintentional collection of material that is of a personal nature and there is a possibility that it could be used in an irresponsible way (Hammersley 1999). The researcher of this project made sure that any material received that could possibly harm individuals, was not used. During the interviews with certain junior-high principals the impression created was that particular junior-high school principals were against co-operation with the ORT organisation, as well as the six-year framework. Their preference was for a separate junior-high school and high school. On the other hand, they were concerned that the researcher would state their views in such a way that it would not be detrimental to their individual positions as junior-high school principals. The researcher informed those particular junior-high school principals that their names would not appear in the research. However, it was an intricate part of the research to have their views represented.

A further difficulty that arises from doing research is that consent needs to be given by the person who is asked to provide information for the research (Frank-Nachmias 1996). Regarding this research project there was in fact no difficulty in receiving permission from those interviewed. The person who has the legal status to give consent is able to choose freely without the use of force, fraud, deceit or pressure being put on and understands what is required of him/her to make a suitable choice. In order to receive legal consent, the researcher made the point that it must be done through the person who

actually gives the consent. The researcher of this project also consulted parents and class teachers regarding the pupils' interviews.

A further point that arises in this issue is that participants in the research were not coerced in any way by the use of power or position (Reynolds 1979). They were fully aware of the intentions of the research and any possible findings. Everything was clear and above board. Not everybody interviewed knew how much should be told to the researcher. Some people used the situation as a way of feeling free to discuss all their personal work related problems. When the information came into the hands of the researcher, which could cause problems amongst the interviewee's colleagues, it was important not to use this information. In addition, there is also the problem of relating what the researcher knows to other members of staff. Often, information received by the researcher is not common knowledge and the researcher was especially careful not to pass on this information.

In some cases it was impossible to hide the identities of those who participate in the research, due to the nature of the research and the individual's role. However, it was always important to use professional titles and roles rather than names. In the case of pupils and students it was best not to use real names at all so that identity was kept secret. Bird et al, (1981) note the importance of pseudonyms so that the pupils' school and future careers are in no way at risk. The same applies to the pupils' parents who may be identified unless complete anonymity is used.

One further ethical issue is connected to what use the researcher makes of certain confidential material that sometimes comes into the hands of the researcher. Not all those who provided information for the research project realised the confidentiality of certain material. Out of date records is a good example where the researcher often had access to confidential material, i.e. pupils no longer attend a school but their records are still available, or the case of members of staff who are no longer employed in a particular school. Here the material is still confidential but as there is no contact with the educational institution concerned it was considered acceptable to make the records freely available. Most of the above ethical issues were seriously considered when the researcher of this project undertook any form of research. In one case where the researcher was familiar with the school, it was obvious that not the whole truth was always told. The

dilemma was in whether to record what was said, knowing that it was untrue, to alter what was said to the truth, or to in fact tell the interviewee that he/she was making a mistake. In this situation what was told to the researcher was accepted as if it was the truth and considered as part of the margins of error.

The position of insider researcher

Peres (1995) claims that interviewing is not easy and many researchers have found it difficult to strike the balance between complete objectivity and trying to put the interviewee at ease. There are particular difficulties in interviewing senior colleagues. The researcher of the research project was not conscious of the degree to which his status as a teacher placed him in a subordinate position. On the other hand, his role as researcher (and deputy), gave him the kind of advantage, which Platt (1981) reports is inherent in the interviewer-interviewee relationship. The fact that the researcher was an insider had an advantage in that he was aware of everything that was going on in the school that he worked in, as well as many other aspects within the ORT organisation regarding integration, management style and school culture. The advantage of the researcher as an insider enabled him to have easy access to information, as well as using his own interpersonal skills with members of staff. The researcher managed to relieve the feeling of discomfort, which might arise from trying to reconcile the two roles due to the fact that the researcher of this project was trained to be a principal. The respondents chose their words carefully as they were aware that colleagues were to be given the opportunity of reading the draft of the report.

Regarding the bias, the researcher of this project held strong views about some aspects of the topic and was particularly careful about the way questions were put. It was easier for the researcher to lead in the interview due to the fact that he knew some of the interviewees personally and had worked with some of them. In some ways the researcher's position was helpful, but in other ways it could have influenced the data. Therefore the researcher of this project took into account the possibility of influencing the data before the interview. It was clear to the researcher and the principals, that both of them wanted to ascertain accurate findings. There is always the danger of bias creeping into interviews.

Despite the researcher's position in the ORT Network, he no way influenced the interviewees. The researcher clearly stated, before each interview given, that the aims of all involved in the research was to find out the genuine problems of integration. In addition, the researcher also used his personal relationship as Tzafrir the colleague to create a friendly and positive non-threatening environment. In cases where the interview became over friendly the researcher shifted the emphasis to a formal interview. Robson (1993) and Ben-Yehoshua (1999) point out that interviewers are human beings and not machines, and their manner may have an effect on the respondents. It is possible to note that if one researcher conducts a set of interviews, the bias may be consistent and therefore go unnoticed.

A further point emphasised was the common aims of the ORT Network together with the principals and teachers to present a realistic picture of the problems of integration. It was common knowledge in the ORT Network that were difficulties regarding integration. Due to this fact the interviewees realised the importance of honest responses without being influenced or showing bias. Another point that reflects the impartiality of the researcher, is shown in the findings regarding two schools in close proximity where the researcher's own school was seen to be less successful.

Summary of the methodology chapter

In this research project, the researcher wishes to evaluate the difficulties of the six-year framework in the most realistic and credible manner and will present the findings to the managing director of the ORT network. The overall purpose of this research project is to examine the problems of six-year comprehensive schools relating to their integration, mainly from the perspective of principals and staff within the six-year ORT network schools. The ultimate aim being finding ways of problem solving within the system. The approach used in order to gather information for the research, was the use of questionnaires both to the principals and teachers, as well as interviews with principals, teachers and pupils in order to generalize the findings for all the six-year schools in the Israeli educational system. The benefits of this research are the contribution that is made to both the Ministry of Education and in particular, the ORT network, in order to pinpoint on going difficulties within the six-year framework. However, the price to be paid by the principals could possibly be the finding of conflicting approaches between the ORT network and the individual school principals. At the same time they are interested in

finding the perceptions of the position of the school, in order to advance internal processes.

The researcher of this project had to find a way of creating a balance between the price to be paid by the participants, and at the same time providing benefits for the research project. The researcher of this project used the following approaches in order to create a positive environment for the participants so that they would be at ease in order to answer the required questions honestly and truthfully. Respect was given to the participants (Ribbins 2001), whereby the researcher of this project gave the participants the security of not passing on any information that was personal and that he/she wished to keep private. Some of the participants requested that all information gathered would remain anonymous and confidential, whereby individual names would be refrained from being published regarding the information given by certain individuals. At the same time, the researcher informed the participants that not in all cases is it possible to maintain complete anonymity and there is a slight possibility of unintentional compromise.

Secondly is the importance of the respect for truth (Ribbins 2001), whereby the researcher presented in an even-handed way all the aspects of the information gathered and its analysis in a true and honest fashion. Respect was given to the participants for democratic values whereby the researcher assured the participants that there would be full access to the findings of the research before official publication. This was done in order to protect the participants from any compromising situations. The researcher was able to establish a good working relationship between himself and the participants based on truth and openness (Bell, 1991), due to past contact. This in turn allowed material to be gathered fairly promptly.

On the other hand, the professional status of the researcher in the ORT network could have in fact caused a situation whereby certain principals were unwilling to provide realistic information, which could have caused them personal and professional difficulties. The researcher of this project was very familiar with those principals who were concerned with providing information. In turn, the researcher devoted time and effort in persuading those principals that their names would not be present on any information that was received by them. In addition, they would be presented with the findings before any official publication. The researcher also pointed out that it was

possible to discontinue their participation at any point that they so wished (Reynolds, 1979). The interviewer was aware that he imposed on the interviewees' personal time. As a result, interviews were conducted in a flexible manner both from the point of view of location and time of day. There was no pressurizing factor regarding the amount of time given to the interview. The participants will also receive a copy of the final report of the interview before publication. They were also made aware that the findings of the research will be passed on to the Library at Leicester University.

The next chapter presents the findings received from the survey, regarding integration, management style and school culture.

Chapter Four: Findings from the Survey

Introduction

The findings of the survey will be presented in this chapter. The findings are related to the questionnaires which were received from the principals and teachers regarding integration, management styles and school culture. The next chapter deals with the three case study findings which were received as a result of the interviews given to principals, teachers and pupils, as well as the sociometric questionnaire given to the teachers. The diagram presented in the methodology chapter (Figure 3.1) is used to present and explain the findings.

In order to answer the four research questions, questionnaires were issued to the principals and teachers of the 23 six-year comprehensive schools. The four research questions were as follows:

1. *Do principals and teachers of ORT six-year schools perceive that integration has brought benefits for the school? If so, what factors are perceived to have most impact on integration?*
2. *What are the principals and teachers' perception of the management styles and the impact of these styles on the process of integration?*
3. *What do the principals and teachers perceive as the impact of school culture on integration?*
4. *What are the principals and teachers' perception of the impact of social interaction between teacher teams, on the integration process?*

The principals' questionnaire included 73 questions and the teachers' questionnaire included 74 different questions related to the four research questions. In addition, a sociometric questionnaire was given to the teachers whose aim was to find out about teachers' social networks within the six-year system (this will be dealt with in the next chapter regarding the three case studies). The findings received from the survey are organised as follows:

The first section deals with the principals' questionnaire regarding integration, (relating to the first R.Q), management style, (second R.Q), and school culture, (third and fourth

R.Q). The second section deals with the teachers' questionnaire regarding integration, management style and school culture. Chapter five deals with the findings received from the three case studies.

The principals' questionnaire findings

The following describes the findings perceived by the principals regarding integration.

Integration perceived by the principals

The questionnaire given to the principals included questions, which related to certain parameters regarding integration, is briefly discussed in the literature review. The questions were divided as follows due to their relevance and importance as mentioned in the literature review.

<u>Factor</u>	<u>Questions</u>
The impact on the pupils	8,9,18,24,26,31,39,40,45,50,51, 54(-), 55,60,65
The effect of change	1,10,11,36,37,38,39,43,44,46(-), 50, 54(-), 55(-), 71, 72(-), 73
Maximised efficient learning time	2,51
Learning conducive atmosphere	21,48,52,26
Clear goals and expectations	32,47,58,72
The principal's role	14, 47, 69
Emphasis on academic achievement	41,42,53,58
Impact on the teachers	13,16,17,20,30,56,57,59,61,72
Staff morale	12,19,20,25,29,33,36,37,41,42,44,53,56,58
Stress and conflict of staff	46,48,61,63,64
Work relationships	3,5,30,35,46,50,56,63(-), 64(-),66,71,72(-)
Collegial management style	34,66
Principals / teachers' relationships	6,7,15,28,29,30,46,47
Team development	5,32,33,35,50,66,71,72
Involvement of parents	49

All the above factors are of great importance when considering their impact on integration. However, it was not considered necessary to include more than three, four or five questions for certain areas such as the principal's role, clear goals and expectations, learning conducive atmosphere, emphasis on academic achievement, stress and conflicts.

Regarding the principal's role it is necessary to look at the relevant questions. Questions 14, 47 and 69 relate to the factor of the principal's role. The questions relate to the change in the principal's status regarding the change to the six-year system. The principal's status affects the functioning of the principal and his/her ability to cope with changes (Fullan 1991), which is an important element in the impact on integration. The questions also relate to the principal's role (Berenbaum 1976) in being able to transmit the school's goals to the members of staff. Clearly defined transmission of goals produces efficient and better functioning of the teachers in order to achieve the goals and aims of the school (Friedman 1988). One of the major factors for integration is the achievement of school goals, which are defined by the school (Edmonds 1982, Brookover 1984). When the teachers are aware of the aims it is far easier to obtain the required goals, which in turn has an impact on integration.

On the other hand, in order to receive a comprehensive picture regarding staff morale and impact on the pupils, it was necessary to have a large and varied number of questions, i.e. fourteen and fifteen questions. Regarding team development it was necessary to have eight questions in order to cover the majority of points in this factor. Team work relations, impact on the teachers as well as principals/teachers relationships required eight, nine and ten questions respectively. Maximised efficient learning time and collegial management style required only two questions whilst parents involvement needed only one question in order to check the level of their involvement in the school.

Regarding the factor of the effect of change, a number of questions were included which dealt with the influence of the change to the six-year school on the process of integration. In this factor sixteen questions were included in order to cover a wide area e.g. the academic curriculum, teacher opinion, multi-edge study groups, structure of buildings, preparation of pupils for continuity, separate management, younger and older pupils together and belonging to the M.O.E. or ORT.

The value of the findings perceived by the junior-high school principal (JHSP) and high school principal (HSP), regarding the impact of each factor on integration can be seen in Table 4.1 and Figure 4.1.

<i>Factor</i>	<i>Junior</i>	<i>High</i>
The impact on pupils	2.98	2.48
The effect of change	2.66	2.61
Maximised efficient learning time	4.13	2.91
Learning conducive atmosphere	3.84	3.01
Clear goals and expectations	3.27	3.48
The principal's role	3.87	4.13
Emphasis on academic achievement	2.25	2.18
Impact on the teachers	3.02	3.72
Staff morale	2.96	3.02
Stress and conflict	2.73	3.77
Work relationships	3.6	2.67
Collegial management style	3.98	2.67
Principals/teachers' relationships	3.43	3.6
Team development	3.7	3.13
Involvement of parents	4	1.74

Table 4.1: Factors perceived by the principals as having an impact on integration.

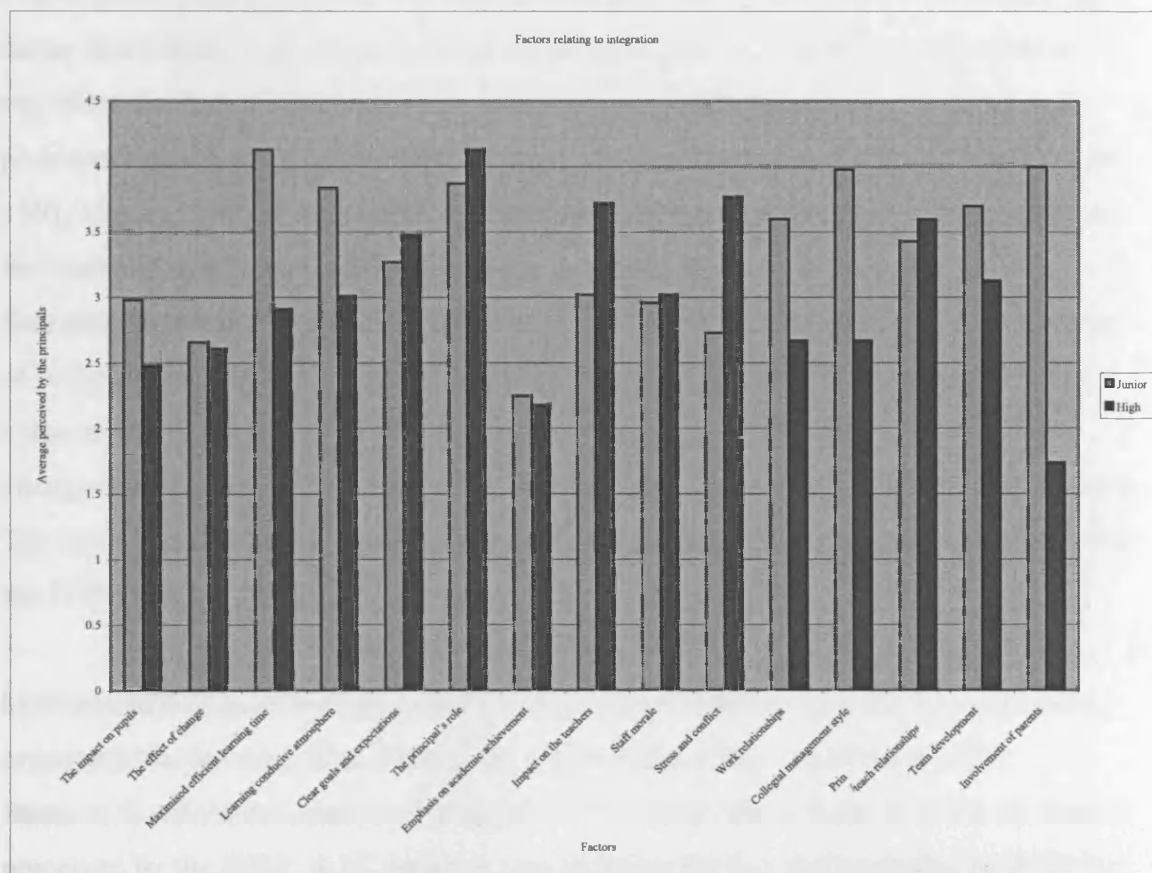


Figure 4.1: Factors perceived by the principals as having an impact on integration.

The following shows the values perceived by the principals as having the most impact on integration. Further discussion can be found in chapter six, which deals with the analysis of the findings.

The impact on the pupils relates to the effect of the change on the pupils' needs, problems of transition, a pupil centred approach, the rate of dropping out, a sense of belonging to the new framework and studying according to a new curriculum (Bronfenbrenner 1998, Kim 2001, Ryan 2000, Baumeiser 1995, Reis 1996, Beheri 1997, Israelshvilli 1997, Chen 1997). These issues all have an impact on the process of integration. The finding that was perceived by the JHSP for this factor, (2.98), is higher than that perceived by the HSP (2.48). This points to the fact that the JHSP view the fact that transition, pupil needs and dropping out have a high impact on integration. The finding also indicates the fact that the emphasis in the JHS is on pupil centred education (Gordon 1997, Chen 1997, Israelshvilli 1997).

The effect of change relates to the impact of integration on the six-year curriculum. This factor also relates to the impact of continuity on the principals and teachers' opinion regarding the six-year framework, as well as the impact of the six-year framework on problems regarding contact between younger pupils and older pupils (Beheri and Degani 1997, Sharan 1997). The effect of change relates to the impact of the six-year school on the teachers' culture, as well as the pupils' culture (Fullan and Hargreaves 1992, Schneider and Barsoux 1997). In addition the impact of the six-year school on the sense of belonging of teachers to the ORT organisation or to the Ministry of Education. The value of this factor indicates the principals' perceptions regarding the impact of the change to a six-year system on the curriculum, pedagogical areas as well as pupils' needs. The impact of this factor on integration is equally perceived by both the JHSP (2.67) and the HSP (2.61).

Maximisation of learning time relates to the impact of the six-year change on effective organisational learning time. This factor indicates the advantage of the six-year framework within the process of integration. The value of this factor is relatively high as perceived by the JHSP, 4.13, which in turn indicates the fact that according to JHSP the time spent on learning, is greater than time spent on social activities (Adler 1997,

Friedman 1988). The JHSP perceived this factor as having a high impact on integration. On the other hand, the value of this factor, which was perceived by the HSP, is 2.91, which is lower than the value perceived by the JHSP. In other words, the HSP perception is that the time spent on learning is less than sixty percent of the time spent in school, as opposed to more than eighty percent perceived by the JHSP.

The learning conducive atmosphere factor relates to the effect of the six-year system on the learning environment and the success for integration (Chen 1997). The value which was perceived by the JHSP for this factor, 3.84, indicates the fact that the principals in the JHS emphasise the need for a secure and orderly environment, rather than academic achievement (Friedman 1993, Ben-Ari 1978, Anderson 1982, Aderet 1982). The JHSP view this factor as being of importance regarding the impact on integration. The average that was perceived by the HSP for this factor 3.01 indicates the fact that in the HS the atmosphere is less satisfactory than in the JHS.

The clear goals and expectation factor, relates to the degree the principal passes on the goals of the six-year school and the new curriculum. This factor shows the success for integration within the new system. The value of this factor, perceived by the JHSP 3.27, and HSP 3.48 is almost identical. This points to the fact that both sets of principals view the need for emphasis on, and a clear definition of the school's goals as well as expectation from the teachers in order to achieve the goals (Friedman 1989, Murphy 1988, Brophy 1982). This need comes as a result of the six-year framework, whereby it is necessary to define the new goals of the school. Both the JHSP and HSP view this factor as being of importance regarding the impact on integration.

The principal's role factor, relates to the role of the principal in the process of integration and the implementation of the change to the six-year framework. The value of this factor perceived by the JHSP is 3.87, whereas the value of 4.13 is perceived by the HSP. The finding indicates the fact that both the JHSP and the HSP view the role of the principal as being a central factor in promoting the process of integration, as well as the fact that the principal has a great impact on integration (Friedman 1993, Yassur 1998, Bernbaum 1976, Dwyer 1984, Hall 1988, Bennet 1993).

The emphasis on academic achievement factor relates to the effect of the change on the pupils academic achievement and the continuation of a modular curriculum. The value that was perceived by the JHSP 2.25 and the HSP 2.18 indicates the fact that the six-year framework has not been particularly conducive to linear and modular continuity (Autolony 1997). In the JHS, a higher value was received which shows that the JHS combines varied teaching methods (Friedman 1988). Both principals perceived this factor as having a low impact on integration.

Regarding the impact on the teachers, this factor relates to the effect of the change on the teachers status, his/her commitment to the school, upgrading of his/her professional work and his/her level of "burn-out" (Yellin 1997). The value of this factor perceived by the JHSP (3.02) is less than the value perceived by the HSP (3.72). This indicates that the JHSP view the six-year comprehensive framework as a major factor in the advancement of the status of the JHSP, whereas the HSP is aware of the fact that high school teachers hold higher status than JHS teachers (Beheri 1997).

The staff morale factor relates to the level of improving motivation amongst teachers, regarding attending courses related to the six-year curriculum (Friedman 1993). The value that was perceived by the JHSP for this factor, 2.96, is lower than the value perceived by the HSP 3.02. This indicates the fact that both the JHSP and HSP perceive the fact that staff morale has a positive effect on integration and is in fact an important element in promoting the process of integration (Cotton 1982, Hunter 1980, Ben-yossef 1994, Ben-Peretz 1997, Murphy 1988).

Regarding stress and conflict on teachers (ambiguity, political) this factor relates to the tension between the teams of teachers in the two sections. This factor also relates to the link between the six-year change and school culture change, as well as to the impact of continuity on power play amongst the teachers and principals (Handy 1987). This factor also relates to the impact of continuity on the lack of trust between the two teams of teachers. This finding points to the fact that JHSP view the fact that tension and conflict exists amongst the teachers from both schools (Beheri 1997). The HSP view the existence of tension and conflict at a higher rate (3.77). In other words, the HSP perceive the high level of stress and conflict in the HS as a factor in reducing the process of integration (Hoyle 1986).

The work relationship factor relates to the change in teamwork as a result of the six-year change and the development of inter personal relationships between teachers and pupils (Sharan 1997, Skinner 1990). In addition, this relates to the willingness of teachers to work in the two sections of the school (Degani 1997). The value that was perceived by JHSP regarding this factor, 3.6, is relatively high which indicates the fact that in the JHS, emphasis is placed on teamwork and good social contact amongst members of staff. HSP perceive this factor as being of less importance, 2.67. However, emphasis on teamwork in the HS is lower than in the JHS. In other words, the HSP see this factor as having less importance in promoting integration. The finding also indicates the fact that the JHSP view this factor as proof that there is a certain level of team work between the teachers of both schools. JHSP perceive this factor as having a higher impact on integration, as opposed to the HSP. The JHSP perceive the fact that positive team work promotes integration (Chen 1997). This also indicates the fact that there is a high level of team work in the JHS.

Regarding the collegial management style, this factor relates to the principals' styles of management and the level of co-operation between them in the six-year school and the resulting impact on the structure of the curriculum (Ben-Peretz 1995). The value that was perceived for this factor by the JHSP was particularly high, being 3.98, as opposed to 2.67 by the HSP. The difference between these two values shows a high level of collegial management style amongst JHSP, as opposed to a much lower level amongst the HSP. The HSP view the collegial management style as having a low impact on integration as opposed to JHSP. Further discussion can be found in the analysis chapter.

The principal/teachers' relationship factor relates to inter personal relationships between the principal and the teachers within the six-year framework. Likewise, this factor relates to the effect of this relationship on the overall relationships amongst the teachers within the two sections of the six-year school (Yellin 1997). This factor is perceived by the JHSP as a value of 3.43, as opposed to 3.6 which was perceived by the HSP. However, the values are relatively high. This finding indicates the fact that both principals see that the level of co-operation between the two schools has a high impact on integration (Cashty 2000).

Regarding the team development factor, this factor relates to the level of team development as a result of the change to a six-year framework (Friedman 1988, Chen 1997). This factor is perceived by the JHSP as a relatively high average, 3.7 as opposed to 3.13 by the HSP. Both sets of principals emphasise to a certain extent the fact that the six-year system improved teamwork and defined the role of teachers who hold positions of responsibility (Zohar 2000, Gonnem 1999, Rush 1980, Tamir 1980, Yosifon 1997, Robbins 2000) . This factor has a high impact on integration regarding both JHSP and HSP.

Regarding the involvement of parents factor, this factor relates to the degree of contact between parents and the school within the new six-year framework. Good relationships between the community and the school promote the process of integration (Adler 1997). The value of this factor perceived by the JHSP is relatively high, 4, which indicates the fact that the JHSP view parents' involvement in the school as extremely important in promoting positive integration (Israelshvilli 1997). As opposed to the above findings, the value of this factor perceived by HSP is extremely low, 1.73. This low value points to the fact that the HSP do not perceive this factor as being of any importance in order to promote the process of integration.

Summary of integration as perceived by the principals

From the above findings it is possible to note that the JHSP place high emphasis on the transition from the JHS to the HS, which in turn has a high impact on integration (Israelshvilli 1997, Adler 1997, Degani 1997). The JHSP view the importance of the pupil's social needs as being paramount in his/her absorption within the six-year framework (Chen 1997). JHSP place a high emphasis on the drop-out rate of pupils during the transition from the JHS to the HS, which in turn has a high impact on integration. The JHSP also place a high emphasis on a learning conducive atmosphere and the enhancement of school culture (Friedman 1988). They view this as having a high impact on integration. This is opposed to the HSP who place high emphasis on teacher's status (Degani and Beheri 1997) and the principal's role (Dwyer 1984, Hall 1988, Bennet 1993, King 1998, Leithwood 1990), which they view as being paramount to the impact on integration. The above findings indicate that the JHSP perceive that the factors that relate to pupils, as well as teamwork, have a high impact on integration. On the other

hand, the HSP perceive the factors that relate to the principal and teachers as having a high impact on integration.

These findings, in fact, match the theory presented in the literature review relating to the area of integration. Regarding the first research question (R.Q), the findings indicate the fact that the principals perceived the fact that integration has brought benefits for the six-year school, in spite of the disadvantages mentioned above. The junior-high school principals place high emphasise on the concept of “pupil centred” as opposed to “teacher’s status” perceived by the high school principals.

Further discussion can be found in chapter six which deals with the analysis of the findings. The following section presents the findings perceived by the principals, regarding management style.

Management style perceived by the principals

The questionnaire given to the principals included questions, which related to certain parameters regarding management style, as briefly discussed in the literature review. The questions were divided as follows due to their relevance and importance, as mentioned in the literature review.

Questions 2-5 refer to a collegial management style.

Questions 6-8 refer to a subjective management style.

Question 1, as well as numbers 9-11 refer to a bureaucratic management style.

Questions 12-14 refer to a political management style.

Questions 15-19 refer to an ambiguity management style.

Questions 20-21 refer to a cultural management style.

According to the division of the questions given to the principals, it is possible to see the type of management style or styles perceived by the principals. The questionnaire was given to 23 junior-high school principals and 23 high school principals. The findings, which were collected from the 46 principals, are displayed in Table 4.2 and Figure 4.2.

Management Style	Junior	High
Collegial	4.84	1.1
Subjective	1.16	1.52
Bureaucracy	1.73	4.79
Political	1.1	4.88
Ambiguity	4.13	3.75
Cultural	4.89	1.11

Table 4.2: Principals' management style

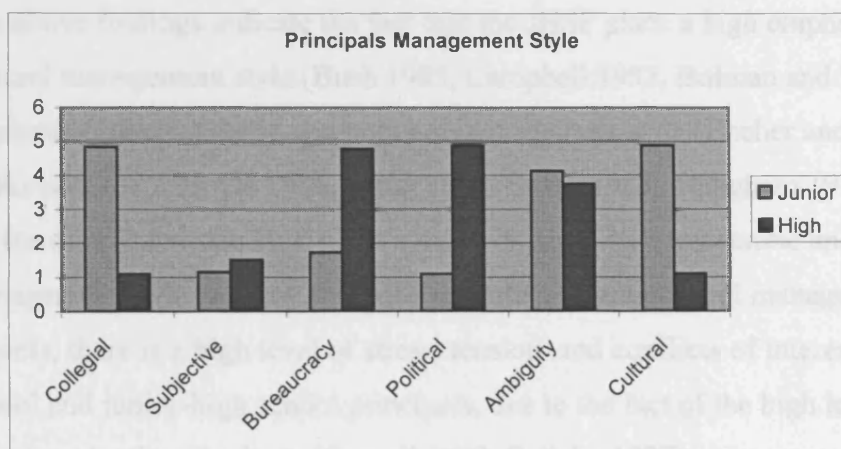


Figure 4.2: Principals' management style

The values displayed in Table 4.2 refer to the averages calculated as a result of the responses received relating to all six-year management styles. The left hand column refers to management style, the middle column refers to the value of the junior-high school principals' responses. The right hand column refers to the high school principals' responses.

Table 4.2 shows that the junior-high school principals perceive their own management style as **collegial and cultural**. Both these styles received a high value of 4.84 and 4.89 respectively. The ambiguity management style, which received an average of 4.13, shows that there is a high level of ambiguity amongst the principals (Davis 1976, Hoyle 1986, Cohen and March 1986). As opposed to this, both subjective and political management styles received the lowest value of 1.16 and 1.1 respectively. The bureaucratic management style received a slightly higher value than the latter with an average of 1.73.

On the other hand, the findings of the high school principals, as opposed to those of the junior-high school principals, tend to perceive the **political and bureaucratic** style as a

dominant factor with a high value of 4.88 and 4.79 respectively. Collegial and cultural management styles amongst high school principals received a very low value of 1.1 and 1.11 respectively. Both JHSP and HSP perceive a high level of **ambiguity** style due to the change in the six-year system (Fullan 1992, Friedman 1993). The high value of the political style perceived by the HSP indicates a particularly high level of conflict amongst the high school team (Glatter 1982, Blasé 1991, Ball 1987, Bacharach 1980, Gibton 2000, Friedman 1988).

The above findings indicate the fact that the JHSP place a high emphasis on collegial and cultural management style (Bush 1995, Campbell 1993, Bolman and Deal 1984) and low emphasis on bureaucratic and political management style (Becher and Koga 1992, Wilkinson 1987, Hoyle 1986, Tichy 1982, Smith 1983, Mangham 1979, Morgan 1986). On the other hand, the HSP place a high emphasis on bureaucratic and political management style and low emphasis on collegial and cultural management style. In both schools, there is a high level of stress, tension, and conflicts of interests between the high school and junior-high school principals, due to the fact of the high level of ambiguity perceived by the principals (Cornall 1992, Bellaby 1977).

Regarding the second research question (R.Q), the findings indicate the fact that the principals perceived that the management style of the junior-high school principals is collegial and cultural as opposed to the bureaucratic and political management style of the high school principals. Due to the fact that there is a difference between both principals' management styles, it is likely to have a negative impact on management style regarding integration (Beheri 1997, King 1998, Bennet 1993).

Further discussion can be found in chapter six which deals with the analysis of the findings. The following section presents the findings perceived by the principals, regarding school culture.

School culture perceived by the principals

This part includes questions which relate to the relevant factors that influence school culture, as mentioned in the literature review. The following shows the questions which refer to all the relevant factors. (The sign (-) means negative impact).

Factor	Questions
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Social interaction	50,55,63(-), 64(-),71
Social control	32,38,41,42,62,68,69,73
Social cohesion	4,22,23,27,40,48,50,52,65
Shared norms	67, 70(-), 72(-)

The following describes the above factors regarding school culture, as perceived by the principals. Further discussion can be found in the analysis chapter.

The value of the JHSP and HSP findings, regarding each factor of the integration, can be seen in Table 4.3 and Figure 4.3.

Factor	Junior	High
Social interaction	2.57	1.2
Social control	2.88	2.42
Social cohesion	3.15	3.14
Shared norms	1.36	1.48

Table 4.3: Factors perceived by the principals relating to school culture.

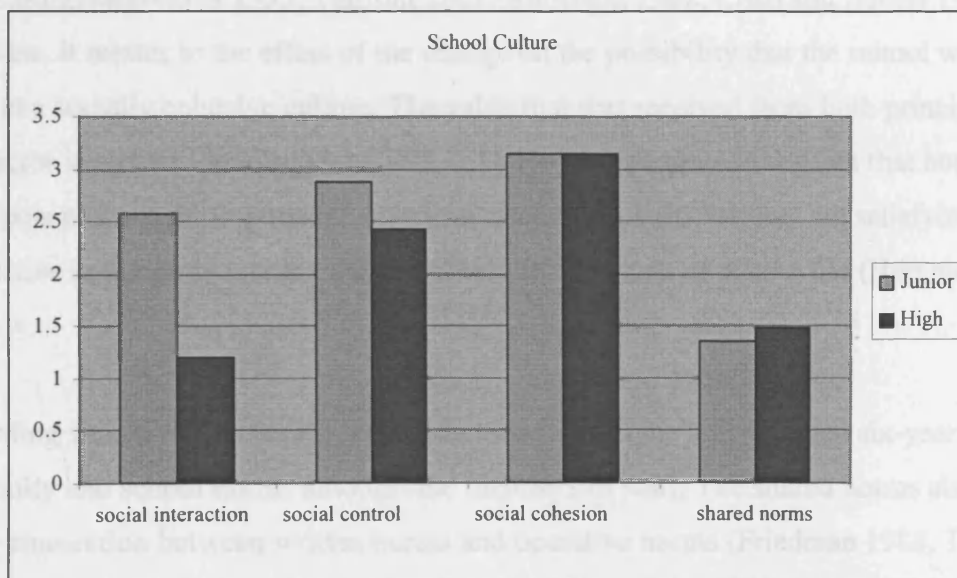


Figure 4.3: Factors perceived by the principals relating to school culture.

The social interaction (*cultural*) factor relates to the effect of the change on social interaction amongst teachers, and between teachers and pupils. The value that was perceived by JHSP (2.57) is far higher than the value that was perceived by the HSP (1.2). This points to the fact that the JHS in the six-year framework has promoted far more dialogue and social contact between the teachers and pupils, as opposed to the HSP (Frank 1995, Frieberg 1987, Gavish 1992, Glover 1997, Hasel 1981, Hargreaves 1971).

On the other hand, the social control (*task oriented*) factor, which relates to the type of control culture of the six-year framework, is influenced more by academic achievement and discipline and less by social relationships (Hargreaves 1995, Blake and Mouton 1985, Sharan 1981, Skinner 1990, Friedman 1993). This factor relates to the link between school culture and styles of management (Yassur 1997, Friedman 1988). The value of this factor perceived by the JHSP (2.88) is higher than the value of that perceived by the HSP (2.42). This points to the fact that in the HS an emphasis is placed on teaching and learning and not to be distracted from the subject and the point of studying (Hargreaves 1995).

The social cohesion (*cultural, people oriented*) factor relates to the effect of the change on a culture that emphasises contact amongst the teachers, and less on discipline within the school (Hargreaves 1995, Tzifroni 2001, Anderson 1982, Chen and Beheri 1997). Likewise, it relates to the effect of the change on the possibility that the school will adapt itself to a socially cohesive culture. The value that was received from both principals for this factor is almost identical (3.15 JHS, 3.14 HS). This points to the fact that both principals place great importance on social relationships so that they are satisfying, supportive and sociable within the social cohesion domain of school life (Hargreaves 1995).

Regarding shared norms (*cultural*) this factor relates to the link between six-year continuity and school norms amongst the members of staff. The shared norms also relate to the connection between written norms and operative norms (Friedman 1988, Turner 1990, bear 1989, Schein 1985, Pettigrew 1989, Conway 1985, Little 1990). The findings of this factor point to the fact that principals from both schools maintain that there are almost no shared norms between the teachers of both schools. This value that was received from the JHSP (1.36) is lower than that received by the HSP (1.48). Due to the

fact that the value is low it appears that there are no six-year school norms (Degani 1997).

The above findings perceived by the JHSP regarding school culture indicate that those principals perceived the social interaction factor as having a higher impact on integration than that perceived by the HSP. Both the JHSP and HSP perceived the shared norms factor as having a low impact on integration. In addition, both principals perceived the social cohesion factor as having a high impact on integration. It can also be noted that the JHSP perceived the social control factor as having lower values. This corresponds with Hargreaves model, whereby the school is placed in the lower area of social control and a higher area of cohesion.

Regarding the third research question (R.Q), the findings indicate the fact that there is a difference between both school principals' perception regarding school culture, whereby the JHSP perceived a high level of social cohesion and control as opposed to a low level of social cohesion in the high school. It is possible to note that there is a low impact of school culture on integration, due to the fact that no shared norms, neither social cohesion nor control exist within the six-year framework. Further discussion can be found in chapter six which deals with the analysis of the findings. The next section deals with the teachers' questionnaire.

The teachers' questionnaire

This questionnaire is made up of 74 questions, which relate to the most influential factors of integration, management style and school culture in the six-year school, as mentioned in the literature review. The following presents the findings perceived by the teachers regarding integration.

Integration perceived by the teachers

The following shows the questions, which relate to the vital factors identified through the literature review, as well as their influence on integration.

Factors dealing with integration.

<u>Factor</u>	<u>Questions</u>
Principal / teachers relationships	31,32,37,39(-), 56(-), 62(-)
Team work relationships	3,18(-), 28(-), 34(-), 42
Staff morale/efficiency	33,35(-), 41,64,67,68
Impact on the teachers	35,48,54,55,70

The following describes the above factors regarding integration, perceived by the teachers. Further discussion can be found in the analysis chapter.

The value of the JHS and HS findings regarding the impact of each factor on integration, perceived by the teachers, can be seen in Table 4.4 and Figure 4.4.

Factor	Junior	High
Principal / teachers relationships	2	1.4
Team work relationships	2.75	2.4
Staff morale	2.76	2.79
Impact on the teachers	2.69	2.72

Table 4.4: Factors perceived by the teachers as having an impact on integration.

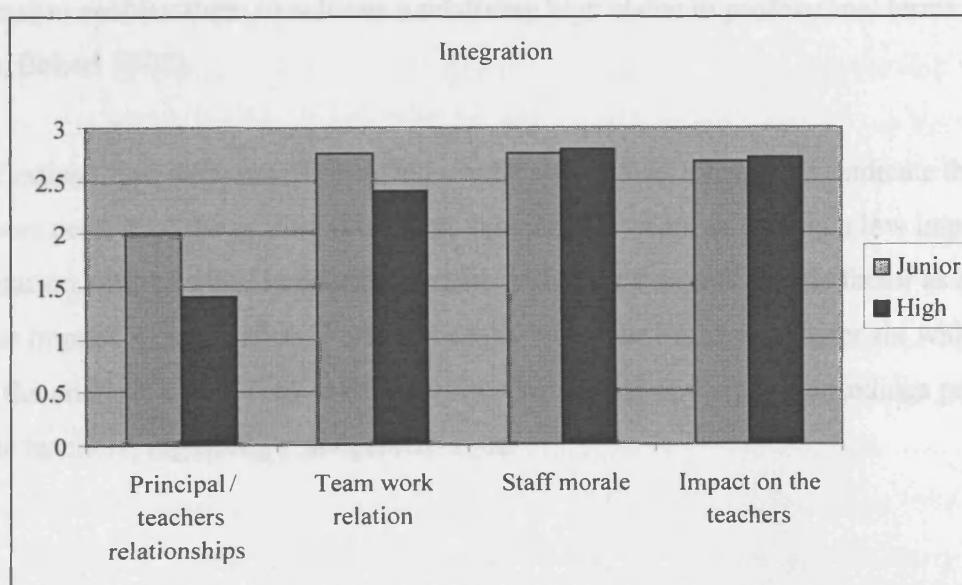


Figure 4.4: Factors perceived by the teachers as having an impact on integration.

Regarding the relationship between the principal and teachers, the teachers in the JHS gave a value of 2.0 for this factor as opposed to 1.4 in the high school. This indicates the fact that the JHST have a stronger relationship with the principal, compared to the distant relationship of the HST and their principal (Bush 1995, Friedman 1993, Blake and Mouton 1985, Gaziel 1993). It shows that they rate it as more important for integration. These findings match the management style perceived by the JHSP (collegial and cultural management style), and HSP (bureaucratic). These findings also indicate that in the JHS the level of cohesion amongst the members of staff is higher than in the high school. In other words, the JHS teachers view the teamwork relationships as having a higher impact on integration than the HST.

On the other hand, the teachers in both schools gave almost identical values to the staff morale factor, 2.76 in the JHS, 2.79 in the HS. The relevant material regarding this factor was previously discussed in the section on integration, where the findings were analysed as being 2.96 from the HSP and 3.02 from HSP. The teachers view the fact that staff morale is less important than that seen by the principals regarding the impact on integration. However, the principals' perception is relatively higher. Regarding the impact on the teachers, the finding that was received by the JHST (2.69) is similar to that received by the HST (2.72). This indicates that there is supervision and inspection of the teachers' professional work (Friedman 1988). The teachers maintain that teaching as a profession enables them to achieve a relatively high status in professional terms (Cashty 2000, Beheri 1997).

The findings that were received by the teachers regarding integration, indicate that the teachers perceived the principal/teachers relationship factor as having a low impact on integration. On the other hand, the teachers perceived the staff morale factor as having a higher impact on integration. Further discussion can be found in chapter six which deals with the analysis of the findings. The following section describes the findings perceived by the teachers, regarding management style.

Management style as perceived by the teachers

The following shows the questions which relate to all the vital factors and their influence on management style.

<u>Factor</u>		<u>Questions</u>
Open culture	- <i>collegial</i>	10,22,31,32,42,59,60,65,74
Autonomous culture	- <i>subjective</i>	4,8,14,17,19,21,28,29,43,49,52,57(-), 59,61
Authoritarian culture	- <i>bureaucracy</i>	2,7,8,16,39,51,56,62,64,66,71
Controlled culture	- <i>political</i>	9,16,20,24,25,26,34,35(-), 37,48,51,60,63,68
Family culture	- <i>cultural</i>	1,3,12,13,14,21,23,29,33,36,40,46,61,65,69,74
Stress and conflict	- <i>ambiguity</i>	5(-), 9,11,15,18,20,26,28,30,34,35,44,47,57,72

Regarding school culture, as mentioned in the literature review, it was stated that the use of Friedman's model in order to present school culture, provides assistance in linking school culture to management style. The following describes the above factors perceived by the teachers regarding management style.

The open culture (*collegial*) relates to a type of management whereby there is openness amongst the teachers as well as their collegial relationship with the principal (Bush 1995, Friedman 1988). This factor also relates to the amount of help and assistance provided by the principal when dealing with teachers' problems and difficulties within the school system (Blake and Mouton 1985, Robbins 2000). In addition, this factor also relates to the fact that the principal involves his/her members of staff in decision-making and their professional advancement (Chen 1997), as well as encouraging contact between teachers of the two sections of the school within the six-year framework (Cashty 2000).

Regarding autonomous culture (*subjective*), this type of management relates to the fact that the six-year framework encourages individual working styles and approaches, as well as school autonomy (Friedman 1993). This factor also relates to the teacher's status and the autonomy that he/she is awarded in order to follow and choose his/her own method of approaching the curriculum (Autolony 1997, Ben-Peretz 1997, Friedman 1988). On the other hand, the authoritarian culture (*bureaucratic*) relates to the type of management whereby the principal actually prevents teachers from introducing and implementing new

ideas and approaches (Gonen and Zaki 1999). This factor relates to management style that places a heavy emphasis on meetings, which are conducted in a rigid format and are centred around the principal's report. This factor also relates to the type of management style whereby the principal is not prepared to listen to another opinion apart from his/her own. In addition, this factor relates to the style of management whereby the principal maintains distance between himself/herself and the teachers (Ferguson 1980, Weber 1989, Livingston 1984).

The controlled culture (*political, authoritarian*) relates to a type of management whereby the principal reviews and examines the teacher's work ethos at regular intervals (Cashty 2000, Gonen and Zaki 1999). This factor relates to the fact that due to the principal's constant appraisal of the teachers' work they are under unending pressure (Friedman 1993). This factor also relates to the fact that the principal creates a power play situation whereby there are internal political tensions amongst the members of staff (Handy 1987, Inbar 2000, Hoyle 1986). On the other hand, the family/innovative culture (*cultural*) relates to a management style which emphasises the positive and pleasant environment within the school (Friedman 1988, Anderson 1982, Sergiovanni 1986). This factor relates to the type of management style whereby the principal encourages innovations and new ideas and wants his/her teachers to be involved in using new teaching approaches (Gonen and Zaki 1999, Bush 1995). This factor also relates to a type of management style whereby the principal supports the teachers including obtaining various financial benefits for them (Blake and Mouton 1985, Gaziel 1993)). This factor also relates to the fact that the principal involves the teachers in the various stages of the six-year framework (Degani 1997, Cashty 2000).

Regarding the oriented schools (*task, achievement, social control, ambiguity*), the achievement-oriented school relates to a type of management with emphasis on academic achievement, as opposed to a culture based on social relationships. This factor relates to a style of management which is close to the bureaucratic/authoritarian style whereby the principal demands high academic achievement, through a task oriented approach (Robbins 2000, Cheng 1991). The principal constantly reviews the professional conduct of the teachers (Friedman 1988). This factor relates to a type of management whereby the teachers put in far more hours than are officially required, in order to achieve the required standard demanded by the principal (Beheri 1997, Chen 1997, Sergiovanni 1995). The

following presents the findings perceived by the teachers regarding management style. Table 4.5 and Figure 4.5 summarise the findings of the management style that was received from the teachers of both the junior-high school and high school.

Style	Junior-T	High-T
Collegial	3.32	3.1
Subjective	3.32	3.1
Bureaucracy	2.81	3.19
Political	2.7	2.71
Ambiguity	2.72	2.79
Cultural	3.51	3.07

Table 4.5: Management styles perceived by the teachers.

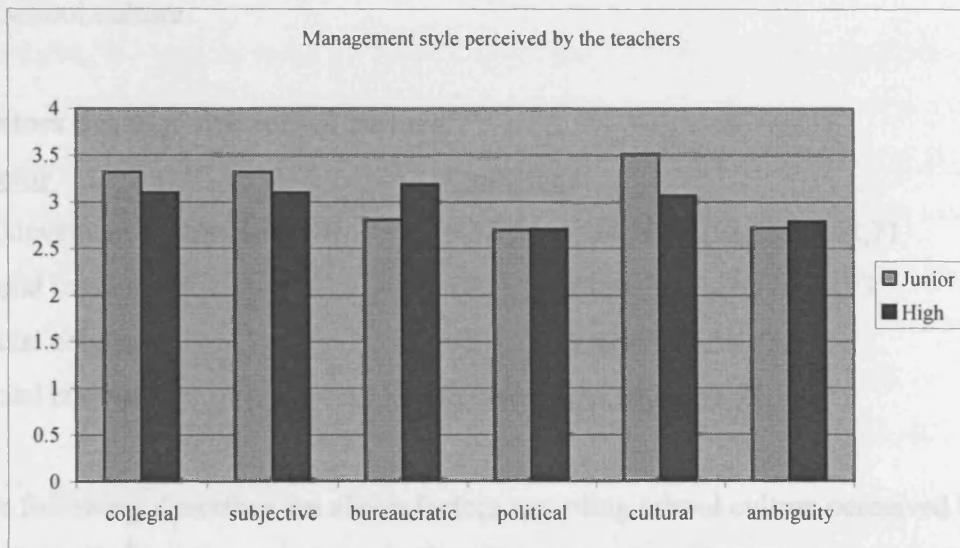


Figure 4.5: Management styles perceived by the teachers.

These findings point to the fact that there is almost no difference in the values received from the HST and the JHST relating to management style. From the slight differences between the two schools, it is possible to note the cultural management style of the JHS, which received a slightly higher value 3.51 given by the JHST as opposed to 3.07 given by the HST. In addition, it is possible to note the difference between the bureaucratic management style of the JHSP (2.81), and the HST (3.19). These findings indicate that the junior-high school places a greater emphasis on collegial, subjective and cultural management styles, more so than on the other three management styles. This also points to the fact that individual objectives have higher priority than the school's goals

(subjective). On the other hand, this situation indicates that the principal encourages teachers to be involved in decision-making and team work. The atmosphere in the school is pleasant and relaxed. Both findings perceived by the JHS teachers and HS teachers indicate the fact that the teachers perceive a combination of management styles (Ribbins 1987), as opposed to the principals' perception regarding management style. In other words, it is possible to note that there is a difference between the principals and teachers' perception regarding management style. Further discussion can be found in chapter six which deals with the analysis of the findings. The following presents the findings perceived by the teachers regarding school culture.

School culture as perceived by the teachers

The following shows the questions, which relate to all the vital factors and their influence on school culture.

Factors dealing with school culture.

<u>Factor</u>	<u>Questions</u>
Achievement oriented school	9,25,35(-), 44,50,51,58,63,64,68,71
Social interaction	18(-), 24,28(-), 34(-), 38(-), 41,73
Social cohesion	6,10,22,31,42,45,46,59,73,74
Social control	2,7,12,25,56,63,64,68,71

The following describes the above factors regarding school culture perceived by the teachers. Further discussion can be found in the analysis chapter.

The values of the findings perceived by the junior-high and high school teachers can be seen in Table 4.6 and Figure 4.6.

Factor	Junior	High
Achievement -Oriented school	2.64	2.53
Social cohesion	3.48	2.2
Social interaction	2.64	2.44
Social control	3.15	2.05

Table 4.6: Factors perceived by the teachers relating to school culture.

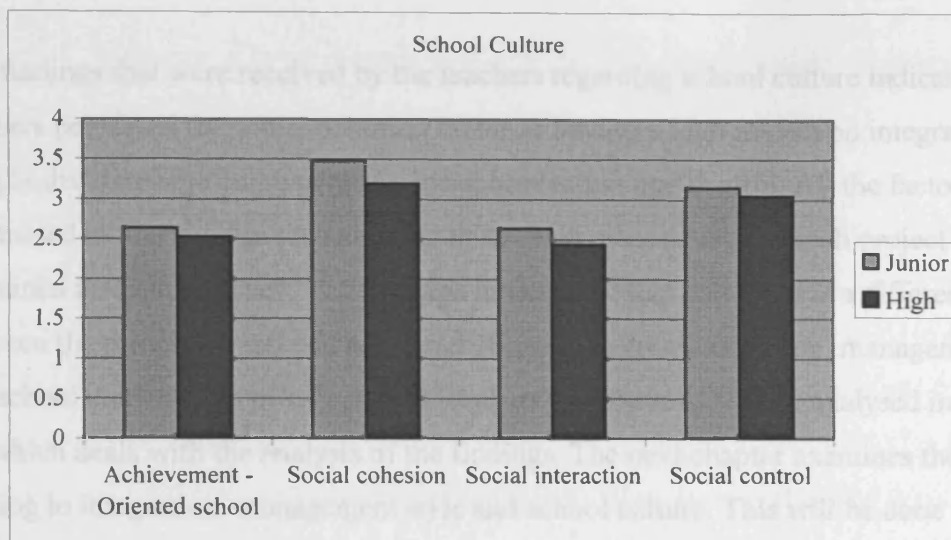


Figure 4.6: Factors perceived by the teachers relating to school culture.

Regarding the task oriented school, the JHST gave a value of 2.64, as opposed to the HST, who gave a value of 2.53. The findings show that in the JHS there is a certain orientation towards achievement (Robbins 2000, Zohar 2000), which is slightly higher than that in the HS. The M.O.E. (M.O.E. 1979) assumption was that there would be more achievement orientation in the high school, as opposed to the JHS. On the other hand, the value that was received from JHST (3.48) for social cohesion is higher than that of the high school (2.2). The finding points to the fact that in the junior-high school emphasis is placed on social cohesion, which plays an important part within school culture (Friedman 1988, Hargreaves 1995).

Regarding social control, the finding that was received by the junior-high school teachers (3.15), is higher than that received by the teachers from the high school (2.05). It is not similar to the previous factor of (3.4) for social cohesion. In other words, in the junior-high school there is a high level of social cohesion and control as opposed to lower levels of social cohesion and control in the high school. On the other hand, the finding perceived by the JHST (2.64) for social interaction is slightly higher than that of the HST (2.44). These values indicate that there is a certain level of social interaction between the JHST and much less amongst the HST. The findings also indicate the fact that JHS teachers and JHS principals perceive a similar level of social interaction amongst the staff. On the other hand, there is a difference between the HS teachers and the HS principals' perception regarding social interaction.

The findings that were received by the teachers regarding school culture indicate that the teachers perceived the social cohesion factor as having a high impact on integration with a slight disadvantage being given to social interaction and control. All the factors mentioned in this chapter related to the three main areas of the research project and were examined through a survey. The findings indicate the fact that there is a difference between the principals and teachers perceptions regarding integration, management style and school culture. The principals and teachers' perceptions will be analysed in chapter six which deals with the analysis of the findings. The next chapter examines the factors relating to integration, management style and school culture. This will be done through the three case studies mentioned in the methodology chapter.

Chapter Five: Findings from the three case studies

Introduction

This chapter deals with the findings received from the three parts of the case studies. The three parts are the questionnaires, the sociometric questionnaires and the interviews related to the three main areas of the research – integration, management style and school culture (including social interaction amongst the staff). The findings received from the interviews are related to the semi-structured interview used. The questions for all the interviews are presented in appendix C. The use of three case studies was done in order to be able to make a generalisation regarding the three types of six-year schools (Bassey 1994). This also gave the researcher the opportunity to examine the various features of the different schools.

The findings in this chapter are organised as follows. The first section which deals with integration relates to the first R.Q, which is “Do principals and teachers of ORT six-year schools perceive that integration has brought benefits for the school? If so, what factors are perceived to have most impact on integration?” This section includes two parts. The first part deals with the questionnaire given to the principals and teachers. The second part deals with the interviews with the principals, teachers and pupils regarding integration. The second section deals with management style, which relates to the second R.Q, which is “What are the principals and teachers’ perception of the management styles and the impact of these styles on the process of integration?” It starts with the questionnaires and is followed by the interviews. The third section deals with school culture, which relates to the third R.Q, which is “What do the principals and teachers perceive as the impact of school culture on integration?” It starts with the questionnaires followed by the interviews. Social interaction is dealt with through the findings received from the sociometric questionnaire and relates to the fourth R.Q, which is “What are the principals and teachers’ perception of the impact of social interaction, between teacher teams, on the integration process?”

The findings of the questionnaires received from the three case studies

The following section deals with integration.

Integration

Junior-high school principals

The following describes the findings of the three case studies perceived by the junior-high school principals regarding integration. Table 5.1 and Figure 5.1 show the values of these factors, perceived by the three junior-high school principals (JHSP), of the three case studies, regarding the impact of each factor on integration.

Factor	N - junior	G - junior	R - junior	Average
the impact on the pupils	2.94	2.88	2.63	2.82
the effect of change	2.57	2.86	2.29	2.57
maximum efficient learning time	3.5	3	3.5	3.33
learning conducive atmosphere	3.5	3	3.75	3.42
clear goals and expectations	3	3.75	3.5	3.42
the principal's role	3.33	3	4.33	3.55
emphasis on academic achievement	2.5	3.5	3.25	3.08
impact on the teachers	2.9	3.3	2.8	3.00
staff morale	2.43	3.07	2.64	2.71
stress and conflict	3.6	2.6	3	3.07
work relationships	3	3.5	3	3.17
collegial management style	2.5	3.5	3	3.00
principals/teachers relationships	3	3.5	3.13	3.21
team development	3.13	3.5	3.25	3.29
involvement of parents	3	4	4	3.67

Table 5.1: Factors relating to the impact on integration perceived by the three JHSP.

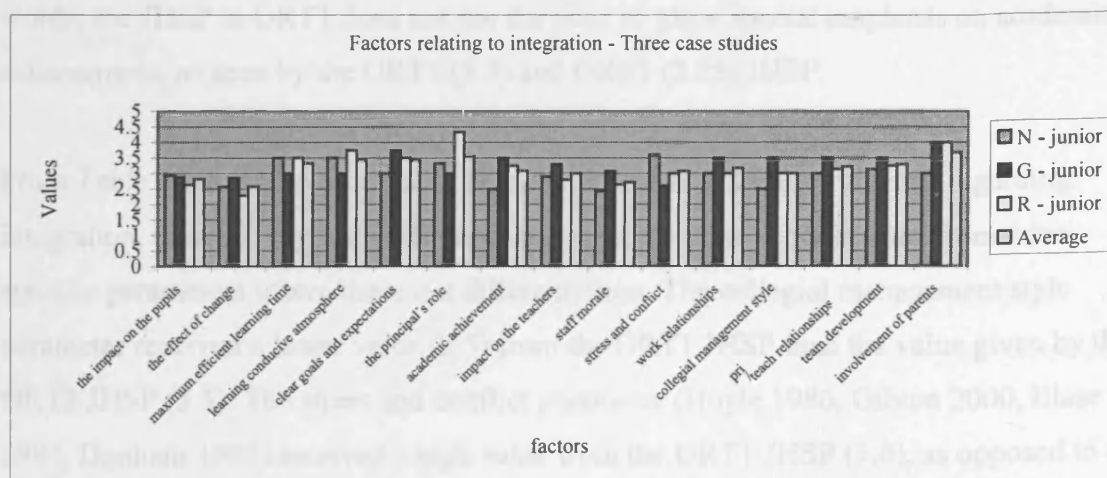


Figure 5.1: Factors relating to the impact on integration perceived by the three JHSP.

The findings show that the ORT3 JHSP regards his role as being of prime importance regarding the impact on integration (4.33) (Bernbaum 1976). This is a greater value than perceived by the ORT2 JHSP (3) and the ORT1 JHSP (3.33). In other words, there are likely to be three different perceptions regarding the principal's role. On the other hand, the parameter relating to the involvement of parents received a low value (3) from the ORT1 principal, as opposed to (4) from the other two principals. The findings also show that the collegial work relationship parameter received a higher value in ORT2 (3.5), than the value perceived by the ORT3 and ORT1 JHSP (3.0). There are likely to be two different perceptions regarding work relationships.

Another point that is important to note is that within the clear goals and expectations parameter (Bennet 1993, Gaziel 1993, Friedman 1988, Murphy 1994), higher values were received by the ORT2 (3.75) and ORT3 JHSP (3.5) compared to ORT1, which received 3.0. There are likely to be three different perceptions regarding clear goals and expectations. Another finding to be presented here is that in the ORT1 school, the emphasis on academic achievement (2.5) is lower than in the other two schools. Staff morale received a relatively low value from the ORT1 JHSP (2.43) and ORT3 JHSP (2.64) as opposed to a higher value given by the ORT2 JHSP (3.07). It can be noted that there are again likely to be three different perceptions regarding staff morale and academic achievement. The findings indicate a higher emphasis on academic achievement in the ORT2 school than in the ORT1 school. In the ORT1 JHS, the emphasis on academic achievement (2.5) is lower than in the other two schools. In other words, the JHSP in ORT1 does not see the need to place special emphasis on academic achievement, as seen by the ORT2 (3.5) and ORT3 (3.25) JHSP.

From Table 5.1 it is also possible to note that in almost all the parameters regarding integration, there is very little difference amongst the three schools apart from three specific parameters where there is a differentiation. The collegial management style parameter received a lower value (2.5) from the ORT1 JHSP than the value given by the ORT2 JHSP (3.5). The stress and conflict parameter (Hoyle 1986, Gibton 2000, Blase 1991, Dunham 1992) received a high value from the ORT1 JHSP (3.6), as opposed to a low value (2.6) from the ORT2 JHSP. Regarding stress and conflict the ORT3 principal gave a value of 3.0 as opposed to 2.6 from ORT2 and 3.6 from the ORT1 principal. The

principal of the ORT2 JHS places a higher emphasis on teamwork and good working relationships amongst the teachers, compared to the other two principals.

The above findings indicate the fact that there are likely to be three different perceptions regarding integration perceived by the junior-high principals. It is possible to note that one school emphasises the high level of collegial style, as opposed to the ORT1 school. The other school emphasises the high level of the principal's role. Stress and conflicts received a high value from the third school. Further discussion can be found in chapter six which deals with the analysis of the findings. The following presents the findings perceived by the high school principals regarding integration

High school principals

Table 5.2 and Figure 5.2 point to the findings received from the three high school principals regarding the impact on integration.

Factor	N - high	G - high	R - high	Average
the impact on the pupils	1.94	3	2.5	2.48
the effect of change	2.21	2.86	2.43	2.50
maximum efficient learning time	2.5	3.5	3.5	3.17
learning conducive atmosphere	2.25	4.25	3.5	3.33
clear goals and expectations	3.25	3.75	4.25	3.75
the principal's role	4.33	4	4.33	4.22
emphasis on academic achievement	1.5	3.25	2.25	2.33
impact on the teachers	3.3	4	4	3.77
staff morale	2.64	3.57	3	3.07
stress and conflict	4	4	3.8	3.93
work relationships	1.33	3.33	2.5	2.39
collegial management style	2	4.5	2	2.83
principals/teachers relationships	3.63	3.88	3.25	3.59
team development	2	3.88	3.25	3.04
involvement of parents	2	2	1	1.67

Table 5.2: Factors relating to the impact on integration perceived by the three HSP.

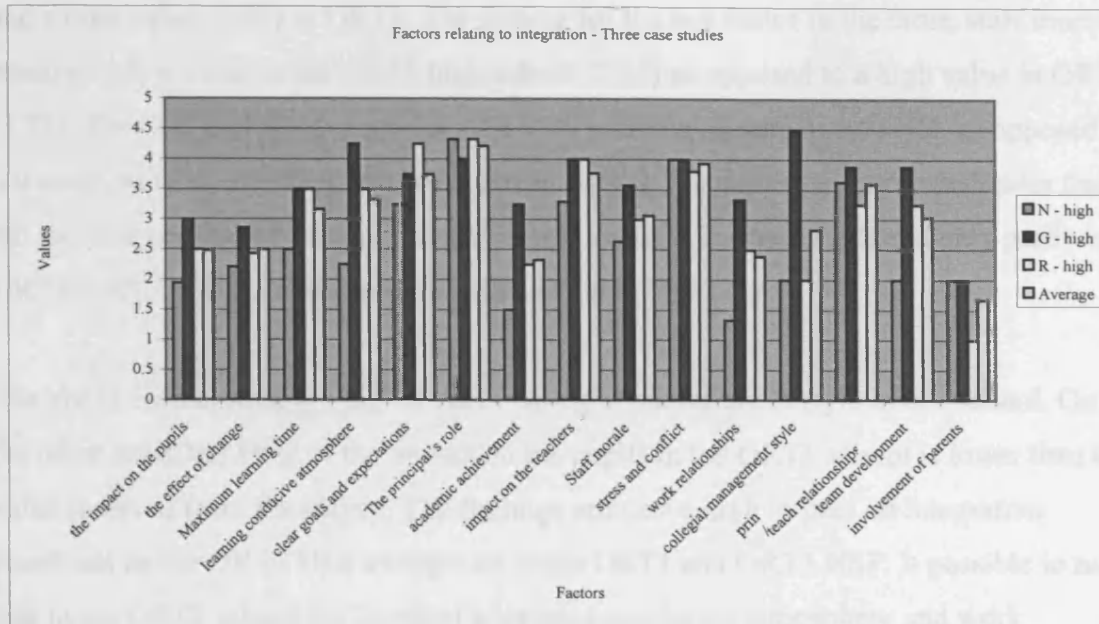


Figure 5.2: Factors relating to the impact on integration perceived by the three HSP.

The findings show a low value received from the ORT1 HSP (2.0) relating to team development, as opposed to a high value received from the ORT2 (3.88) and ORT3 (3.25) principals. There are likely to be three different perceptions regarding team development. Another finding that can be seen in Table 5.2 is the low value received from the ORT3 HSP regarding parents' involvement in the school (1.0) compared to 2.0 received by both the ORT2 and ORT1 principals. The findings point to a low value given to efficient use of learning time by the ORT1 principal (2.5) as opposed to high values received by the other two schools (3.5). Another point to be seen by the findings is that the work relationship factor received a low value (1.33) from the ORT1 HSP compared to a high value (3.33) from the ORT2 HSP. There are likely to be three different perceptions regarding work relationships. An interesting factor can be seen in the extremely high value received from the ORT3 HSP regarding clear goals and expectations (4.25), compared to (3.25) in ORT1 and (3.75) in ORT2. The learning conducive atmosphere factor received a low value (2.25) from the ORT1 HSP as opposed to a high value (4.25) given by the ORT2 HSP. The ORT3 school (3.5) is placed between ORT1 and ORT2 regarding this factor. At the same time it is possible to repeat the same points regarding the emphasis on academic achievement factor which received a low value (1.5) in ORT1

and a high value (3.25) in ORT2. The finding for the last factor in the table, staff morale, received a low value in the ORT1 high school (2.64) as opposed to a high value in ORT2 (3.75). The ORT2 HSP gave a value of 4.5 for collegial management style, as opposed to 2.0 received from the other two HSP. The impact on the pupils parameter indicates that the six-year continuity has a positive effect on the ORT2 school (3.0) and only partly in ORT1 (1.4). ORT3 is in the middle with a value of 2.63.

The above findings show a high level of collegial management style in one school. On the other hand, the level of the impact on the pupils in the ORT1 school is lower than the value received from the survey. The findings indicate a high impact on integration perceived by the ORT2 HSP as opposed to the ORT1 and ORT3 HSP. It possible to note that in the ORT2 school the levels of a learning conducive atmosphere and work relationships are higher than the value received from the survey. The findings perceived by the HSP of the three case studies, indicate the fact that there are three different perceptions regarding integration. The three perceptions are related to clear goals and expectations, the pupil and his learning environment, as well as the principal's role. Further discussion can be found in chapter six which deals with the analysis of the findings. The following presents the findings perceived by the junior-high teachers regarding integration.

Junior-high school teachers

Table 5.3 and Figure 5.3 show the values received from the teachers regarding the impact on integration perceived by the ORT1 (N), ORT2 (G) and ORT3 (R) JHS teachers.

Factor	N - junior	G - junior	R - junior	Average
Principal / teachers' relationships	2.11	2.38	1.44	1.98
Team work relationships	3	2.94	2.28	2.74
Staff morale	2.58	2.64	2.79	2.67
Impact on the teachers	2.83	2.33	2.92	2.69

Table 5.3: Factors relating to the impact on integration perceived by the three JHST.

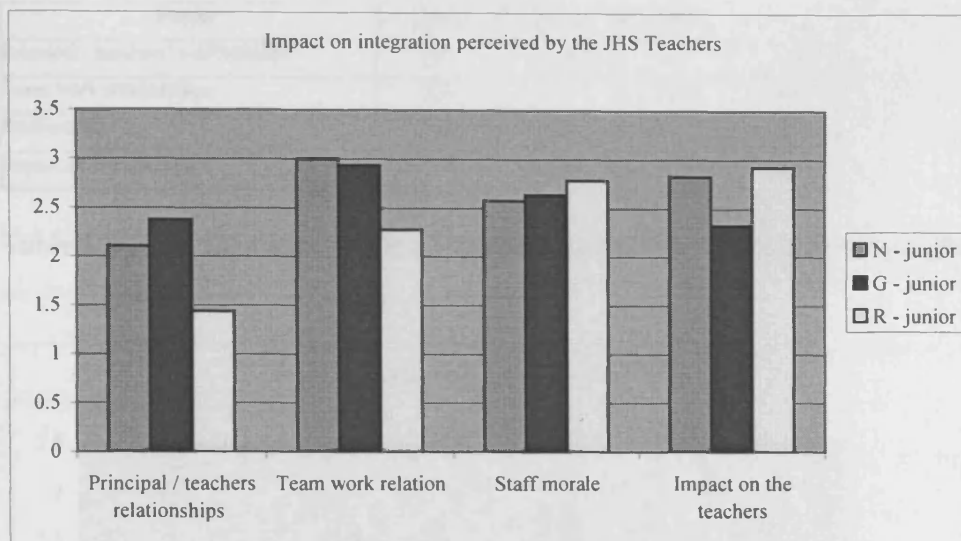


Figure 5.3: Factors relating to the impact on integration perceived by the three JHST.

The principal/teachers' relationships value (1.44) which was received from the ORT3 teachers, shows a low value compared to that of ORT1 (2.11) and ORT2 (2.38). It shows that there are likely to be three different perceptions regarding the relationships between the principal and teachers. The teamwork relationship parameter received a low value from the ORT3 JHST (2.28), as opposed to a higher value (2.94) from the ORT2 JHST and (3) from the ORT1 JHST. This points to the fact that in ORT3 there is less teamwork amongst the members of staff within the six-year system. In ORT1 and ORT2 far greater emphasis is placed on teamwork. The findings indicate a high level of the process of integration perceived by the ORT2 and ORT1 JHS, as opposed to the ORT3 JHS. The findings also show similarity to the survey findings. Further discussion can be found in chapter six which deals with the analysis of the findings. The following presents the findings perceived by the high school teachers regarding integration.

High school teachers

Table 5.4 and Figure 5.4 indicate the findings received from the three case studies high school teachers regarding the impact on integration.

Factor	N - junior	G - junior	R - junior	Average
Principal / teachers' relationships	1.07	1.79	1.13	1.33
Team work relationships	2.33	2.75	2.17	2.42
Staff morale	2.68	2.88	2.47	2.68
Impact on the teachers	2.46	2.04	2.38	2.29

Table 5.4: Factors relating to the impact on integration perceived by the three HST.

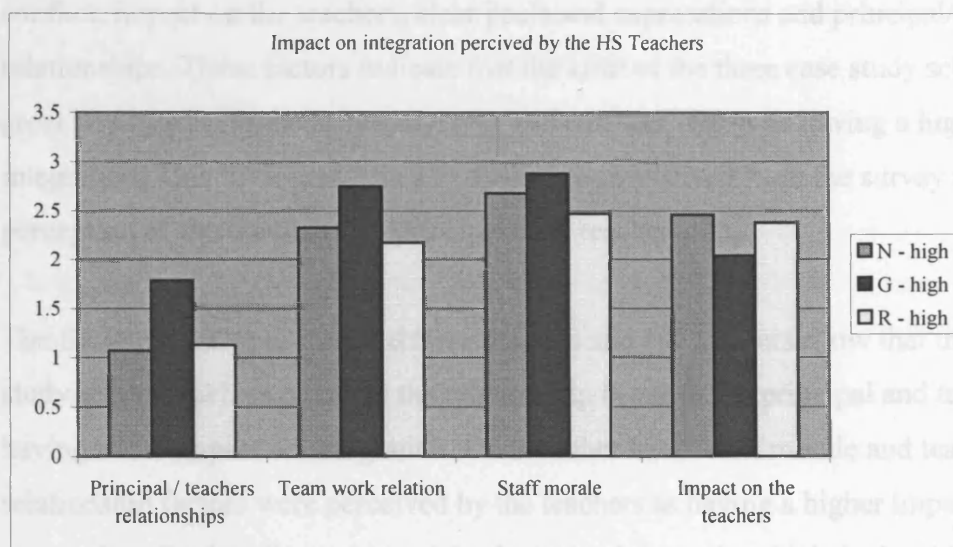


Figure 5.4: Factors relating to the impact on integration perceived by the three HST.

The teamwork relationship parameter received a lower value from the ORT3 HST (2.17) than from the ORT2 HST (2.75) and ORT1 HST (2.33). The principal/teachers' relationship parameter indicates a good relationship between the ORT2 HSP and her teachers, as opposed to the ORT1 and ORT3 HSP. There are likely to be three different perceptions regarding integration. The above findings show the fact that the HST of the three case studies schools, divided the factors which relate to the impact on integration into two categories relating to staff morale (Frank 1995) and teamwork relationships (Gavish 1992, Friedman 1987).

To sum up this section, it is possible to note that the findings received by the principals regarding integration, indicate that the following factors are perceived by the JHSP of the three case studies as having a high impact on integration. The factors are involvement of parents, the principal's role, clear goals and expectations and learning conducive atmosphere. These factors indicate that the JHSP perceive the individual pupil and his/her learning environment as being of paramount importance regarding integration. This

finding matches that which was received from the survey regarding the JHSP perception of the factors linked to the pupil and his/her environment. In addition, it is possible to note that the above factor indicates that the JHSP of the three schools place great importance on the principal's role as having a high influence on integration, particularly as seen in the ORT3 school. On the other hand, the HSP perceived the following factors as having a high impact on integration. The factors are the principal's role, stress and conflict, impact on the teachers, clear goals and expectations and principal/teachers relationships. These factors indicate that the HSP of the three case study schools place great importance on the principal's role and teachers' status as having a high impact on integration. This finding matches that which was received from the survey regarding HSP perception of factors linked to principals and teachers.

The findings that were received from the JHS and HS teachers show that the three case study school teachers perceive the relationship between the principal and teachers as having a low impact on integration. On the other hand, staff morale and teamwork relationship factors were perceived by the teachers as having a higher impact on integration. Further discussion can be found in chapter six which deals with the analysis of the findings. The following presents the interviews with the principals, teachers and pupils regarding integration.

Interviews with the principals, teachers and pupils, regarding integration.

The following section deals with the results gathered from interviews with the principals, teachers and pupils of the three schools of the case studies. The interviews are semi-structured as mentioned in the methodology chapter. (See Appendix C for the questions of the semi-structured interviews). The first section relates to the area of the six-year integration and its benefits for the school.

Benefits for the school

Principals' perception

Regarding the impact of integration on the benefits for the six-year school, most of the principals perceived that the school obtained the desired goals, which it set for itself (Bennet 93, Gaziel 93, Friedman 88). The ORT2 junior-high principal supports this concept:

“The six-year school has obtained the two aims of the 1968 reform namely social integration in the junior-high school and academic achievement in the high school”

In other words, the structure of the six-year framework is more effective than the older structure with the internal division of the years (Autology 1997). On the other hand, the ORT3 JHS principal noted that she is not certain that the six-year framework provides for high academic achievement (Beheri 1997). She added:

“In the junior-high school, the cultural aspect of the school is an integral part of academic achievement of the school”.

The cultural experience within the school is part of the learning experience (Israelshvilli 1997). The high school prepares pupils for the matriculation examinations and advances the pupils in order to achieve these aims (Degani 1997). The ORT1 HSP claimed that in schools in ORT1, the emphasis is purely on academic achievement without social interaction and culture (Skinner 1990, Sharan 1981). The junior-high principal of ORT1 said:

“In my opinion, the school has a duty to educate its pupils, not just teach them”.

However, most of the principals claimed that in order to do this, the framework does not necessarily have to be six-years. Success for integration can be seen in the form of the junior-high school adopting the positive elements from the high school, such as special extra-curricula activities (Friedman 1988, Chen 1997, Beheri 1997) for the most able pupils of the junior-high school, as noted by the ORT2 high school principal:

“Part of the success of integration in our school is that there is co-operation between the two schools”.

It is possible to note that there is positive cooperation between the two teams regarding integration in the ORT2 school, as opposed to the ORT1 and ORT3 schools.

Teachers' perception

Regarding the teachers' perception of the benefits for the school, a number of teachers claim that one of the advantages of integration is that of the variety of subjects taught, continuity of the subjects taught, grading of the material taught as well as school autonomy (Autology 1997, Ben-Yossef 1997). Some of the teachers also noted disadvantages. For instance, the removal of extremely important subjects from the

curriculum and the need for extremely talented teachers with the ability to teach a wide range of subjects (Chen 1997, Degani 1997).

The teachers related to the impact of the high school on the junior-high school and vice-versa. The teachers from the JHS noted:

“We should be responsible for preparing part of the curriculum with the aim of the subject being continued in the HS”.

Other teachers noted that in most of the six-year schools, it is impossible to plan the curriculum with the aim of the subject being continued in the HS due to the fact that there are two curriculums – the first belongs to the Ministry of Education, whereas the second belongs to the ORT Network. They also emphasised the need for mutual commitment in order to promote social integration (Lance 1994). The high school teachers claimed that it was possible to plan the curriculum according to the demands of the high school (Ben-Peretz 1995).

The following section relates to the six-year continuity regarding the interviews with the principals and teachers.

Six-year continuity

Principals' perception

Regarding six-year continuity, most of the high school principals noted that the six-year continuity is important as it allows for an easy transition from the junior-high school to the high school (Israelshvilli 1997, Adler 1996, Bar-Oz 1997). The ORT1 HSP said:

“The six-year continuity prevented the high school from being closed down due to the fact that there were no pupils interested in joining the high school”.

In other words, the change of the high school to the six-year framework increased the number of high school pupils. It is possible to note that before the period of integration there was no adjoining JHS. The ORT2 HSP noted:

“The transition for strong pupils does not play an important role”.

However for weaker ones, it is of great importance (Yellin 1997, Amir 1997). The ORT1 HSP added that they are liable to drop out during the transition or find difficulty in fitting in with the new environment (Ben-Ari 1978). The ORT3 JHSP noted:

“The situation is even more pronounced if the school next to the junior-high school is an academic high school, (Iyuni) not comprehensive”.

In this situation, the junior-high schoolteachers know in advance that certain pupils will not continue in the “Iyuni” school and they are viewed as a "burden" to the school due to the fact that there is compulsory education by law (Gibton 2000). The adjoining "Iyuni" high school is not prepared for weak pupils and it is not interested in having them.

“Even more so for weak pupils, due to the fact that the school is evaluated according to its matriculation results”

added the ORT2 HSP. However, the principals maintain that this is not the only way of judging a school. According to the ORT2 HSP, their school emphasises academic achievement as well as a positive learning environment, which in turn improves the school culture (Hargreaves 1995, Gavish 1992, Skinner 1990). This is opposed to the ORT3 JHSP perception that they have a problem with academic achievement due to the fact that they absorb a large number of weak pupils. It is difficult to cope with this situation due to the fact that in ORT3:

“On one hand we have to deal with weak pupils but on the other hand we are trying to improve and promote the school culture”.

It is possible to note that the HSP perception is similar to the JHSP regarding the dropping out of the weak pupils.

Teachers' perception

Regarding the continuity of the six-year school, the junior-high school teachers noted that continuity tends to pull the junior-high school pupils in an upward direction regarding academic achievement (Beheri 1997, Ben-Peretz 1995). Most of the teachers claimed that the six-year system provides flexibility regarding the curriculum, as well as different

forms of methodology, which in turn is to the benefit of the pupil (Friedman 1988).

However, on the other hand, teachers claimed:

“From a social point of view, a separate unit is preferable”.

In other words, the teachers prefer the individual school, as opposed to the six-year school regarding the social aspect of the six-year framework. In the high school the teachers claimed that the six-year framework prevents a traumatic transition period (Chen and Adler 1997, Israelshvilli 1997). Most teachers from both schools maintained:

“The six-year framework is more influential when the school is a six-year comprehensive, as opposed to just being “Iyuni” (academic high school).

Most teachers noted that the comprehensive six-year school promotes integration, develops different subject areas and the pupils are better prepared for the high school (Amir 1997). This is the most suitable framework for pupils and contributes to teamwork amongst the teachers.

The following section relates to the advantages of the six-year school and the impact on integration regarding the interviews with the principals and teachers.

The principals related to additional positive factors of the six-year school by noting that the advantages lie within the administration, as well as teaching. Within the teaching framework, continuity provides for greater staff efficiency, as well as flexibility of the teachers to teach in both schools (Degani 1997). The ORT2 HSP added:

“It also gives the junior-high school greater academic back up and pedagogical strengthening for the high school”.

Most of the principals agreed that experienced teachers are able to assist the less experienced teachers, each in his/her area of expertise. The principals noted that in the area of management, continuity allows a greater number of teachers to be involved in the management process or to be heads of departments or year heads (Friedman 1993, Brown 1994, Lee 1991, Bush 1995, Campbell 1993). The principals also referred to the impact

of the six-year framework on integration by noting that the six-year continuity does in fact promote integration, but does not provide a 100 percent guarantee. The necessity of leaving the school at the end of the 9th grade, where there is only "Iyuni", does not provide any chance for integration. However, where there is continuity, it is still no easy task to integrate pupils (Chen 1997). In certain areas, more experiments are being conducted from a social point of view to keep heterogeneous classes in the 10th grade. The ORT3 JHSP noted:

“Of course, where grading exists it is not possible to provide integration”.

In some schools, such as ORT2 and ORT1, there is a choice of subjects to be studied in the 10th grade, which in turn creates social and educational integration. When the junior high school is part of the six year comprehensive, there is continuity but this in itself does not bring about integration. It is possible to note that most of the principals preferred the individual, separated schools as opposed to the six-year framework. On the other hand, the ORT2 JHSP noted that if one checks the importance given to social aspects in the school, it can be found that in the junior high school it is a central issue and one can not find anybody who ignores this factor (Adler 1997).

Regarding the impact of continuity on integration, some principals noted that the impact is positive. Others principals claimed that even if a school operates continuity, by the 11th grade there is a process of selection, whereby in effect the weaker pupils are harmed by this (Beheri 1997). In the ORT3 school where a school is bound to accept all the pupils it is offered, inevitably there is a process of selection after the tenth grade where the pupils are divided into subject groups and levels. On the other hand, in the ORT2 school, the HSP claimed:

“Without continuity there would be no integration”.

It is possible to note that the ORT2 school principals preferred the six-year system as opposed to the other principals. Continuity enhances social and pedagogical integration (Autolongy 1997, Ben-Peretz 1995). It depends on the interpersonal relationships that exist amongst the teams from both schools (Frank 1995, Freiberg 1987). In the ORT2

school, for example, there is the beginning of social integration amongst the pupils and teachers, as opposed to the ORT3 school.

The following presents the results gathered from interviews with the principals and teachers regarding problems of integration.

Problems of integration

Regarding the problems of integration, the orientation of the high school principals was on the whole, to advance the implementation of the high school aims. They reflected this in relation to the junior-high school. As a result of this approach the junior-high school experienced some difficulties. One of the problems was the drop out rate of pupils from the junior-high school (Israelshvilli 1997). The ORT2 HSP noted:

“This doesn't mean that there aren't some schools where it is possible to implement administrative continuity”.

Some of the high school principals presumed that the JHS team are aware of the goals of the school in general and in particular the goals of the six-year school. The lack of administrative separation resulted in a lack of co-operation between the JHSP and the HSP (Meyesed 1997). The ORT1 JHSP noted:

“This was due to the fact that each principal used different methods to achieve his/her required aims, which were undefined”.

The JHS team joined the system with different pedagogical and administrative approaches, as well as different management styles. The ORT1 JHSP added:

“I can not comprehend the management style of the HSP. This is completely different from my style of management”.

It can be seen that the different management style of the two principals influences the cooperation between the two sections of the six-year school, as well as the process of integration (Sweeney 1992, Prosser 1999). The ORT3 HSP said exactly the same thing.

In other words, there is a difference between the management style of the JHSP and HSP. This finding matches the survey finding perceived by the principals and teachers.

The main problems of integration

Regarding the main problems of integration and solving the problems, most of the principals noted that one of the problems is that teachers do not accept the concept that weaker pupils should study together with stronger pupils. Therefore, the first stage is to convince the teachers to accept integration (Beheri 1997). ORT3 and ORT1 HSP added:

“In this case, it is preferable to have six-year continuity, whereby it is possible to prevent dropping out”.

The principals pointed to the fact that without integration the weaker pupils do not make any progress and feel inferior to the stronger pupils (Chen 1997). This results in a high level of dropping out by the weaker pupils. A further opinion was passed, whereby it was concluded that the weaker pupils are unable to obtain a matriculation certificate due to their low self-image and the lack of motivation needed in order to progress and advance (Amir 1997, Yellin 1997). The ORT3 principal added:

“The weaker pupils who are left as a group on their own without integration do not have any ambition to achieve goals”.

On the other hand, there is no constructive solution for totally preventing dropping out. The reason for pupils dropping out is based on the school system measuring achievement by matriculation results. This in turn results in the school wishing that weaker pupils would drop out (Bar-Oz 1997). The principals noted:

“The concept of pupils dropping out in the 10th grade because the teacher feels that the particular pupil does not have a chance to succeed should be completely re-evaluated and re-considered”.

The high school is not the final stop for the framework of studying. The Ministry of Education statistics (1993), reveal that 51% of adults aged 20 and above study in colleges and universities, with a large proportion in academic institutions. At present, with the

introduction of colleges and polytechnics, there is a greater chance for a larger number of the relevant population continuing with higher education. According to the ORT2 JHSP:

“The solution is that within a heterogeneous school there should be a support system, which could provide opportunities for weak students”.

It is possible to note that the ORT2 school provides special support for weak pupils, in order to prevent dropping out.

The following relates to the educational structure of the six-year school regarding the interviews with the principals and teachers.

Educational structure of the school

Regarding the educational structure of the secondary school, the conclusion reached by the principals, teachers and a limited number of pupils was as follows. It is preferable to have a six-year school whereby there are separate management teams and principals for the junior-high school and the high school (Beheri 1997). The ORT1 JHSP noted:

“I have no need for the ORT organisation nor the HS next to us”.

She would like to be able to work completely independently. The high school together with ORT, interfere with the running of the JHS. On the other hand, the principals added that it is very important for the junior-high school to be joined to the comprehensive school but not necessarily physically (Brown 1994). The physical location of the high school is of no importance. The ORT1 HSP noted:

“It is important for the JHS to be a part of the six-year framework due to the fact that the JHS is a feeder school”.

On the other hand, the fact that there is almost no co-operation with the JHS means there is actually no need for the JHS to be placed within the locality of the HS. The principals perceived that a comprehensive school has to be structured in such a way that it is able to give each pupil a suitable framework. This doesn't necessarily mean each school in the city has to provide all the above features (Ben-Peretz 1997). However, according to the ORT2 HSP:

“There has to be provision to meet all the necessary requirements for all pupils”

In other words, their aim is to provide a wide selection of subjects that can be studied in addition to the technologically based subjects. This is to provide as many opportunities as possible for the pupils (Friedman 1987). The ORT3 and ORT1 HSP agreed with the ORT2 HSP. The ORT3 JHSP added:

“The emphasis of the JHS is on a learning atmosphere and environment, and extra support is given by educational counsellors”.

Movement between schools due to the fact that a pupil wishes to study a particular subject has to be under the educational inspectorate, whose aim is to check whether there is justification in a pupil's wish to change school (Lee 1991). This is also important in preventing elitist schools and once again the division of pupils into weak and strong. The ORT1 HSP added:

“The transition of pupils from the JHS has a harmful effect on our school”.

The able pupils transfer to other schools at the end of the JHS whilst the weaker pupils remain within the six-year school (Degani 1997, Adler 1996).

Several teachers related to the extension of the curriculum. The curriculum provides for extension in the form of professional subject teachers of a high calibre in order to promote excellency amongst the pupils. The high school teachers related to the priorities given to academic values by noting that the highest priority in their school is that of academic achievement (Skinner 1990, Gaziel 1993), whilst the junior-high school teachers noted:

“In our school the highest priority is that of establishing and creating correct social and moral values”.

The junior-high school teachers noted that the emphasis is on the social and moral aspects of the school (Hargreaves 1995), whereby the high school emphasises academic achievement. Therefore the teachers preferred one unit of a six-year school system.

Regarding the six-year school structure, most of the pupils noted that in their opinion it is preferable to have two separate and individual schools. This is due to the following considerations:

“Fewer pupils on the same campus” (Ben-Ari 1998).

“The possibility of meeting a wide range of different people on the new site”
(Chen and Adler 1997).

“The chance of being exposed to a new environment” (Schneider 1997, Fullan 1992).

The disadvantages mentioned by the pupils, regarding independent schools are as follows:

“The transition to a new place and people” (Israelshvilli 1997).

“Different teaching methods” (Meyesed 1997).

“Meeting new pupils with different levels” (Chen 1997).

A small number of pupils noted that the advantages of the six-year continuity are in the transition from one school to the next, the social environment remains the same, and one is familiar with the same teachers as well as rules and regulations (Degani 1997). Those pupils noted:

“The main disadvantage was that the same teachers, who might not be very positive, accompanied the pupils through six years of schooling”.

In other words, the pupils' perception is that the six-year continuity is preferable regarding academic achievement. However, from a social point of view, separate individual schools are preferable. In other words, the pupils preferred a split-site school (Brown 1994).

The following relates to the transition from the junior-high school to the high school regarding the interviews with the principals, teachers and pupils.

Separation and transition

Regarding the separation of the junior-high school from the high school, almost all high school principals are empowered to control the school principal (Beheri 1997). A catch phrase and part of this situation is found in what is heard in the school:

"Matriculation is the future for the continuation of studying".

Once again, the message received by weak pupils is that they should leave that framework because they are unlikely to achieve anything, anyway.

The ORT1 JHSP noted that the aims of the junior-high school are different from the aims of the high school. The junior-high school aims are widespread with the emphasis being on experiencing all subjects on a very limited basis. The ORT2 JHSP claimed that the aim of the JHS is social integration amongst the pupils and this comes before academic achievement (Autolony 1997). On the other hand, the ORT3 JHSP noted that the transition from one school to another is an automatic process and it is likely that co-operation between the two principals is able to prevent a difficult transition period from one framework to the next. However, it is important to co-ordinate the period of transition (lance 1994).

Another principal related to the fact of six-year continuity together with separation, contains a certain paradox (Degani 1997). It seems to him that it is easier to deal with the absolute dependence of the junior-high school on the high school than to deal with the possible difficulties due to separation. Most of the principals are in favor of:

"Providing the junior-high school with its own uniqueness".

Till now, in places where there is no administrative continuity, there is tension between the two schools (Dunham 1992, Blase 1991, Ball 1987). There is dissatisfaction and the principal therefore feels that in the future there will be an increase in schools wishing to be independent (Beheri 1997). As stated by the ORT1 and ORT3 JHSP:

“We are unable to work with a HSP who operates within the guidelines of the ORT network, as opposed to those of the Ministry of Education”.

It can be seen that one of the main problems of integration relates to the two different bodies who are in charge of the six-year school. One is the Ministry of Education, who is in charge of the junior-high school, the other is the ORT network, who is in charge of the high school.

Transition difficulties

Regarding the transition difficulties, most of the pupils claimed that the greatest problem area was in the different academic levels, as well as regarding a different school culture. Also there was a difference in approach towards studying as well as the principal's management style. Most of the pupils maintained:

“The discipline in the high school was far more rigid with strict rules to be followed. The academic demands were also far higher in the high school and there was little time for social interaction”. (Hargreaves 1995).

There was a difference in the various levels of expectation (Bennet 1993, Murphy 1994). The pupils referred also to the way of minimizing the difficulties. The pupils maintained that it was also impossible to prevent difficulties relating to transition, as a result of different academic levels and stricter rules and regulations, which are part of the move from the junior-high school to the high school (Friedman 1988, Chen 1997, Inbar 1997).

Other pupils claimed that it is possible to ease some of the difficulties by consideration and assistance from the teachers, relating to pupils' problems, or by discussion with the form teacher or educational counsellor. The pupils in the high school noted:

“There is a greater need for preparation in the junior-high school regarding the transition period”.

This involves gradually preparing the pupils academically, as well as preparing them regarding the expectations of the high school (Gaziel 1993, Sharan 1981).

The principals referred to the impact of the close location of the junior-high to the high school on continuity by noting that in situations where the junior high school is physically located on a different campus, continuity is broken (Degani 1997). This links to the ORT1 JHSP who noted:

“At the end of the junior-high school the pupils have to be re-located”

This concept causes two main problems. The first being on the personal level - there is once again a period of transition, which causes difficulties for the pupil. The second being on the social level where there is a much greater chance of segregation (Chen 1997). The principals mentioned that this once again causes a situation where pressure is put on pupils to be accepted by the "best" schools, which in turn causes a supply and demand situation whereby the requirements to be accepted by such schools increases and once again only the able pupils have a chance. This idea is supported by the ORT3 HSP:

“Due to the fact that there are a limited number of "good" schools this pressure causes a situation from 9th to 10th grade whereby a process of selection takes place”.

The above idea is linked to time being used to the fullest advantage and concluded by most of the principals from both schools as follows. Before the educational reform (1968), when the school was a four-year institution the principals were unaware of how to improve their work within the school, due to the fact that the 8th grade was a completely “wasted” year (Gordon 1997). The ORT3 HSP noted that the principals recommended that the Ministry of Education change the format of the school system, into a five-year unit instead of a six-year unit.

Another group of principals added that the M.O.E. decided to change the school into three-year units – three years for the junior-high school and three years for the high school (Autolony 1997). As a result of this situation, one of the principals maintained that:

“A great deal of pressure is placed on 10th grade pupils, due to the fact that there is no time for the 10th grade pupil to get used to his /her new school”.

Sometimes this is due to the need for a leveling off of certain subjects whereby all pupils start from the same point. Most of the principals maintained that the six-year continuity prevents this problem from arising due to the fact that there should be coordination between the two schools regarding the curriculum. This allows for some of the necessary subjects to be taught in the 9th grade.

The principal of the ORT2 HS noted that although there is in fact no connection regarding the curriculum of the two schools, the two principals do in fact have a personal relationship, which allows for open communication between the two schools (Bolman and Deal 1984, Davies 1983, Frieberg 1987). It was added:

“With this in mind, there is coordination between the two schools, which in turn makes it possible to co-ordinate the school curriculum, whereby there is virtually no loss of learning time during the six-years”.

In this case maximised learning time is achieved. Most of the principals emphasised the fact that in their schools the only real contact between the junior-high school and the high school is through subject committees that work together with co-operation between the two schools. This is of particular importance regarding problematic subjects such as Mathematics where there needs to be co-ordination. In this case there is the possibility that part of the curriculum will be repeated the following year (Beheri 1997). The ORT3 HSP added:

“This is particularly damaging for the stronger pupils who require motivation in the form of new and challenging material”.

A further consensus by most of the principals was that in the 10th grades most subjects were taught on a termly basis, which in turn reduces the number of individual subjects being taught at the same time. This also allows for the opportunity of the teacher getting to know his/her pupils. In ORT1, for example, the HSP claimed:

“In the 10th grade, Bible is not taught at all. However, in the 11th and 12th grades, it is taught in an extremely concentrated way”.

Once again this follows the policy of reducing the subjects taught in the 10th grade, which in turn eases the pressure on the pupils (Adler and Gordon 1997). Here can also be seen the lack of maximised learning time. Instead of pacing the curriculum over a six-year period, it is concentrated into the last two or three years with a great deal of resulting pressure at the end (Amir 1997). Most of the principals claimed that the implementation of the curriculum required a higher body of authority, which in this case is the M.O.E. The ORT3 HSP summarises this concept by saying:

“The solution to the problem of coordination of the curriculum and learning time can be found in the formation of a specific forum to deal with this subject, within the local education authority”.

Regarding a subject coordinator in charge of a particular area, the ORT2 HSP noted that it is not preferable to have one individual in charge of the whole six years when the subject is taught. This is due to the fact that the curriculum in the junior-high school is very different from that of the high school (Gordon 1997, Friedman 1988). The ORT1 JHSP noted:

“I feel that the correct format is for one subject coordinator to be responsible for the three years of the junior-high school and another for the three years of the high school”.

This is opposed to the concept of revision of material taught, as noted by the pupils who claimed that there are certain subjects which were taught regardless of previous knowledge and background in these subjects. Other pupils added that at the same time, certain subjects were not reviewed e.g. Bible and Geography. One pupil referred to the teaching methods and said:

“Teaching approaches in the junior-high school are far more flexible, with far greater emphasis on social development”.

It supported the concept of the new teaching methods, both in the classroom, on the internet, and multimedia, as mentioned by the pupils. Other pupils related to the continuity of the curriculum by claiming that in certain subjects such as science and biology, there is continuity within the curriculum starting from the 7th grade.

On the other hand, the ORT2 high school principal related to the emphasis on academic work at a much earlier age, and noted that competition for achieving matriculation results from the age of 12 has been in existence for a long time (Beheri 1997). The other principals agreed that the present matriculation reform is a positive factor in relieving pressure, as well as providing the teacher with autonomy (Chen 1997, Ben-Peretz 1995). The matriculation reform has given the teacher and school greater importance and meaning, as noted by the ORT1 HSP:

“The teacher’s individual assessment of his/her pupils encompasses far greater understanding of the pupil’s ability than the matriculation exam itself”

In other words, individual assessment by the teacher can reflect the pupil’s academic achievement, as well as the drop-out rate mentioned by the principals. The principals noted that transition brings about dropping out from the school whether it be the pupil’s decision or whether it is a joint decision involving the pupil, educational counsellor, teacher/principal (Israelshvilli 1997). The ORT1 JHSP and ORT2 HSP noted that transition causes the pupil to feel a lack of security, uncertainty and worry, even more so when there is a selection process (Inbar 1997, Ben-Ari 1978, Gibton 2000, Glatter 1982, Cornall 1992, Fullan 1992).

On the other hand, the ORT3 HSP and most of the principals noted:

“Continuity allows the pupils to have a defined known direction and therefore lessens chances of dropping out”.

It means that in their opinion the six-year continuity reduces the level of dropping out due to the fact that the weaker pupil has adapted himself /herself to the school environment, as well as to a number of teachers who have taught him/her during the six-year period (Friedman 1988). This in turn, makes him/her want to remain in a known environment.

An additional factor mentioned by the ORT2 JHSP are the social contacts, which have been established since the 7th grade (Chen 1997):

“The fact that the teachers have known the pupils from the 7th grade places far more emphasis on their decision making regarding continuity into the high school”.

In other words, the ORT2 JHSP preferred the six-year system, as opposed to the other principals who are against the six-year system.

The principals also related to the responsibility for all pupils from 7th-12th grades and claimed that in the schools which operate a system of six-year continuity, this has not happened. As long as the principal is not bound to see that a pupil accepted in the 7th grade will complete the 12th grade, the principal is at liberty to do as he wishes (Degani 1997). The ORT3 JHSP added that one of the failures that she sees in the education system is that non-vocational ("Iyuni") schools do not have an educational programme suitable for weaker pupils (Gibton 2000). The ORT1 HSP supports the ORT3 principal and claims:

“For example, what can a pupil do if he/she does not want to study vocational subjects, or is not suited for this form of education”? From the 9th grade the teacher asks the question, what can be done with such a pupil?

The Ministry of Education has not recommended a suitable programme for solving this problem. At this point, it is possible to include the comments of the ORT2 HSP who claimed that she does not think that the principal has academic responsibility for every pupil in the school from grades 7 –12. On the other hand, regarding a policy to incorporate weak students, most of the teachers agreed that there is a special programme in order to help less able pupils. The ORT2 JHST noted that in their school there is also a class for children with special educational needs. Most of the teachers claimed that the emphasis in the schools is on advancing both the weak and strong pupils. The ORT1 JHS teachers added:

“There is a day care system for weak pupils who receive extra assistance after the end of the official school day. This includes a hot school meal as well as professional help with their studies”.

The aim of this system is to promote the weaker pupils and enhance their motivation. One of the ways for achieving this aim is by using the versatility of the teachers.

Versatility

In the principals' opinion, it appears that it is negative that a teacher, however good he may be, should teach in a high school if he is junior-high school oriented, and vice versa (Beheri 1997). On the other hand, the ORT2 HSP claimed:

“A school provided with autonomy can change the situation, due to the fact that schools with high success rates in matriculation will not want to change their status and studying”.

Those schools will be unwilling to accept weaker pupils. A different point mentioned by the ORT1 HSP is that in their school, where there is a cut back in hours in the high school and teachers are given teaching hours in the junior high school there is a great deal of resentment of those high school teachers, who are totally unsuited for teaching in the junior high. This causes tension and pressure amongst the junior high school teachers. On the other hand, the ORT2 HSP claimed that there is no problem regarding staff who work in both schools. On the other hand, the ORT1 pupils noted that none of the junior high school teachers had taught them once they reached the high school. However, three high school teachers in fact had taught them in the junior-high school. (English, Math and Literature). In the ORT2 school the pupils noted that a large proportion of the teachers taught them in both the junior-high school and the high school. As opposed to the ORT2 pupils, ORT3 school pupils claimed:

“There were no teachers who taught in both schools”

They added that they didn't like any of the teachers, neither in the junior-high school nor in the high school. The pupils also related to the advantages of joint teachers and claimed that the pupil is familiar with the teacher's teaching methods and expected standards. The

teacher is also familiar with the pupil and his academic level and potential (Yellin 1997). On the other hand, the disadvantages of joint teachers noted by the pupils related to the required standard and expectations:

“A teacher who is not of the required standard will continue to teach in the high school. When there are new teachers there are new expectations and new teaching methods”.

When the teachers remain the same, there is no opportunity for “turning over a new leaf”.

A small number of pupils claimed that teachers in the junior-high school are not suited to teach in the high school. They also claimed that the transition and the period of adjustment to new teaching methods and new teachers, is something extremely taxing (Ryan and Deci 2000). This concept is related to the attention given to the age of puberty (Bronfenbrenner 1998). The ORT1 JHSP claimed that due to the emphasis placed on achievement, there is a certain amount of neglect regarding education in general, as well as a lack of effort being given to various areas of the pupil's development (Chen 1997). The other principals added that it is desirable for youth in grades ten and eleven to accept certain levels of responsibility regarding personal involvement, as well as accepting responsibility for a tangible area within their education (Gordon and Israelshvilli 1997). To support this concept, the ORT2 HSP claimed that the six-year comprehensive school provides opportunities for fostering personal commitment of older pupils to younger ones. Several principals remarked that continuity does not prevent individual attention being given to pupils (Bronfenbrenner 1998, Adler 1997). They noted:

“Within the six-year framework there are lots of opportunities available for personal development, mainly during the three years of the JHS”.

Most of the principals felt that there was no difference regarding the pupil's personal development, whether he/she was in a six-year system or an individual JHS or HS.

Regarding the pupil's reputation, the principals referred to the pupil's reputation from the JHS to the HS by noting that this is possibly a disadvantage for the weaker pupil but there are many advantages, which are beneficial to the individual and to society in general.

This concept is linked to the impact of open registration on six-year continuity. Most of the principals claimed that open registration has the following characteristics whereby half of the institutions will contain pupils of average to above average ability, with the result being that the school will become over subscribed, necessitating entrance testing. The other half of the educational institution will contain pupils of weak and below average ability and will be less desirable. It will also attract all the pupils who were unsuccessful in applying to various other more prestigious schools. The ORT3 JHSP noted:

“In my opinion, ignoring almost half of the school population is something to be totally disregarded from a social point of view”.

Regarding those who maintain that the situation will promote healthy competition, this does not work in education, as noted by the ORT2 JHSP who claimed that from the start pupils are graded on a scale of 50 percent above the average and 50 percent below. The resulting competition is between weak and strong pupils, which in itself does not form competition. It is also claimed by the principals that the opening of registration will promote pupil's choice, with certain pupils being directed to particular schools. On the other hand, the establishment of registration areas will prevent this kind of directional promotion.

To sum up, the findings presented in this section consisted of data from the principals' and teachers' questionnaires, as well as from the interviews with the principals, teachers and pupils. It is possible to note that no particular differences were found between the findings from the questionnaires and the interviews. The results from the interviews contributed additional aspects to the findings on integration, as well as making a generalisation of the findings (Bassey 1999). They included benefits to the school, points regarding educational structure, problems of integration, separation and transition, versatility, drop-out rate, additional advantages of the six-year system, age of puberty, student's reputation, subject coordinator and open registration. These findings enhanced the problems of integration and the six-year framework, as perceived by the principals, teachers and a limited number of pupils.

The findings of the three case studies indicate that the problems of integration in one school (tends to be the good school) are different from the other schools. Furthermore, it is possible to note that one school (lack of teacher comfort) has greater difficulties with integration than in the other schools. In other words, there are likely to be three different schools regarding the level of success for integration. Further discussion can be found in chapter six. The following section deals with the management styles perceived by the principals and teachers of the three schools of the case studies.

Management style

Junior-high school principals

Table 5.5 and Figure 5.5 show the findings perceived by the junior – high school principals of the three schools – ORT1 (N), ORT2 (G) and ORT3 (R) regarding management style.

Management Style	N – junior	G - junior	R - junior	Average
Collegial	4.8	4.8	4	4.53
Subjective	1.3	1.3	2	1.53
Bureaucracy	1.8	1.8	2	1.87
Political	1	1	2	1.33
Ambiguity	4	4	4.4	4.13
Cultural	5	5	4	4.67

Table 5.5: The junior – high school principals' management styles

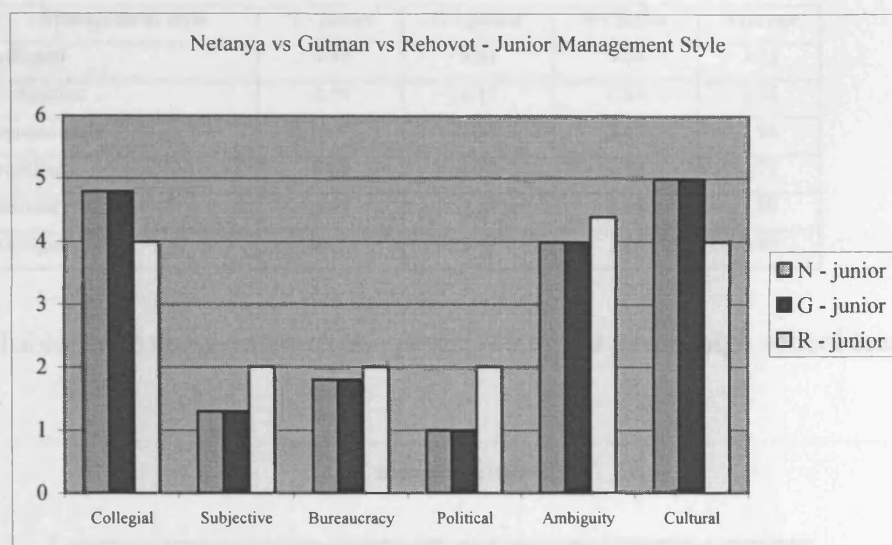


Figure 5.5: The junior-high school principals' management styles

From the findings it is possible to note similar values that were received by the ORT1 and ORT2 junior-high school principals, regarding the six styles of management. The findings indicate high values to collegial (4.8), ambiguity (4.8) and cultural (5) management styles in those two particular schools. On the other hand, there were low values for subjective (1.3), bureaucratic (1.8) and political (1.0). The values that were received from the ORT3 junior-high school principal, indicate a lower value than the principals of ORT1 and ORT2 regarding collegial (4.0) and cultural (4.0) management styles, as well as a higher value regarding ambiguity. It is possible to note that the above findings are similar to the survey findings received from the high school principals regarding management style. Further discussion can be found in chapter six which deals with the analysis of the findings. The following presents the findings perceived by the junior-high teachers of the three case studies, regarding management style.

Junior-high school teachers

Table 5.6 and Figure 5.6 show the findings received by the junior – high school teachers of the three schools – ORT1 (N), ORT2 (G) and ORT3 (R) regarding management style.

Management style	N - junior	G - junior	R - junior	Average
collegial	3.43	3.41	3.14	3.33
subjective	3.44	3.17	3.15	3.25
bureaucracy	2.7	2.58	3.55	2.94
political	2.66	2.77	2.88	2.77
cultural	3.52	3.51	3.15	3.39
ambiguity	2.72	2.63	3.06	2.80

Table 5.6: Management style – perceived by the junior-high school teachers

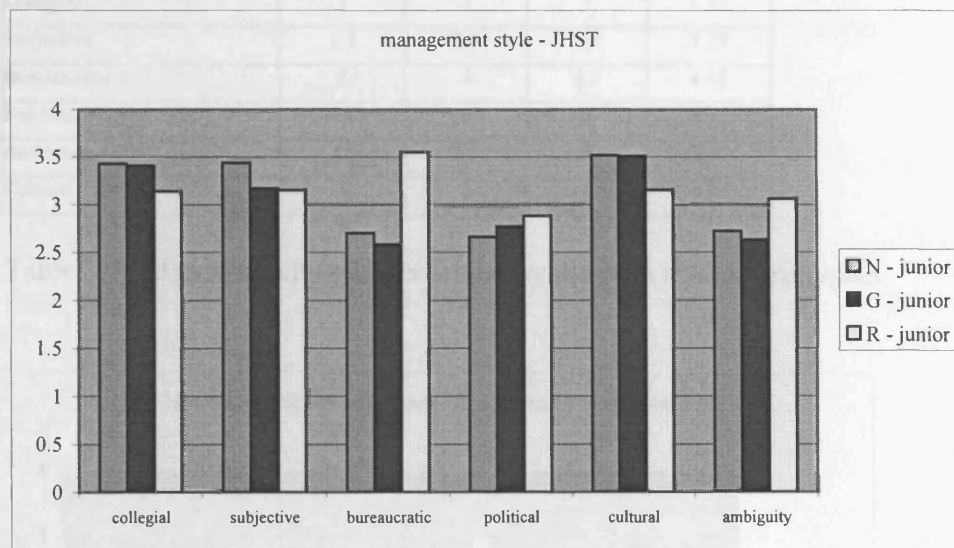


Figure 5.6: Management style – perceived by the junior-high school teachers

The bureaucratic management style received a high value from the ORT3 teachers (3.55), as opposed to 2.7 from the ORT1 teachers and the ORT2 teachers (2.58). There is also a marked difference in the values given by the principal and teachers of the ORT3 school. The cultural parameter in ORT3 shows a lower level (3.15) than that of ORT2 (3.51) and ORT1 (3.52). The ORT3 collegial parameter indicates a lower level (3.15) compared to 3.41 in ORT2 and 3.43 in ORT1. In this case the findings of both the principal and teachers were similar.

It is possible to note that the level received from the HST regarding subjective and political styles are higher than the levels received from the JHSP. These findings indicate a similarity to the survey findings regarding management style perceived by the junior-high school teachers. Further discussion can be found in chapter six, which deals with the

analysis of the findings. The following presents the findings perceived by the high school principals of the three case studies, regarding management style.

High school principals

Table 5.7 and Figure 5.7 indicate the values received from the three high school principals regarding styles of management.

Management Style	N – high	G - high	R - high	Average
Collegial	1	2	1	1.33
Subjective	1.7	1.3	1.7	1.57
Bureaucracy	5	4	4.3	4.43
Political	4.7	4	5	4.57
Ambiguity	3.6	2.8	4	3.47
Cultural	1	2	1	1.33

Table 5.7: Management style perceived by the high school principals.

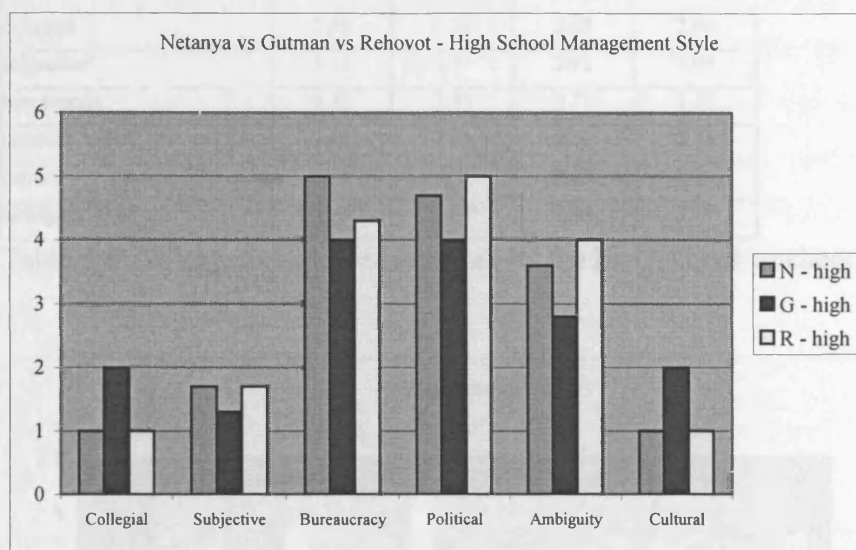


Figure 5.7: Management style perceived by the high school principals

The values point to a high bureaucratic style of management (5) in ORT1, compared to (4) in ORT2 and 4.3 in ORT3. In ORT2, low values were received compared to ORT1 and ORT3, regarding subjective, bureaucratic, political and ambiguity styles of management. In ORT1 and ORT3 higher values were received for cultural management styles. It is possible to note that the ORT2 HSP (tends to be the good school) perceive

high levels of collegial and cultural management styles, as opposed to the other principals.

The above findings indicate a similarity to the survey findings regarding management style of the HSP with the exception of the collegial and cultural styles perceived by the ORT2 HSP. It is possible to add that the management styles regarding subjective, bureaucratic, political and ambiguity perceived by the ORT2 HSP are lower than the other two schools. Further discussion can be found in chapter six which deals with the analysis of the findings. The following presents the findings perceived by the high school teachers regarding management style.

High school teachers

Table 5.8 and Figure 5.8 show the findings received by the high school teachers of the three schools – ORT1 (N), ORT2 (G) and ORT3 (R), regarding management style.

Management style	N - high	G - high	R - high	Average
collegial	2.99	3.22	2.68	2.96
subjective	3.12	2.95	2.92	3.00
bureaucracy	3.32	3.03	3.21	3.19
political	2.69	2.86	2.66	2.74
cultural	2.91	3.21	2.69	2.94
ambiguity	2.89	2.59	2.82	2.77

Table 5.8: Management style perceived by the high school teachers

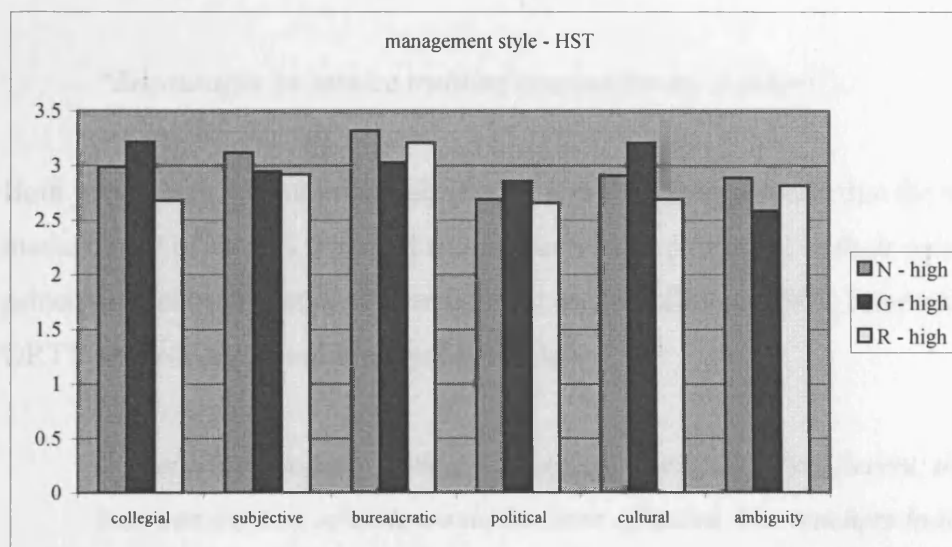


Figure 5.8: High school management style perceived by the high school teachers

The collegial parameter points to the fact that the ORT3 HST placed a lower value on this parameter (2.68) compared to the ORT2 (3.22) and ORT1 (2.99) HST. The cultural parameter received a lower value from the ORT3 HST (2.69) compared to 3.21 in ORT2 and 2.91 in ORT1. Once again, the above findings indicate a similarity to the findings received from the survey, regarding management style, as perceived by the HS teachers.

The following section presents the two parts of the interviews with the principals and teachers regarding the impact of management style on integration. The first part presents the principals perception, whilst the second part presents the teachers perception regarding management style.

Principals' perception

Regarding the principals' perception related to the impact of the management style on integration, the junior-high school principals of ORT1 and ORT3 noted that the high school principal's style of management is closed (Friedman 1993), bureaucratic (Bush 1995) and centralized (Gonen and Zaki 1999). This opinion has been reached through the junior-high school principal's personal working relationship with the principal. The ORT1 JHS principal also mentioned that her style of management is far more collegial and that she is very task oriented (Blake and Mouton 1985, Robbins 2000, Cheng 1991), by allowing her teachers to operate freely and independently (Gaziel 1993, Gonen 1999). The ORT1 JHSP added that she also:

"Encourages in-service training courses for my teachers".

Both junior-high school principals (ORT1 and ORT3) mentioned that the style of management of the HS principal delays educational processes. In their opinion, the HS principal imposes his style of management on them (Beheri 1997, Friedman 1993). The ORT1 junior-high school principal noted that:

"If the HS principal's style of management was slightly different, then integration between the two schools would be more effective. The teachers in the junior-high school operate in a pleasant atmosphere, which in turn creates motivation".

In other words, collegial management style is likely to improve integration (Inbar 2000, Cashty 2000). The ORT2 JHSP added that according to the members of staff, the atmosphere in the junior-high school is a result of the junior-high school management style (Brookover 1984, Friedman 1993). The ORT3 JHSP supported this concept by noting that the management style of the HS principal created negative feelings towards the high school and this in turn has delayed the process of integration between the two schools (Bernbaum 1976, Sweeney 1992, Kenworth 1994, Taylor and Tashakkori 1994).

It is interesting to note that the high school principal in one school was unable to voice an opinion regarding his own management style and its impact on integration between the two schools. However, on the other hand, at ORT2 both the JHSP and the HSP are of the opinion that both leadership styles are collegial, they work together harmoniously, which in turn has largely promoted integration. It is also possible to see, in addition to the management style of both principals, the fact that proportionately a large number of teachers teach in both schools. On the other hand, in ORT3 the junior-high school principal maintains that:

“My style of management is bureaucratic and the management style of the high school principal is a combination of ambiguity and political management.”

It appears that the ORT3 HSP management style is totally unclear (ambiguity) and he is rarely present in the school. The HSP added that there is almost no contact between the two schools and there has been little movement in the process of integration within the last few years. The high school principal at ORT3 justifies the fact that his management style is political whereby:

“This in itself can not advance the process of integration”.

Teachers' perception

The teachers' perception regarding the impact of the management style on integration was noted by the ORT1 JHSP, who claimed that the different management styles of the principals, as well as individual personalities causes problems relating to integration (Degani 1997, Cashty 2000, Friedman 1993). It has to be a collegial management style of both principals to promote the process of integration. The ORT3 HS teachers supported

this concept. They claim that the different styles – ambiguity and political of both principals, as opposed to collegial or cultural style causes problems with regard to integration. On the other hand, the ORT2 HS and JHS teachers claimed that in their school there is no problem of integration due to the fact that their management style is far from bureaucratic but close to collegial.

To sum up this section on management style, it is possible to note that in the ORT2 school there is little difference between the principals' and teachers' perception regarding management style, as opposed to the other two schools. The HSP perceive a high level of bureaucratic and political styles, as opposed to the JHSP. On the other hand, the JHSP perceive a high level of collegial and cultural styles, as opposed to the HSP. The teachers of the JHS and HS perceive a combination of management styles in order to promote the process of integration (Bush 1995, Ribbins 1987). Further discussion can be found in chapter six which deals with the analysis of the above findings. The following section presents the findings perceived by the teachers and principals, regarding school culture.

School culture

Junior-high school teachers

Table 5.9 and Figure 5.9 show the findings that were received from the JHST in the three case study schools (ORT1, ORT2 and ORT3), regarding school culture.

Factor	N - junior	G - junior	R - junior	Average
Achievement -Oriented school	2.57	2.85	2.65	2.69
Social cohesion	3.67	3.83	3.18	3.56
Social interaction	2.79	2.65	2.25	2.56
Social control	3.02	3.11	2.31	2.15

Table 5.9: School culture perceived by the junior-high school teachers

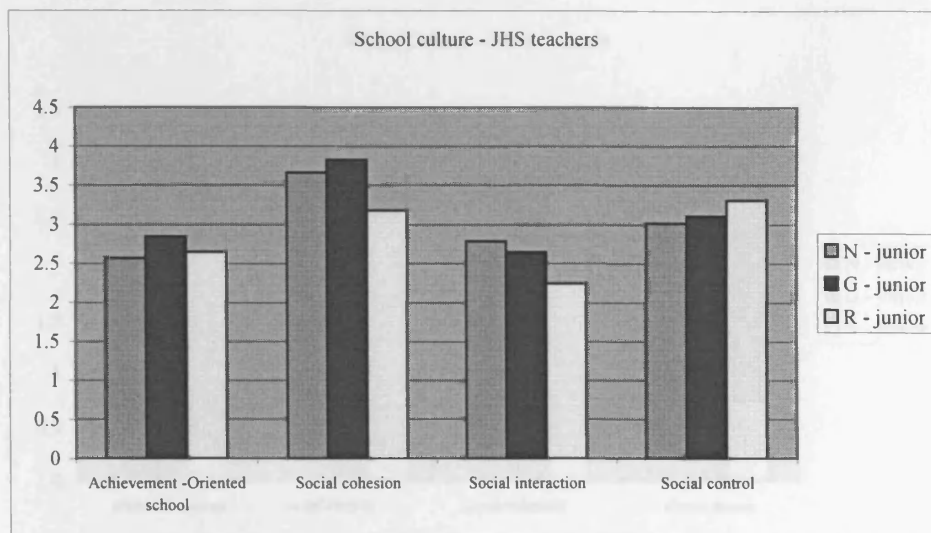


Figure 5.9: School culture perceived by the junior high school teachers

The social cohesion parameter received a lower value from the ORT3 JHST, compared to the other two schools. Regarding the social interaction parameter, a low value was also received from the ORT3 JHST, as opposed to a higher value given by the other two schools. The JHST perceived a similar value regarding an achievement-oriented school and social control parameters. It is possible to add that there are likely to be three different levels of social cohesion and control (Hargreaves 1995), perceived by the JHST of the three case studies. Further discussion can be found in chapter six which deals with the analysis of the findings. The following presents the findings perceived by the HSP regarding school culture.

Junior-high school principals

Table 5.10 and Figure 5.10 show the findings that were received from the JHSP, in the three case study schools, regarding school culture.

Factor	N - junior	G - junior	R - junior	Average
social interaction	1	2.5	2.25	1.92
social control	2.67	3	2.5	2.72
social cohesion	2.83	3	2.83	2.89
shared norms	1	1.5	0.75	1.08

Table 5.10: School culture perceived by the junior-high school principals

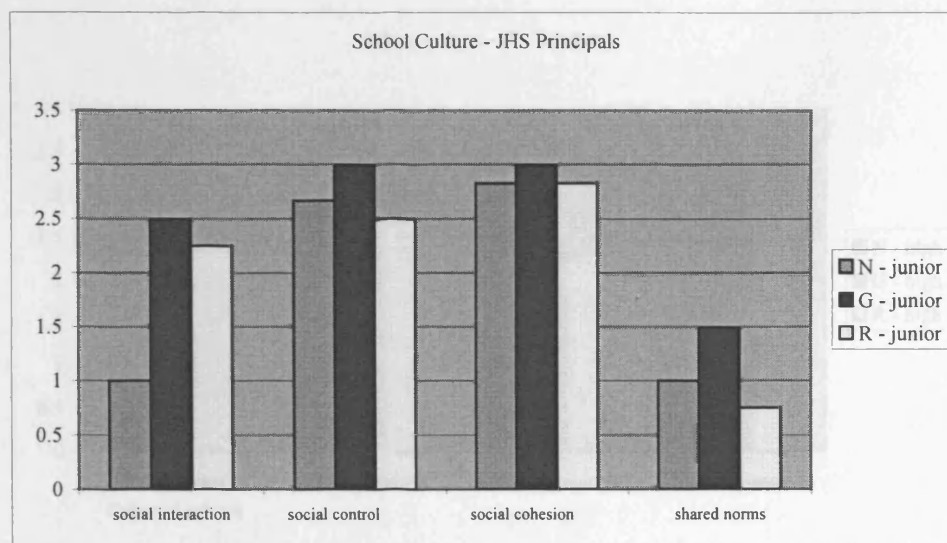


Figure 5.10: School culture perceived by the junior-high school principals

The above findings show a low level of social interaction amongst the ORT1 JHS, teachers as opposed to the ORT2 JHS. The findings indicate a low level of shared norms in the ORT3 JHS (0.75) as opposed to (1.5) in ORT2 and (1.0) in ORT1. It is possible to note that almost no shared norms exist in the three schools. On the other hand, the ORT2 principals perceive a certain level of shared norms in their school (Turner 1990, Bear 1989, Schein 1985, Pettigrew 1989). In other words, there are likely to be three different schools regarding shared norms. The following presents the findings perceived by the high school teachers regarding school culture.

High school teachers

Table 5.11 and Figure 5.11 demonstrate the findings received from the HST of the three case study schools, regarding school culture.

Factor	N - high	G - high	R - high	Average
Achievement -Oriented school	2.49	2.89	2.33	2.57
Social cohesion	3.03	3.45	2.77	3.08
Social interaction	2.44	2.67	2.29	2.47
Social control	2	3.13	2.89	3.01

Table 5.11: School culture perceived by the high school teachers

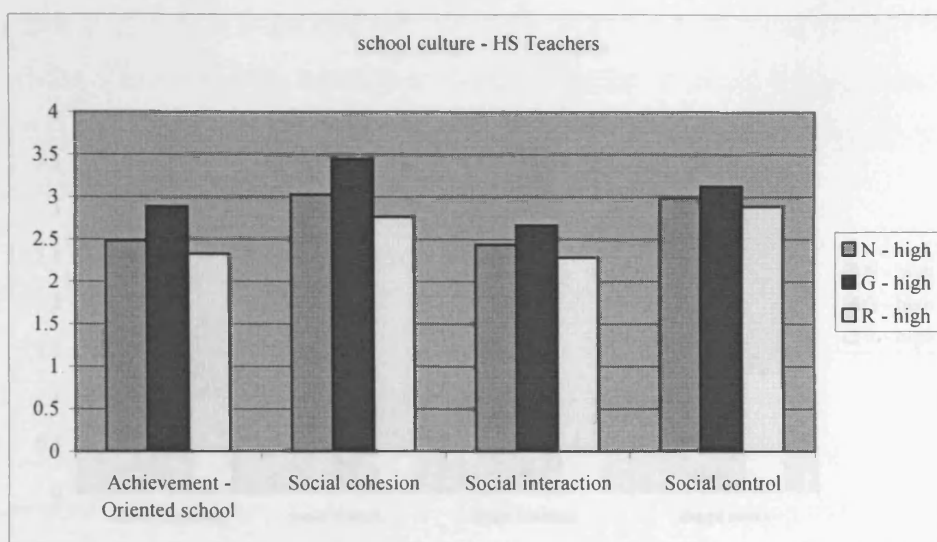


Figure 5.11: School culture perceived by the high school teachers

The social cohesion parameter received a lower value from the ORT3 HST (2.77) than that of the ORT1 HST (3.05) and ORT2 HST (3.45). The findings also show similar levels of social interaction (Hasel 1981) in the three schools which indicates no difference in the HST perception regarding social integration. The findings also indicate a high level of an achievement oriented school in the ORT2 school. In other words, in the ORT2 school there is a high level of social cohesion and academic achievement as opposed to the ORT1 and ORT3 schools. The following presents the findings perceived by the HSP regarding school culture.

High school principals

Table 5.12 and Figure 5.12 show the findings received from the HSP in the three case study schools regarding school culture.

Factor	N - high	G - high	R - high	Average
social interaction	0.25	1	1	0.75
social control	1.83	3.17	2.83	2.61
social cohesion	2.83	3.72	3.11	3.22
shared norms	1.5	1.25	1.25	1.33

Table 5.12: School culture perceived by the high school principals

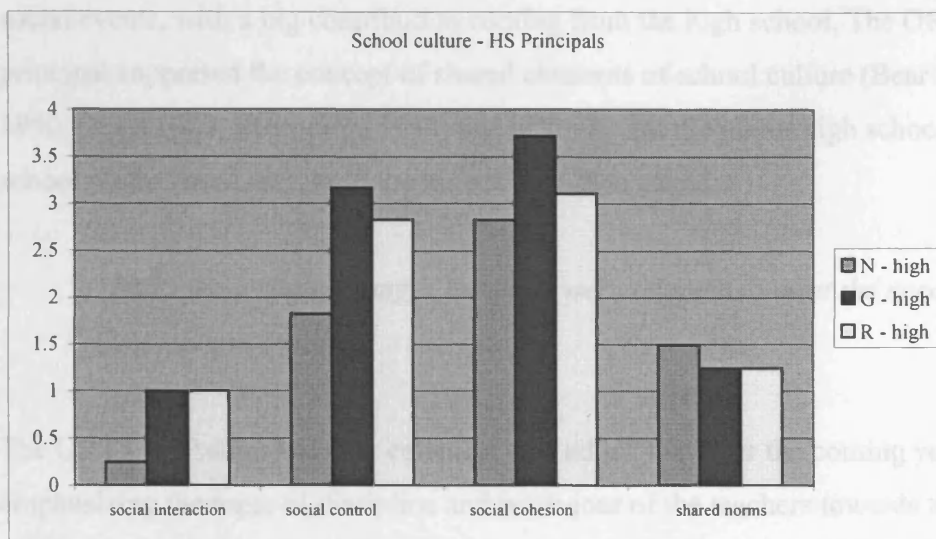


Figure 5.12: School culture perceived by the high school principals

The social interaction parameter relating to inter-personal relationships amongst the teachers in ORT3 school, is extremely low compared to the ORT2 school. The social control parameter points to a low value that was received from the ORT1 HSP (1.83), as opposed to a high value that was received from the ORT2 HSP (3.17). Once again, ORT3 was placed at the lowest level. The social cohesion parameter received a relatively low value from the ORT1 HSP (2.83) and a high value from the ORT2 HSP (3.72). It is possible to note that the HSP perceived a lower level of social interaction than the JHSP. Both social cohesion and control received a high level in the ORT2 school, compared to the ORT1 and ORT3 schools. The above findings indicate the fact that there are three different schools regarding school culture parameters perceived by the teachers of the three case studies. The following presents the interviews with the principals and teachers regarding school culture. The first part of the section presents the principals' perception. The second part presents the teachers' perception regarding school culture.

Principals' perception

Regarding the impact of school culture on integration (the third R.Q which is "what do the principals and teachers perceive as the impact of school culture on integration?"), most of the principals perceived that the influence of the school culture must be two-way. The junior-high school adapted a number of elements that were evident in the high school. The ORT1 JHSP noted that the use of a register for each subject taught was probably the influence of teachers from the high school, as well as joint planning of

social events, with a big contribution coming from the high school. The ORT2 JHS principal supported the concept of shared elements of school culture (Bear 1989, Turner 1990, Deals 1982, Mortimore 1980) and claimed that the junior high school prepared a school motto based on that of the high school. She added:

“There were slight changes but these were adapted to meet the needs of the junior-high school”.

The ORT2 HSP supported her colleague and added that over the coming year she is emphasizing the topic of discipline and behaviour of the teachers towards the pupils, and vice versa. The principal claimed that this is all within the framework of their policy. The ORT2 JHSP noted that the relationship towards the pupils in the junior-high school is extremely personal; something that does not exist in the high school.

It can be seen that the concept of personal relationships has not filtered through from the ORT2 junior-high school to the high school. The principals also referred to shared norms of both teams. According to the high school principals, an effort is being made to encourage shared norms amongst members of staff of both the junior-high and high school. The principals also view the absorption of members of staff into a six-year system as a prime objective with the emphasis being on establishing a positive work ethos and accepted norms (Schein 1985, Conway 1985, Friedman 1988, Rutter 1979, Prosser 1999). The principals of the junior-high schools, both in ORT2 and ORT1 claimed that:

“The junior-high schoolteachers put far more work into the school than is expected”.

In ORT3 this situation does not exist. The principals also referred to shared values and noted that in their schools there is a written policy that directs the students and teachers. This policy refers to shared values such as manners and behaviour, use of accepted language and love for the country (Tzifroni 2001). Both ORT2 and ORT1 principals noted that there is a small minority of teachers who place their own personal needs above those of the good of the school (Greenfields 1973, Hoyle 1986, Hodgkinson 1993). On the other hand the ORT3 HSP noted:

“Most of the teachers place their personal interests above those of the school”.

All six principals agreed that a member of staff who feels comfortable in his/her work environment puts more effort into his/her work (Anderson 1982, Friedman 1988).

Regarding rituals and ceremonies, all the principals agreed that since the process of integration, joint ceremonies and rituals take place between the two schools (Degani 1997). The principals noted that these include Memorial Day ceremonies, prize giving, Rabin Memorial Day, Holocaust Day. Certain ceremonies take place where there is no co-operation between the schools. The Bar-Mitzvah celebration in the junior-high school is for a specific age group. Likewise, the 12th grade end of year celebration where junior-high school pupils do not participate. There are also organised school journeys where there is no joint cooperation. Co-operation between teachers of the two schools regarding in service training is only partial (Beheri 1997). The principals also mentioned that there are almost no joint symbols between the two schools. However, the pupils council is joint, as well as the school newspaper. In the ORT1 school, an important symbol in the junior-high school is the high standing of sport:

“The football team has a very high achievement record both nationally and internationally”

as noted by the ORT1 JHSP. The ORT3 HSP noted that due to the different age groups there are almost no shared symbols between the two schools. The ORT2 HSP noted that:

“Flowers were used as symbols for each school year, which in turn created a feeling of uniqueness within each year group”.

Some of the teachers claimed that norms exist such as school uniform, attention to lateness, correct and proper behaviour in the corridors, as well as discipline of a high standard (Friedman 1988).

Regarding the impact of social interaction on the process of integration, the ORT1 junior-high school principal noted that staff cliques were very evident with one member of staff introducing a friend to the school with him / her then being co-opted onto the staff. The ORT2 JHSP supported this concept and added that teachers from the high school who

joined the junior-high school team developed excellent inter-personal relationships within the school (Frank 1995, Hasel 1981, Frieberg 1987). On the other hand, the ORT1 HSP noted:

“There are very few inter-personal relationships between teachers from the two schools, which in turn has halted the process of integration”.

In other words, when the level of social interaction is low, it reduces the process of integration (Meyesed 1997). The ORT3 JHSP noted that there are no inter-personal relationships between the teachers of the two schools. However, there is some social inter-personal contact amongst the members of staff of the ORT3 junior-high school. All principals noted that the lack of inter-personal relationships is responsible for the delay in integration between the two schools (Gavish 1992, Nilsen and Kirk 1984, Kenworth 1994). In both the ORT1 and ORT3 schools the principals complained of the very negative relationships that existed between the teachers of the two schools.

Teachers' perception

The teachers referred to their work in both sections of the six-year school as follows. In the junior-high school, most of the teachers noted that they were interested in working in the high school. However, this requires that they be trained regarding teaching in the high school. Some of the teachers, who already teach in the high school, do so satisfactorily as a result of the same policy and learning environment operating in both schools (Lee 1991). There are also teachers who:

“Know how to combine the social aspect of the junior-high school with the aspect of discipline.

One particular teacher in the high school claimed that there is no difficulty in teaching in both schools. Two other teachers from the high school claimed that teachers from the high school are able to teach in the junior-high but not vice versa (Beheri 1997). The high school teachers claimed that many of their colleagues would not agree to teach in the junior-high school as it meant a reduction in the level of the subject they taught, as well as a reduction within their salaries (Adler 1996, Bar-oz 1997). Teachers from both schools claimed:

“There are also technical problems in teaching different levels”.

Despite the technical problems, the teachers claimed that the junior-high school would benefit from getting first-rate teachers. This would help in preparing pupils for high academic achievement in the high school.

On the other hand, there is likely to be a conflict between the teachers who emphasise academic achievement and those who emphasise social activities. The teachers claimed that in the high school the emphasis is on achievement (M.O.E. 1997). The ORT1 JHST noted that in the junior-high the emphasis is on social cohesion, as well as learning about the country of Israel through outings and field trips. It appears that there is a certain level of social control in the HS as opposed to social cohesion in the JHS (Hargreaves 1997, Sharan 1981).

To sum up the findings relating to school culture, it is possible to note that the principals and teachers of the three schools of the case studies perceive a higher level of social cohesion and control in the junior-high school as opposed to a lower level of social cohesion and control in the high school. In addition, almost no shared norms and common values exist in the three schools (Turner 1990, Schein 1985, Deals 1982). Further discussion can be found in chapter six. The following section deals with the findings received from the sociometric questionnaire regarding social interaction amongst the teachers of the six-year school, which in turn relates to the fourth research question.

The Social Interaction Findings – Sociometric Questionnaire

In the section on methodology an explanation was provided regarding the sociometric questionnaire, which was sent to ten teachers from the junior-high school and ten teachers from the high school of the three case study schools. The purpose of this questionnaire is to find the mapping of the social cliques amongst the teachers, within the six-year framework. A list of twenty teachers was added to each questionnaire in order to provide a source of names, which the teachers were able to use for selecting names according to the specific question. (See appendix B for the sociometric questionnaire).

The following describes the findings that were received from the three schools regarding social interaction amongst the teachers.

The ORT1 school

Table 5.13 indicates the findings that were received from the teachers in ORT1 relating to social interaction (Fershtman 1993). The table is divided into four identical quarters. The top left hand quarter shows the interaction amongst the ten high school teachers. These ten teachers include two teachers of English, two teachers of Mathematics, two teachers of Literature, two teachers of History and two teachers of Bible. The numbers within the squares are the number of times a high school teacher chose another member of staff within the group of twenty selected teachers. For example, in Table 5.13, teacher no. 4 marked in the top line of the left hand quarter, chose teacher no. 3 in the left hand column **five** times. A further example from Table 5.13 is teacher no. 7 from the chooses line, chose teacher no. 4 from the chosen column, **five** times.

ORT1

chooses

High School

Junior High

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
	1							1	1		2						1		1	1	1
	2	1		4	4	5	4	3	4	3			1		2			1			1
	3	2	2		5	4	1	3	1	4	1		1		1				1	2	
	4	3	4	4		2		5	4	2							1	3		2	1
High School	5		3	1	3		1	2		1				1					1		
	6								1	1		2		1							1
	7	3					3		3	4	4	3				1					1
	8							4		3	2		1					1			1
	9	4		4			4	3	3		2									2	
chosen	10	1	2			3	2	3	5									1	2		
	11												4		1	6	3	3		5	2
	12		1			1	1	2			3	5			3	4	4	2	5		2
	13								1	1		1			2	4	1	1	5		3
	14		1				1					5	5	3						2	
Junior High	15			2		2	1	2		1		2	3	2					3	5	
	16									1	4	4	4		3			4	2	4	4
	17		2		2		4			2		3			6		2			3	
	18			1									2			2		3		2	
	19	2				3		2	1						2	4	1	3	3		3
	20									1		1	1	5		2	4		1	2	

Table 5.13: ORT1 - Social Interaction

The second top right hand quarter of the table indicates the interaction amongst the ten teachers of the junior-high school with the ten teachers of the high school. The ten teachers from the junior-high school teach the same subjects, as mentioned above with the high school teachers. The numbers in the squares indicate the number of times that a certain teacher in the junior-high school chose a certain teacher from the high school. The third quarter, which is located in the bottom left hand quarter of the table, indicates the interaction amongst the ten high school teachers and the ten junior-high teachers. The subjects taught and the number of teachers from each department is the same as was previously mentioned. The numbers in the squares in this quarter indicate the number of times that a certain teacher from the high school chose another teacher from the junior-high school. The last quarter, which is located in the bottom right hand quarter, indicates the contact amongst the ten junior-high school teachers. Once again, the subjects taught are the same as those previously mentioned. The numbers in the squares indicate the number of times a certain JHST chose another JHST.

The findings received from the ORT1 school indicate that there is one clique which includes the group of teachers indicated by numbers {2,3,4,5} from the chooses and chosen lines. In other words, this shows that this particular clique of high school teachers includes one teacher who teaches English (2), two teachers who teach Mathematics (3,4) as well as one teacher who teaches Literature (5). The value that was received for the SMI of this clique is 0.812 on the scale of 0 – 1 (Fershtman and Chen 1997). A further clique that was received includes the group of teachers {2,3,4,5,7,8,9,10}. This group includes teachers who teach English, two teachers who teach Mathematics, one teacher who teaches Literature, two teachers who teach History as well as two teachers who teach Bible (9,10). The SMI value received for this clique is 0.666. The strength of this clique is less than the strength of the former clique. In other words, the previous mentioned clique is far more cohesive. The clique of the group {2,3,4,5}, which was discussed previously, forms a sub group of the largest group {2,3,4,5,7,8,9,10}.

A further clique that was received from the data is the group {13,20}. This includes one Maths teacher in the JHS (13), one Bible teacher in the JHS (20). The SMI value that was received for this clique was 0.727 on a scale of 0 – 1. One is able to explain the contact between the two teachers in this clique by the fact that teacher no. 13 chose teacher no. 20, five times. Teacher no. 20 chose teacher no.13, three times (see table 5.13). This

clique is formed only in the JHS and has no contact with teachers in the HS. A further clique that was received from the findings is the group of teachers {11,12,13,14,15,16,20}, which includes those teachers who teach English, Maths, Literature and one teacher who teaches Bible. The SMI value that was received from the group was 0.633 on a scale of 0 – 1. This is a group of teachers in the JHS with internal contact. The strength of the contact within this group is similar to that found within the large HS clique previously mentioned (0.666). Further discussion can be found in chapter six, which deals with the analysis of the findings.

The ORT2 school

Table 5.14 indicates the findings that were received from the ORT2 school.

ORT2		chooses																											
		High School										Junior High																	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20								
High School	1		2	4	2	2	4	1	1	5	2	5	2	3	5	6		3	1	3	1								
	2	1		4	4	5	4	3	4	3	2	2	1	3	1		7	3	1	2	1								
	3	3	2		5	4	1	3	1	4	1		1		1				1	2									
	4	3	4	4		2	2	5	4	2	3	1		4			1	3		2	1								
	5	3	3	1	3		1	2	1	1	2	1	3		2	2	4		1	2									
	6	5		2	3	3		2	2	1	1		2		1		4		2	2	1								
	7	3	1	3	2	3	3		3	4	4	3				1				1									
	8	3	2	6	2	3	2	4		3	2		1	2	4	3		1		2	1								
chosen	9	4	7	4	7	3	4	3	3		2	2			3	3	4		3	2	2								
	10	2	2	6	1	3	2	3	5	1		3	2			4		1	2	2									
	11	5	3		2	2		1		3	2	4	4	2	7	6	3	3		5	2								
	12	2	2	2		4	1	1	2		3	3		3	3	4	4	2	5	3	2								
	13	3	2	1	2	1			2	1		2	2		2	4	1	1	5	1	3								
	14		4	3			1		3	2		5	5	3				3	2	2									
	15	5				3	1	2	3	3	3	4	3	2				4	3	5	5								
	16	3	5		3		3			3	1	3	4		3	4		4	2	4	4								
Junior High	17	2	2	1	2		1		2	1		3			6	1	2			3									
	18	3		1	1	2	2			3	2	2	2	4	2	2		3		2	2								
	19		3	2	3	3	1	1	2	2	2	2	3	3	2	4	1	3	3		3								
	20	2	1		2		1	1	2	1		1	1	5		2	4		1	2									

Table 5.14: ORT2 - Social Interaction

The findings show a clique, which includes teachers {2,16}. In other words, one teacher who teaches English in the high school (2) and one teacher who teaches Literature in the

junior- high school (16). This group points to the contact that exists between the ORT2 JHS and HS. The strength of the relationships in this group which is expressed by the SMI (0.528), shows the number of times that teacher no. 2 (five times) chose teacher no. 16 and vice versa (seven times).

Another clique that was received from the ORT2 teachers includes teachers {7,10}, a History teacher in the high school and a Bible teacher in the high school. The strength of this contact is represented by the $SMI=0.381$.

Another clique that was received from the ORT2 teachers includes the teachers {11,14}. In other words, a group of teachers in the JHS, which includes a Maths teacher and an English teacher. The value of the SMI received for this group (0.507) points to the fact that also in the JHS there is an internal clique of teachers, as previously seen in the HS. It can be seen that strong relationships exist amongst the six-year school teachers.

A further clique that was received from the ORT2 teachers includes a group of teachers {13,18} within the JHS, who teach Maths and History. The level of contact measured by the SMI (0.480) points to the fact that there is a further group within the JHS without any contact with the HS. Further discussion can be found in chapter six which deals with the analysis of the findings.

The ORT3 school

Table 5.15 indicates the findings that were received from the ORT3 school. The findings show that one clique which was found from the data includes teachers' numbers {3,4}. Both of the teachers in this clique are Maths teachers in the HS. The level of SMI in this clique is 0.855. This points to the fact that there is very strong contact within the Maths department in the HS, but there is no contact at all with teachers in the JHS. A second clique which was found from the sociometric response data includes teachers {5,11}. In other words, a Literature teacher in the HS and an English teacher in the JHS. The level of SMI for this clique is 0.687. This points to the fact that there is contact amongst language teachers between the two schools.

A third clique that was received from the data includes a group of teachers {10,14}, a Bible teacher from the HS and a Maths teacher from the JHS. The level of SMI for this

clique is 0.770. The contact within this group is expressed by the strong interpersonal relationship between the two teachers and not necessarily professional contact relating to school matters. A fourth clique, which was received from the ORT3 teachers, includes a group of teachers {12,15}. In other words, an English teacher from the JHS and a Literature teacher from the JHS. The level of SMI in this clique is 0.740. This points to the fact that there is contact between teachers who teach Literature within the JHS. This does not include teachers in the HS. The last clique that was received from the data includes teachers' numbers {4,6,8,9,13} with an SMI value of 0.718. In this group of teachers it is possible to note that the interaction amongst this group of teachers includes one Maths HST, one Literature HST, one History HST, one Bible HST, as well as one Maths JHST.

ORT3

chooses

High School

Junior High

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
	1												1		3			1	4	
	2		1		5	7		1		1				2	2	1	3			1
	3			5			3	3		4								6		
	4		7		1			7	1			1			1	2		1	1	7
High School	5	5									7						6	2		
	6			1				4	6				1							2
	7	4	1		7							1		6				5		
	8					2	1		7	1	2				5				1	
	9		6		4			3					5			3		1		4
chosen	10			1		3					1	2		7		1	4			
	11				4		7										4			
	12	2												5		6		6		5
	13	3						6		3	1									
	14	2		4						5							2		3	
Junior High	15						2					7								1
	16	1	6		1					1				4						
	17				7				1				3							4
	18			4			5				2			3	1		6			
	19				1		3					3					4			
	20		3			5			2					3				1		

Table 5.15: ORT3 - Social Interaction

The above findings received from the three case studies show three different types of social interaction. In one school (tends to be the good school), there is strong social

interaction amongst the teachers of both the junior-high and high school. In the other school (lack of teacher comfort), there is weak social interaction amongst the teachers of both sections of the six-year school. The ORT1 school is placed between the ORT2 and ORT3 schools regarding social interaction by the fact that there is a certain amount of social interaction amongst the teachers of both schools.

Further discussion can be found in the next chapter which deals with the analysis of the findings received from the survey and the three case studies.

Chapter Six: Analysis

Introduction

This chapter integrates and brings together all of the issues outlined in chapters four and five into a complete analysis of what was found. The chapter presents the analysis of the research project regarding the three main areas of integration which relates to the four research questions:

- 1. Do principals and teachers of ORT six-year schools perceive that integration has brought benefits to school? If so, what factors are perceived to have most impact on integration?*
- 2. What are the principals and teachers' perception of the management styles and the impact of these styles on the process of integration?*
- 3. What do the principals and teachers perceive as the impact of school culture on the integration?*
- 4. What are the principals and teachers' perceptions of the impact of social interaction between teacher teams on the integration process?*

The analysis is based on the findings presented in the previous chapters regarding the above three main areas. The first area deals with the factors perceived to have most impact on integration. The second area deals with the management style analysis, and the third area deals with school culture analysis.

Integration

The following discusses the analysis of the findings perceived by the principals and teachers relating to integration. The analysis discusses the factors to have the most impact on integration, as mentioned in the literature review and chapters four and five.

The impact on pupils

Transition

These findings point to the fact that the six-year framework has had an effect on the transition of pupils from the JHS to the HS. It has made acclimatization far easier for the pupils when moving to the HS, without the experience being particularly traumatic, as

maintained by Amir (1996) and Chen (1997). These findings refer to the schools that are on the same campus, and do not include split-site schools. The principals see the six-year framework as being responsible for lessening the drop out rate when transferring to the HS. This is due to the fact that the pupil has a sense of belonging to the school, which began in the JHS. According to the findings, the principals view the six-year continuity as resulting in the lessening of the difficulties of transition and allowing the pupil to fit into the high school relatively quickly. The findings show that the principals see the benefits of the six-year system in that the individual learner is able to greatly advance. This development stage begins in the JHS and is enhanced in the same manner in the HS. The findings show that the six-year framework has resulted in the pupil having contact with far fewer teachers than when the pupil attends a separate JHS and then a HS.

The findings show that the HSP place limited emphasis on the process of social education, which began in the JHS, and continue the process in the HS. This is so that the pupil will have a sense of continuity and fit into the high school with the ability to communicate openly with his/her teachers (Israelshvilli 1997). In addition, this provides social values and flexible time for personal contact and discussion. These findings show that in the JHS there is a certain awareness regarding the fact that the six-year system can result in the older high school pupils taking advantage of the younger JHS pupils (Beheri 1997, Chen 1997). This concern is less noticeable amongst pupils in the HS than in the JHS. The JHS pupil has a sense of lack of attention being paid to him/her (Adler 1996). The findings also point to the fact that in the six-year continuity the pupil in the JHS is at the centre (Yellin 1997, Chen 1995, Salomon and Almog 1999, Weston, Barrett and Jamison 1992), whereas in the HS the emphasis is on academic achievement.

The impact on the pupils parameter received from the three case studies, indicates that the six-year continuity has had a positive effect on the ORT2 school and only partly in ORT1 and ORT3. This points to the fact that in ORT2 the teachers and management team are aware of the impact of the six-year continuity on the pupils, as well as the various processes a pupil has to endure during his school years (Autolongy 1997).

Another factor which relates to the impact on pupils is the dropping out rate.

Dropping out

The information gathered through the interview indicated that one of the major problems of the six-year school with separate administration is the dropping out rate of pupils, during the transition from the JHS to the HS. The principals do not feel personally responsible for a pupil starting the six-year school in the 7th grade and graduating in the 12th, although they would like this to be the case. A further point is that when the JHS is located far from the HS (split-site school) the six-year continuity is interrupted (Brown 1994). In this case there is the problem of transition and joint resources between the two sections. The principals' perception regarding the impact of continuity on integration is that the six-year continuity does not necessarily ensure integration, due to the fact that in the 9th grade a process of pupil selection takes place (Smilansky 1987, Behari 1997). This in turn has an effect on the weak pupils. The information gathered from the principals points to the fact that one of the main problems of integration is that teachers are not able to accept the situation whereby weak pupils study together with strong pupils (Degani and Adler 1997).

A further difficulty is that of the negative self image of the weak pupil when coming in contact with a strong pupil. Once again, this situation causes the weak pupil to drop out of the school as well as reducing motivation to continue studying (Ben-Ari 1978, Chen 1997). It is difficult to find a solution for preventing dropping out, as the principals are interested in the school maintaining high academic achievement, which in turn is seen through successful matriculation results (Friedman 1988, Pen-Peretz 1995). On the other hand, continuity allows the pupil to have a defined, known direction and therefore lessens the chances of dropping out. In addition, continuity allows the weak pupil to fit in within a known environment, as well as the contact with teachers who have taught him/her in the past (Israelshvilli 1997, Gordon 1997). Another difficulty relates to the elements of lack of sensitivity towards pupils at the age of puberty, due to the fact that the system demands high academic achievement from a young age (Degani 1997). This is opposed to placing emphasis on pupil development (Bronfenbrenner and Morris 1998, Cashty 2000, Chen 1997, Smilansky 1987). A further problem regarding integration perceived by the principals, relates to the stigma of a weak pupil which accompanies him during the whole period of six-years (Chen 1997).

Regarding open registration and the effect on the benefits for the school, the principals perceived that a number of schools, particularly located in the centre of the country, were able to absorb strong pupils and were therefore able to be selective regarding registration. On the other hand, a number of schools, particularly located in the north and south of the country, were not able to be selective due to the fact that the majority of pupils were weak and that there was no competition. The teachers and the pupils perceived that the policy of the school is to help the weaker pupils by producing additional help and assistance to deal with their needs as well as prepare the pupil before he moves to the HS, in order to reduce transition difficulties (Lance 1994).

The effect of change

Curriculum and integration

These findings indicate that the six-year framework has had an influence on the process of integration. However, this is by no means substantial. According to the answers given by the HSP the change to a six-year framework has had a positive bearing on the curriculum in that the teachers changed their approach towards the school, which in turn influenced their teamwork and collegial approach (Friedman 1992). This had a further outcome in that it constituted another factor in the process of integration, both from the point of view of the teachers and pupils. According to both sets of principals emphasis should be placed on the physical structure of the buildings so that they become subject oriented learning environments (Autolony 1997). The JHSP perceive that the school prepares the pupils for the transition to the HS in order to slide into the continuative structure. This in itself eases the trauma of the transition process (Yellin 1997).

On the other hand, the principals and teachers' perception is that the six-year framework causes social conflicts between the younger and older children who study on the same campus (Beheri 1997). The six-year school has then got to deal with this problem by involving educational counsellors in order to find solutions to the problem. This particular problem is part of the overall difficulty found in Israeli schools of coping with violence within schools (Tzifroni 2001, Horovitz 1980, U.S. Department 1978). These findings indicate that the principals and teachers perceive an advantage in the six-year framework whereby the pupils have a sense of belonging to the school, which in turn is

reflected in the pupil's motivation to want to stay at the school and complete his/her education in that framework (Bar-Oz 1997).

Regarding the process of administrative separation some of the principals believe that separation can considerably enhance the positive functioning of the school. The principals' answers reflect, to a certain degree, the tension that exists between the principals of both schools when they work on the same campus (Beheri 1997). This is due to the conflict of interests between two different governing bodies, namely ORT and the Ministry of Education, as well as a high level of a political style of management perceived by the principals and teachers of both sections of the school (Hoyle 1986, Glatter 1982). The principals perceive that the JHS teachers have a deep sense of belonging to the Ministry of Education, rather than to ORT. On the other hand, the HS teachers have a deep sense of belonging to the ORT Network. The two different governing bodies reduces the co-operation between the two schools and slows down the process of integration. According to the JHSP there is a certain level of freedom regarding the financial management of the school. However, together with this point, it is important to note that within every six-year framework there is an administrator who is responsible for the overall budget of both schools run by the ORT network. He/she is ultimately responsible for implementing the budget. This is often contrary to the needs and requirements of the JHS (Degani 1997). Implementing the six-year school budget is part of the benefits for the school (Ben-Peretz 1995).

Benefits for the school

The teachers' perception, regarding the first R.Q. which relates to the benefits of the six-year framework to the school, is that the advantages are the wide variety of subjects taught (Bar-oz 1997), the continuity of the curriculum (Authology 1997), the low dropping out rate (Chen 1997, Israelshvilli 1997), as well as few problems with transition (Adler 1997). The information gathered from the interview indicates the fact that the six-year framework encourages social integration (M.O.E 1997), although it is not 100 percent effective. Heterogeneous classes improve social integration, particularly in the JHS. It also encourages the pupils to achieve the necessary academic standard for good matriculation results. In addition, the six-year continuity allows for flexibility within the curriculum in order to make provision for gifted children to follow accelerated learning

within the school system. The teachers prefer a six-year framework which promotes integration, prepares the pupils for the high school and encourages successful teamwork.

The main disadvantage of the six-year school is that the majority of teachers are not proficient enough to teach in both sections of the school (Friedman 1992). Another disadvantage mentioned, is that there are a number of subjects that are taught in the JHS and the same material is repeated in the high school (Beheri 1997). The findings indicate that the six-year system barely promotes success and neither of the types of schools has a joint long-term curriculum plan. There is no specific emphasis on academic achievement. This is possibly linked to the high ambiguity value, meaning that the principals do not see this as being of prime importance (Yassure 1978, Bell 1989). This also shows that the JHS teaching staff is nearly in full agreement with the planning and operation of the teaching programme, more so than in the high school. When teachers have no expectations from their pupils they treat all the pupils equally. At the same time, the pupils are not influenced by the teachers' expectations. Pupils' motivation is not based on teachers' expectations. As a result, teachers' expectations do not effect the result of pupils' achievement (Murphy 1988). According to the findings, both schools barely provide a combination of achievement with an enhanced social climate (Sweeney 1992). It also shows slight acceleration in matriculation achievement in the high school. The principals also emphasised the pupils' academic achievement as a parameter for measuring the benefits to the school (Inbar 1997, Chen 1997, Minkovitch 1987, Tylor and Tashakkori 1994). The most common way of viewing success for integration is related to the academic achievement of the pupils as well as the social integration between the two sections of the six-year school (Chen 1997, Cashty 2000, Nilsen and Kirk 1974). Ultimately, the pupils prefer the six-year framework, but with two complete separate sections, which in turn reduces the number of pupils present on one campus (AMA report 1976, Brown 1994).

The achievements perceived by the principals are in fact varied and based on a consensus of the basic skills as well as cognitive skills. The level that was perceived by both sets of principals and teachers for the academic achievement factor show that there is a certain interest by teachers to teach in both schools, as well as being part of the movement to advance the school (Friedman 1988). The findings point to the fact that the emphasis on academic achievement factor which received a low value in ORT1 and a

high value in ORT2, places the ORT3 school between the ORT2 and ORT1 school. This indicates that in the ORT1 high school, little emphasis is placed on academic achievement as opposed to the high level placed on it by the ORT2 school. The findings indicate the fact that the six-year framework has been responsible for the changes in the organisational role of members of staff, with specific responsibilities (Shapira 1990, Sharan 1997).

The following discusses the impact on learning time and a learning conducive atmosphere.

The impact on learning time and a learning conducive atmosphere

The findings point to the fact that time spent studying is slightly above that spent on social activities. Both sets of principals see this factor as an important concept in promoting success for integration. The information gathered through the interview indicates that the actual learning time in the six-year framework is utilized to the maximum when the heads of department are responsible for all six-years of studying, as opposed to dividing the school into two sections. With one coordinator it is possible to approach the curriculum over a six-year period of time (Degani 1997). In the case of there being no contact between the two heads of department there is often an overlap of material being taught in the high school, even though it was previously covered in the junior-high school. In addition, resources are not utilized jointly, therefore resulting in wasting of time and money (Brown 1994). The findings point to a low value given to “efficient learning time” by the ORT3 principal as opposed to high values received by the other two schools. This points to the fact that in ORT3 the pupil has far more freedom of movement and time spent in the school compared to ORT2 and ORT1. In other words, the analysis indicates that the learning time depends on the learning conducive atmosphere within the school (Friedman 1988, Meyesed 1997).

The high value of the learning conducive atmosphere factor in the JHS shows that cohesion amongst staff exists as well as emotional support from the principal (Gonnen and Zaki 1999, Gaziel 1993, Zohar 1999). In addition, there is high morale amongst the teachers as a result of the relaxed atmosphere amongst the teachers, as well as the quiet learning environment (Smith 1982). However, together with this, it is possible to understand that rules in the HS are clearly defined with emphasis on discipline and order

in the school (Bennet 1993, Friedman 1988). The learning conducive atmosphere factor received a low value from the ORT3 HSP, as opposed to a high value given by the ORT2 HSP. This points to the fact that the learning atmosphere and order and discipline in ORT3 are far lower than in ORT2. The ORT1 school is placed between ORT3 and ORT2 regarding this factor. The different learning conducive atmosphere in schools, is linked to the difference in school culture and management style (Gavish 1992, Lee 1991, Kenworth 1994).

The interviews with the principals, teachers and pupils show that there is a difference in school culture between the two sections of the six-year system, whereby in the JHS it is far more social (Beheri 1997). In addition, there is a difference in the management style of the principals whereby the JHS pupils feel that they have a relationship with both the teachers and the principal (collegial and cultural, Bush 1995, Inbar 2000 and Gaziel 1993). On the other hand, it was found that in the high school there is both discipline and distance (bureaucratic). In the high school there is insufficient time to be concerned with social integration. It is said that one of the parameters for integration success is the achievement of goals, which the school sets itself (Little 1982, Bell 1989, Bossert 1982, Friedman 1992). It is therefore possible to understand from these findings that the principals who make decisions in the school are rational individuals and direct their decisions towards defined aims already agreed upon. These findings show the increased status of both school principals, especially in the HS which facilitates the use of resources available to them, in an efficient manner (Brown 1994), as well as initiating ways of advancing academic achievement (Skinner 1990).

It is possible to note that there is a certain level of information gathering, by those who are close to the principal (Handy 1985, Harrison 1994). This in turn helps the principals to influence and encourage members of their staff to spend time on school activities, evaluation, planning, teaching and team development (Friedman 1988, Gaziel 1993). The increased status of both principals assists them in achieving the school's goals as well as giving partial autonomy to the teachers and increasing their motivation (Gonen and Zaki 1999, Sergiovanni 1984, Robbins 1997). This results in a positive school atmosphere, which influences integration.

The relatively high value of the expectations factor matches the idea that there is a low level of conflicting goals and that members of staff understand them. Both school principals are able to direct their activities so that they can achieve their defined goals (Bennet 1993). The value of this factor perceived by the JHSP is lower than HSP and matches the idea which says that the goals of the school are not always stated in a defined manner without ambiguity (Hoyle 1986). The findings of the clear goals and expectations show that clearly defined roles of teachers within the six-year system bring benefits to the school. The information gathered through the interview indicates that in spite of the fact that the principals are well aware of the aims of the six-year school, the lack of contact between the two schools sometimes prevents the implementation of the goals (Gavish 1992, Friedman 1993). This is also due to two different pedagogical approaches towards the pupils as well as the allegiance to two different governing bodies.

An important finding that was perceived by the JHSP is that the teachers in the JHS feel that they have allegiance to the M.O.E. rather than to ORT, which has slightly different goals. The finding also points to the fact that the ORT1 JHSP has not fully initiated her teachers in the aims, goals and expectations of the school in a defined and clear manner. However, it has been partly implemented which can be seen in the value received. An interesting factor can be seen in the extremely high value received from the ORT2 HSP regarding clear goals and expectations compared to the low value in ORT1. This is an indication that the ORT2 HSP has passed on the clear aims, goals and expectations of her school in a far more defined way than the ORT1 HSP. The impact of clear goals and expectations on the teachers is discussed in the following section.

The impact on the teachers

This finding indicates that the JHSP view the six-year comprehensive framework as a major factor in the advancement of the status of the JHSP. The HSP is aware of the fact that high school teachers maintain a higher status than the JHS teachers (Beheri 1997). The JHS teachers are not aware of feeling inferior to their high school counter-parts. Therefore, the JHST are willing to teach in the HS and to be part of the high school team. The fact that the high school curriculum is far more varied and flexible than in the JHS, makes the high school more interesting and attractive in the final three years of school. This flexibility within the six-year curriculum increases the number of JHST willing to

take part in the HS. The finding correlates to the material mentioned by Beheri (1997) and Chen (1997) in that the JHSP view the six-year system as a vital influence on the teachers who teach in both schools. However, the HSP view this as being of less importance. The terms of employment of those high school teachers who teach in the JHS are less favourable than those teachers from the JHS who teach in the high school. This is due to the fact that the JHS is only under the auspices of the Ministry of Education, whereas the high school is under the auspices of the ORT network.

A further point mentioned by Beheri (1997) is that the high school teachers are not interested in teaching in the JHS due to the low status of teaching in the JHS. On the other hand, the six-year framework has had an influence on some of the HS teachers to take part in in-service training courses which provide teaching tools and skills for teaching in the six-year system - not only one school, as mentioned by Inbar (2000), Chen (1997) and Friedman (1993). The teachers maintain that teaching as a profession enables them to achieve a relatively high status in professional terms.

The versatility mentioned above influences the team relationships between the two sections of the six-year school. The relationship between the teachers of the two sections is influenced by the relationship between the principals (Sharan 1981). The six-year framework has resulted in teachers from both schools re-examining their priorities regarding the school's aims. A teacher from the JHS now has the option of career advancement, more so than when the schools were separate (Degani 1997). This is also true of the high school teacher who is able to advance his/her career by working in the six-year system and to be committed to his/her pupils regarding documentation and assistance (Lance 1994). There is strong motivation by the teachers to take part in in-service training, which deals with the six-year framework, as opposed to only one section of the school, either JHS or HS. A high level of morale depends on the cohesiveness of the teachers regarding in-service training (Friedman 1989). This matches the findings. An additional aspect which is gathered from the findings, is that the weak inter personal relations between the two principals has a negative effect on staff morale and staff conflicts (Dunham 1992).

The finding points to the fact that JHSP view the fact that tension and conflict exists amongst the teachers from both schools (Hoyle 1986, Blase 1981). The HSP view the

existence of tension and conflict at a higher rate (political style). When the JHS teachers join the HS there is a high level of pressure and tension between the principals and members of staff of both sections of the school, as well as different management styles, which result in a power struggle within the six-year system (Glatter 1982, Baldrige 1971). In addition HS teachers perceive the fact that new teachers pose a threat to their position in the school, which in turn prevents the established teachers from advancing in the system (Ball 1987). This situation may be responsible for slowing down the process of integration (Friedman 1988).

The stress and conflict parameter received a high value from the ORT1 JHSP as opposed to a low value from the ORT2 JHSP. This is an indication that in ORT1 there is tension and conflict amongst the JHS teachers, as seen by the principal. The ORT2 principal views this as being less apparent. The value that was received by the ORT2 JHSP for this parameter is close to the value given by the 23 survey principals. In addition, the finding indicates the fact that in ORT3 there is a level of co-operation between the principal and the teachers with the principal involving the teachers in decision making (Bush 1995, Campbell 1993), more so than in ORT1. The ORT3 principal perceives a high level of conflict as opposed to the ORT2 school principal. This is an indication that in the ORT3 JHS there is stress and conflict amongst the teachers but not at the same level as amongst the ORT1 teachers. Stress and conflict in the JHS may be due to uncertainty and ambiguity regarding the six-year framework (Glatter 1982, Cohen and March 1986, Dunham 1992, Bacharach 1980). It is evident that in the JHS there is a lack of an open culture due to the tension that exists on the campus (Friedman 1988). In the HS the climate is far more closed due to the conflicts between the two schools. The principals view the fact that a power struggle exists amongst the teachers, in particular, in the HS (Gibton 2000). The lack of an open culture creates situations where both teachers and pupils are not interested in being a part of the integration process. This finding points to the fact that the six-year framework causes discension amongst the management team, as well as a lack of trust amongst the teachers in the JHS (Bellaby 1977, Davis 1976, Cornall 1992). The principals and teachers perceive that discension and lack of trust do not contribute to the process of integration.

Due to the change to a six-year system, team work plays a central role in implementing changes in schools (Fullan and Hargreaves 1992). Junior-high school principals view the

general support by teachers of the six-year system as being of major importance in providing benefits for the school. Joint planning and teamwork by teachers together with co-operation which operates in the JHS, are influenced by the six-year framework (Cashty 2000). The teachers in the JHS feel that they are an integral part of the six-year system and receive support from the principal as a result (Bernbaum 1976). This points to the fact that the six-year system has changed the work structure of the co-coordinators whereby the level of dialogue has decreased amongst certain members of staff. It has also caused general disagreement amongst the high school teachers. The HSP does little to help with the problems of members of staff (Robbins 2000).

Another point to be seen by the findings is that the work relationship factor received a low value from the ORT3 HSP, compared to a high value from the ORT2 HSP. This is an indication that in the high school there is almost no joint team work amongst the teachers, as opposed to positive team work amongst the ORT2 school teachers, with a slightly lower factor amongst the ORT1 teachers. On the other hand, the information gathered through the interviews indicates that the six-year system provides more possibilities for positions of responsibility (Degani 1997), as well as flexibility in teamwork. On the other hand, the principals prefer separate subject coordinators for the two sections of the school. This in turn reduces the team work relationship between the teachers and increases the tension between the teachers of the two sections (Brown 1984). The finding indicates that the JHSP view that there is a certain level of tension between the teachers of both schools (high level of political style). The JHSP view this level as being higher than that perceived by the HSP. This tension influences the working relationship between the two sets of staff and is also influenced by the inter-personal relationship between the two principals (Friedman 1993, Inbar 2000). This in turn has an influence on slowing down the integration process. The HSP do not see an interest being shown in teaching in the JHS. On the other hand, the JHSP view this in a far more optimistic manner as mentioned above. That is, teachers from the JHS are interested in teaching in the HS. The findings indicate that the six-year framework creates a lack of trust between the two sets of staff, due to the level of tension between them, as well as the low level of contact between the two teams. This is due to the JHS teachers feeling affinity to the Ministry of Education, whilst the HS teachers feel affinity to ORT, as mentioned earlier.

The team work perceived by the teachers is seen in the form of staff morale and the implementation of set tasks (Gottfredson 1986). Team work demands co-operation amongst the teachers, as well as assistance to members of staff dealing with difficulties within the work environment. Members of staff have high motivation, as well as working with a united team. This kind of teamwork demands that each of the members accepts the failings and weaknesses of their colleagues (Friedman 1988). Successful team-work promotes a sense of joint achievement and a challenge for even greater success in the future. The findings in the HS indicate that there are more disagreements amongst the teachers who prefer an individual approach to their work rather than relying on co-operation. In the JHS the teachers work in teams and there is a high level of co-operation.

The findings received from the case studies, regarding team work, indicate a lower value from the ORT3 HST, than from the ORT2 HST, and ORT1 HST. This points to the fact that not only in the JHS but also in the HS there is a lack of team work and working relationships amongst the members of staff. Both in ORT1 and ORT2 these parameters received a higher value of team work relationships. It is possible to note that these findings match the pattern of social interaction received from the three case studies. The information gathered through the interviews indicates that the teachers who teach in both sections are able to combine social activities with order and discipline (Gaziel 1993, Friedman 1988).

Impact on integration

The findings indicate that the JHSP are interested in the framework of a six-year system which provides joint management between the two schools, in which there are representatives from the two schools, and in which decision making also involves both schools (Israelshvilli 1997). On the other hand, the HSP are not particularly interested in having joint management between the two schools. This may in turn result in making decisions which are opposed to their work ethos. In addition, the finding indicates that the JHSP assist teachers in solving problems, as opposed to HSP who have far less involvement in solving day-to-day difficulties and issues (Beheri 1997). The example of the ORT2 JHSP, shows that she involves her staff in decision making as well as collegial team work, far more so than in the other schools.

The information gathered through the interview indicates that the principals are in favour of the framework having separate administration. It is possible to say that there is a general preference for six-year schools but with two independent schools, which allows each school to deal with its own issues and future. Together with this, there are areas that need to be joined together. For example, there are certain issues that need to be co-ordinated such as continuation of studying and the school curriculum (Autolongy 1997). However, regardless of the situation, the junior-high school principal will not be beholden to the high school principal (Degani 1997). Integration is influenced by the level of co-operation between the principals and teachers of both sections. Both principals see the need for co-operation in order to advance integration. This level of co-operation is reflected in the fact that the JHSP carries out his/her duties according to the requirements of the HSP. This finding also shows that the principals see the relationship between them as being open and honest to allow for dialogue, which in turn influences the success for integration (Meyesed 1997, Kenworth 1994). Both principals are aware of the fact that the relationship between them has an impact on the relationship amongst the teachers of both schools, which in turn influences the process of integration. The principals also view the six-year framework as a source of tension between the two schools.

On the other hand, the low value that was received by the HST for the principal/teachers relationships factor, points to the fact that the HS team feel separation and distance from the principal (bureaucratic). The findings point to the fact that the HSP does not make an effort to solve the problems of his/her members of staff, as opposed to the assistance given by the JHSP. The HST do not view their principal as an educational figure that they can be proud of (Friedman 1993, Sergiovanni 1984). Also, they do not receive any positive back-up support from the principal. The findings from the case studies point to the fact that ORT3 JHST feel the gap between themselves and their school principal as well as there being little contact with the principal. The relationship between the principal and the teachers in ORT2 and ORT1 is considerably better but not as good as it could be.

The six-year framework has brought about a certain level of dialogue amongst the teachers of both schools, which has resulted in their having a sense of belonging to the six-year system. Both school principals emphasise agreed goals and operate a system of several year planning as well as the availability of in-service training (Bar-Oz 1997, Ben-

Peretz 1995). Part of long term planning is team development. The findings from the case studies in the high school show a low value received from the ORT1 principal relating to team development. This is opposed to a high value received from the ORT2 principal and ORT3. Team development in the ORT2 school is an important factor in promoting integration, as well as providing continuity within the six-year framework. This is indicated in the case studies. The finding points to the fact that in the ORT1 high school there is almost no emphasis on team development, as opposed to a high emphasis in the other schools. The value that was received by the ORT1 high school principal is lower than the value received for the same factor from the 23 survey principals. This indicates that there is no awareness of the importance of team development amongst some schools' teachers.

Another point to be mentioned at this stage, which has an impact on integration, is the fact that the JHS principals and teachers view parents' involvement in the school as extremely important in promoting the integration process, especially where parents are involved in helping with homework preparation (Haynes 1989, Chen 1997, Friedman 1989). The JHS principals and teachers see the parents' involvement as a central role in success for integration, as opposed to the HS principals and teachers. This low level received from the HS points to the fact that HSP do not perceive this factor as being of any importance and do not emphasise the need for parents' involvement within the school system. The HS principals and teachers do not perceive the involvement of parents as a positive factor which can promote integration. The ORT1 principal places less emphasis on the parents' role in the advancement of the school, far less so than the ORT2 and ORT3 principals. The finding also shows a low level received from the ORT3 HS principals and teachers compared to the level received by both the ORT2 and ORT1 principals and teachers. In other words, in the high school, little emphasis is placed on parents' involvement in the school's activities, which in turn reduces the assistance given by parents. There is no active parents' committee within the school. As a result, there is a reduced level of communication between parents and teachers.

Summary of integration analysis

To conclude this section on integration, it is possible to note that the six-year system is perceived by most teachers as an efficient framework, which influences the status of both principals and teachers and creates a pleasant learning environment. In addition, the

framework has forced the principals to clarify the goals of the six-year school and their expectations from the teachers, with the emphasis on academic achievement.

From the analysis of the survey findings, an overall picture is received whereby the principals and teachers indicate the advantages and disadvantages of the six-year school. However, the teachers and some principals agree that despite some of the disadvantages of the six-year system, they far prefer the six-year framework. The advantages of a six-year system far outweigh the disadvantages. However, the configuration discussed in the conclusion is the preferred model. By the use of case studies, it was possible to gather greater information regarding the configuration of a six-year framework as this was not clear from the survey findings. This was necessary to make a generalisation of the findings (Bassey 1984, Ben-Yehoshua 1999). The values that were received for most of the parameters for the three specific schools are close to one another without there being much difference in the value received from the 23 survey school principals. However, there are differences amongst the three case study schools regarding the collegial management style and the impact on the pupils' parameter. The difference indicates the fact that the ORT2 HSP involves her teachers in decision making as well as the various areas dealing with pedagogical matters. In addition, there is more co-operation and teamwork amongst the teachers than in the other two schools. The finding from the JHS regarding the three case studies shows that there is almost no difference between the three values to those values received from the 23 principals of the survey, regarding the impact on integration. The findings which were received from the three high school principals, show very little difference amongst the three schools and the 23 survey schools. However, in the ORT1 school it is possible to note a slightly lower level than all the other schools regarding the impact on integration. The case studies, which also include a limited number of pupils, clearly point to a six-year framework whereby the principals prefer a six-year system with two separately managed schools. Due to the fact that the HSP management style is bureaucratic and the JHSP management style is collegial, the principals prefer separately managed autonomous schools on the same campus. The pupils prefer split-site schools, where there is contact only with pupils of a similar age range. However, the teachers prefer six-year comprehensive schools with joint management, with one principal for the six-years, based on the same campus.

Regarding the first research question (R.Q) of whether the six-year system has brought benefits to the school, and what factors are perceived to have most impact on integration, the principals and teachers' perception is that the six-year school has in fact achieved the aims it set for itself, which were social integration in the junior-high school, low dropping out rate and academic achievement in the high school. In the junior-high school the emphasis is on social integration and moral values, whilst in the high school the emphasis is on academic achievement. In order to achieve a low dropping out rate, both principals and teachers perceive that it is important for both school sections to maintain a high level of contact and interaction between principals from both sections, as well as amongst the teachers.

Regarding the integration factors perceived by the principals and teachers, Table 6.1 presents the factors perceived to have had the most impact on integration.

Factor	JHSP	HSP	JHST	HST
Impact on the pupil	High	Low		
The effect of change	High	High		High
Impact on learning conducive atmosphere	High	Low	High	Low
Impact on the teachers	Low	High	Low	
Impact on integration	High	High	High	High

Table 6.1: factors perceived by the principals and teachers to have had most impact on integration.

Principals' perception

The analysis of the above findings indicates the fact that the JHSP place high emphasis on the transition from the JHS to the HS, which in turn has a high impact on integration (Israelshvilli 1997, Yellin 1997). The JHSP view the importance of the pupil's social needs as being paramount in his/her absorption within the six-year framework (Chen and Adler 1997). JHSP place a high emphasis on the dropping rate of pupils during the transition from the JHS to the HS, which in turn has a high impact on integration. The JHSP also place a high emphasis on a learning conducive atmosphere and the enhancement of school culture (Anderson 1982, Friedman 1988). They view this as having a high impact on integration. This is opposed to the HSP who place high emphasis on the teacher's status (Beheri 1997) and the principal's role (Bernbaum 1996), which

they view as being paramount on the impact on integration (Lortie 1987). The above findings indicate that the JHSP perceive that the factors that relate to pupils, as well as teamwork, have a high impact on integration. The HSP perceive the factors that relate to the principal and teachers as having a high impact on integration.

Teachers' perception

The JHS and HS teachers perceive the principal/teacher relationship as having a low impact on integration, as opposed to the staff morale factor which has a high impact on integration. This finding indicates the fact that both teachers and principals perceive a high impact of staff morale on integration (Zohar 2000, Chen 1997). In addition, the analysis of the findings received from the survey and the three case studies, indicate the following advantages and disadvantages of the six-year school, perceived by the principals and teachers, regarding integration. Tables 6.2a and 6.2b present the advantages and disadvantages of the six-year school perceived by the principals and teachers respectively.

Advantages
Continuity of subjects taught.
Maximised learning time.
Flexibility of the curriculum.
Same educational methodology.
Prevention of trauma as a result of transition.
Reduced dropping out during the transition.
The pupil acclimatises himself to his/her learning environment.
JHST have a sense of commitment and responsibility towards the weaker pupils.
A number of schools emphasise the combination of academic achievement with a positive learning climate, in order to improve school culture.
The six-year framework provides opportunities for teachers to be involved in management positions.
There would be no integration without the six-year framework. Continuity enhances social and pedagogical integration.
In a number of schools the six-year framework provides opportunity for the pupil's personal development.

Table 6.2a: The advantages of the six-year school.

Disadvantages
Lack of social activities has a negative affect on the social environment of the JHS. Academic achievement from the HS has a bearing on the JHS whereby the pressure to succeed begins early on, at the expense of social activities.
Lack of co-operation between the principals and teachers of both sections, has a negative effect on integration.
In the majority of schools there is only social integration in the JHS whereby in the HS emphasis is placed only on academic achievement.
In the six-year framework the teachers need to be able to teach a wide range of subjects within the two sections of the school.
Teachers in the JHS do not prepare the pupils for the pedagogical approach of the HS.
There is lack of versatility amongst teachers who teach in both the JHS and HS.
There is a negative effect of older pupils on younger pupils who have contact with each other as a result of being on the same campus.
Different management styles of the JHSP and HSP has a negative effect on integration.
Teachers don't accept the situation whereby weak pupils study with stronger pupils. In a number of schools, there is a high drop out rate of the weaker pupils as a result of this policy.
Lack of passing on the six-year school goals by the principal, has a negative effect on integration.
The weaker pupil's reputation stays with him/her when moving to the HS which is on the same campus.
There is no integration between weak and strong pupils within the six-year school.
In a number of schools there is a movement towards pushing weaker pupils out in order to raise the success rate of the matriculation exams.
Lack of one subject coordinator for the six-year school has a bearing on certain subjects being repeated again in the HS.
Due to the emphasis on academic achievement in the six-year school there is a level of neglect regarding the pupil's personal development at the critical stage of puberty.

Table 6.2b: The disadvantages of the six-year school perceived by the principals and teachers.

Tables 6.2a and 6.2b represent the advantages and disadvantages of the six-year school perceived by the principals and teachers of the six-year schools. These findings match the advantages and disadvantages, which were presented in chapter two of the literature review regarding integration. The analysis of the above findings received from the survey and the case studies, indicates that the majority of principals prefer administrative separation of the JHS and HS, whilst some of them prefer to have a physical separation of the two schools by the use of two separate campuses (split-site schools). The only contact is as a feeder school. The principals claim that the six-year school causes unnecessary hardship within the school (Beheri 1997).

The JHSP are not interested in lowering their status and a number of them are not interested in being part of the ORT network. Consequently, they are against the six-year framework. The HSP are not interested in joint co-operation with the JHS due to the various approaches and pedagogical methods that the M.O.E operates in the JHS. This goes against the approach of the ORT high school system. The teachers on the other hand, prefer a six-year framework without administrative or physical separation, due to the many possibilities for career advancement.

The next section deals with the analysis of the findings which relate to management style.

Management style

The discussion of the management style received from the survey and the three case studies can be seen in the following analysis. The analysis is based on the findings presented in chapters four and five which relate to the styles of leadership and management mentioned in the literature review. The following analyses the collegial management style perceived by the principals and teachers.

Collegial management style

The generally collegial management style of the junior-high school principals points to the fact that the teachers are actively involved in decision making (Bush 1995, Davis 1983). The school tends to determine a policy and makes decisions through a process of discussion, which leads to a consensus, with power being divided amongst several of the members of staff who understand the goals of the school (Inbar 2000). In addition, the teachers perceive that there is a certain level of a common value system. The collegial management style generally perceived by the junior-high school principals points to the fact that teachers are involved in running the school (Campbell and Southworth 1993), and their staff work in a school with a cohesive culture and whose beliefs about society and education are common to all the participants (Noble and Pym 1970). On the other hand, the HSP perception regarding collegial management style, reflects the relatively low level of co-operation between the principal and members of staff regarding decision-making (Bush 1995). The teachers tend not to be part of the decision making process and the staff does not have official representation in all the decision making bodies.

The collegial parameter points to the fact that the ORT3 HST, place a lower value on this parameter compared to the ORT2, and ORT1 HST. This is an indication of the fact that the ORT3 HST do not view their principal's management style as being collegial. It is important to note that the ORT2 HST view the fact that their principal's management style allows them to be involved in decision making. This approach is contrary to the ORT3 and ORT1 schools where there is a low level of teacher involvement in decision making. In other words, it is possible to note that there are two different levels of collegial management style according to the principals and teachers perceptions. A high level of collegial management style perceived by the JHSP, as opposed to a low level perceived by the HSP.

The following analyses the cultural management style perceived by the principals and teachers.

Cultural management style

The findings lead to the point that the cultural management style of the junior-high school principals received a high value rating. These principals perceive the fact that shared school meanings are reflected by the values, beliefs and norms of individuals within the school (Bush 1995, Schein 1985, Beare 1989). They also perceive the fact that symbols and rituals reflect the school culture, as opposed to a formal structure (Hoy and Turner 1992). The findings show that the junior-high schools emphasise social and cultural matters in conjunction with collegial co-operation between principals and teachers. The cultural management style, perceived by the high school principals, shows that little emphasis is placed on social and cultural issues, as opposed to the high level perceived by the junior-high school principals. The school does not focus on the values, beliefs and shared norms of the members of staff (Morgan 1986). On the other hand, it shows loyalty of the teachers to their department (Wallace and Hall 1994).

The finding also indicates that the school is not typically expressed through its rituals and ceremonies (Beare 1989, Martin and Powers 1983), due to the fact that there is more than one culture in the school (Sergiovanni 1984, Burnes 1996, Fullan 1992, Schneider and Barsoux 1997). The findings perceived by the teachers, points to the fact that in the JHS there is a high level of awareness regarding innovation (Caldwell and Spinks 1992, Hall 1988). This is due to the cultural management style of the JHSP. In those findings it was shown that the value of the cultural management style perceived by the JHS teachers is higher than the HS teachers. The JHST perceive that the learning environment in the school is pleasant and conducive to a positive atmosphere. In addition, a positive environment exists amongst the teachers (Louis and Miles 1990).

From the findings of this factor it is possible to see that the JHSP encourage the teachers to develop innovative ideas (Smith and Anderson 1989, Hopkins 1994, Stoll and Fink 1994), more so than in the HS. The teachers in both schools have inaugurated new teaching methods within the school framework. The JHST feel that it is possible to execute greater creativity within their school, as opposed to the HST. The finding points

to the fact that the teachers feel that the principal tries to help them in their work and advance them professionally, as well as obtaining extra financial benefits for the members of staff (Pfeffer 1981). In addition, the teachers in both schools have initiated the use of group work (Leithwood and Jantzi 1990), in order to promote both weak and strong pupils working together.

The teachers in the HS perceive that they participate in in-service training courses on the latest methodology, as well as taking part in educational processes within the school system. The findings of this factor are viewed as being positive, together with team-work and an open culture, in order to cope with changes (Hord 1987, Fullan 1991).

The cultural parameter received a lower value from the ORT3 HST compared to the ORT2 and ORT1 high schools. This is an indication of the fact that in ORT3 the HST have fewer opportunities to implement new concepts compared to ORT1 and ORT2. This matches the finding of the open school culture and innovative parameter (Friedman 1988), which was received from the ORT3 JHST. In other words, it is possible to note that there are two different levels of cultural management style according to the principals and teachers. This point was previously mentioned regarding collegial management style.

The following analyses the ambiguity management style perceived by the principals and teachers.

Ambiguity management style

The ambiguity management style, which received a high value from the junior-high school principals, points to the fact that a process of change is taking place (Fullan 1992, Glatter 1982). This change can be explained by the process of integrating the junior-high school with the high school, which in turn creates ambiguity in the principal's status and function (Yassur 1978). The principals have difficulty in planning priorities with regard to running the school (Bush 1995). The high average regarding ambiguity shows that the junior-high school principals view the aims of the school in a very vague form (Cohen and March 1986, Bell 1989). This is possibly due to the involvement of ORT in the junior-high school, which in itself is a new concept to many of the principals. It is also possible to say that the principal's work structure is undefined as well as co-operation within the six-year system (Beheri 1997). From the findings of the value of the ambiguity

style of management, it is possible to see that the school is divided into groups which have internal contacts, based on common values and goals (Pettigrew 1989), as well as the fact that sub-units are seen as autonomous groups (Weick 1976).

The high value of the ambiguity style indicates that the school does not have clearly defined objectives (Bell 1989). This may be due to the fact that teachers are able to identify their own educational purposes and to behave and function accordingly (Greenfield 1973, Hodgkinson 1993). In addition to this, it is important to mention the fact that common goals and values provide unity for specific groups within the school system - loose coupling mentioned by Weick (1976). The principals and teachers perceive that collegial and cultural styles are possibly needed when there is ambiguity within the system (Bush 1995). This is in order to provide an atmosphere of co-operation whereby all the individuals contribute to the system, which reduces the level of ambiguity (Friedman 1988). The high school principals perceive the ambiguity style at a lower level than the junior-high school principals. However, it is still a relatively high level. This relatively high value is due to the fact that the framework has been changed to that of a six-year system and it is difficult to decide on priorities within the school system. In the school there are no clear objectives and the teachers are in a "fuzzy" situation (Cohen and March 1986). Shared values and goals serve specific groups of teachers, as in the junior-high school (Hoyle 1986).

The findings perceived by the teachers indicate that conflict and stress can be seen in the inter-personal relationships amongst the teachers, which in turn is influenced by the social and physical environment (Hoy and Tarter 1992, Moos and Insel 1974). The teachers perceive that the atmosphere and morale of the teachers is relatively low. The school culture is connected to the social environment, which is made up of social interaction amongst pupils and members of staff (Friedman 1989, Glover 1997). Stress and conflict causes inter-personal relationships amongst the teachers to be of a low level, which in turn influences the school culture (Gibton 2000). Stress and conflict relates to ambiguity style and is seen as a negative influence on the analysis of the collegial style. An important point here is that the ambiguity management style which received a relatively high value in both schools, more or less fits in with the value received by the teachers regarding stress and conflict. This is a result of ambiguity and the vague situation of combining the two schools together (Beheri 1997).

In the case of stress and conflict amongst the teachers it is possible to point out that there are no shared beliefs of all the workers in the organisation (Pettigrew 1989, Conway 1985), which brings us to organisational culture, which includes symbols and atmosphere (Trice and Beyer 1983, Beare 1989). Due to the stress and conflicts amongst members of staff, a low level of shared norms as well as values and rituals are incorporated into the school ethos (Schein 1984). When new teachers enter the school they have to get used to the culture, as well as the school accepting new members of staff, as mentioned by Friedman (1989).

The findings indicate that staff culture consists of professional ideology and power struggles between teachers (Woods 1983). It is interesting to note that this fact of stress and conflict, which was received by the JHST, has the same value as that received by the JHSP. This points to the fact that both teachers and principals in the JHS have a similar opinion regarding the tension that exists between the two schools. On the other hand, the value that was received by the HSP for this factor is higher than that received by the HST. This indicates the fact that the HSP view the tension that exists amongst themselves and the teachers as being of a high level. The inter-personal relationships amongst the members of staff are negative, therefore there is a level of tension and conflict, which in turn causes a fuzzy and unstable culture (Schein 1997). The stress that exists amongst certain members of staff is a result of the number of hours that they spend in the school as being far too many. The teachers in both schools maintain that there is pressure and disagreements amongst the teachers, in addition to the regular workload pressure. They work on an individual basis, as opposed to being part of a team, which in turn causes resistance to any individual initiative (Friedman 1988). There is no supervision and inspection of their professional work. They are only occasionally able to choose individual methods of teaching.

The following analyses the bureaucratic management style perceived by the principals and teachers.

Bureaucratic management style

The bureaucratic management style which rated a low level indicates that JHSP do not operate through imposing order and obedience to the rules in a hierarchical structure

(Ferguson 1980, Weber 1989, Livingstone 1984). This style also points out that decisions made, are not imposed on the staff. The low value of the bureaucratic style perceived by the JHSP shows that personal relationships are more important than the distance between teachers and principals (Bush 1995, Gonen and Zaki 1999). It is important to add the fact that a certain degree of accountability ultimately exists regarding junior-high school principals and the ORT network, which is responsible for providing learning resources and pedagogical aids (Inbar 2000).

On the other hand, the high level perceived by the HSP regarding bureaucratic style, points to the fact that in order to promote the school, decisions have to be imposed on the staff as well as the principal having authority over the staff and responsibility for external relationships (Bush 1995). This management style is perceived by the HSP as a style by which decisions and behaviour patterns are made without any personal initiative (Robbins 1999). The structure of the contact between the teachers and the principal are formal and completely ignore inter-personal relationships (Gaziel 1998). High school principals view themselves as effective principals in that they emphasise loyalty to the rules and standard operation of defined areas of authority (Inbar 2000). They perceive the bureaucratic style of management as being of a high value due to the fact that as the school becomes more complex and the size increases (Livingston 1984), a more formal system of regulation is used (Bush 1995). The increase in size of the school is due to the amalgamation of the junior-high school with the high school, which in turn has caused the evolvement of a more complex system. High school principals perceive the bureaucratic style as being the most effective in controlling people (Weber 1989). This high level shows that the hierarchical authority structure, whereby people in authority are responsible to those in command for performing their duty satisfactorily, is part of the six-year framework (Beheri 1997).

The finding of the bureaucratic style received from the teachers matches the finding that was received in connection with bureaucratic management style in the junior-high school. The HST perceive that the HSP reflect a domineering and authoritarian management style as well as authoritarian climate (Friedman 1988) more so than the JHSP. On the other hand the JHST perceive that the JHSP create a situation where the teachers can develop and implement innovative ideas (Friedman 1989). The findings that were received by the HST matches the first component, which was mentioned in the work of Friedman (1989),

direction and emphasis on academic achievement. The principal makes his own decisions regarding the curriculum and dictates to the teachers what is to be done, criticizes them and pushes the teachers towards higher achievement. The principal plans the teachers work schedule (Weber 1989).

Opposed to this concept are the findings that were received by the JHST where it was seen that the JHSP impose a less bureaucratic and authoritarian style (Gonen and Zaki 1999), which relates to the fourth component of Friedman (1989) – enthusiasm together with devotion. JHST perceive that the JHSP want to advance the school and provide a dynamic personal example, which in turn causes the teachers to develop new ideas, as well as following the principals (Cashty 2000). The findings that were received by the HST point to the fact that was mentioned by Friedman (1989) and that is that the principal has a rigid and set calendar with clear defined subjects to be dealt with. On the other hand, the JHST relate to the third component of Friedman – consideration together with empathy. The JHSP show warmth and friendship towards the teachers. They support the teachers in their work and help them with their own personal problems. This is done with the aim of improving their working environment.

High school teachers relate to the second component of Friedman, which is distance and organisational discipline, strict management control that can be explained by formal behaviour, which is totally inflexible (Lunga 1985). In order to speak to the principal it is necessary to make an appointment. The principal keeps his/her distance from the staff (Bush 1995). JHST perceive that their principals reflect a system of greater flexibility and less discipline, as opposed to the HSP. They are close to the third component, consideration together with empathy, and the fourth component, enthusiasm together with devotion (Friedman 1989), which are considered positive factors.

The following analyses the political management style perceived by the principals and teachers.

Political management style

The low level of the political management style perceived by the JHSP indicates that there is likely to be almost no conflict between the teachers and principal (Hoyle 1986) of the JHS. In situations where there is conflict, problems are dealt with by the use of

negotiation. The low average that this style received points to the fact that there is high probability that all the members share the same values and goals (Bolman and Deal 1984). Also, the relationship between the small groups is not strong, as opposed to strong contact amongst most of the teachers (Becher and Kogan 1992). On the other hand, political style which is perceived as very high amongst HSP points to the fact that conflicts amongst the staff are solved through negotiation and the conflicts prevent the possibility of co-operation, as expressed in the collegial style. The high level of the political style perceived by the HSP shows that a micro political situation is strong in the six-year system, as well as a potential power struggle amongst the teachers (Glatter 1982, Beheri 1997). The reason for this is due to the inclusion of the junior-high school within the high school system and the inclusion of additional members of staff in the system. Groups of teachers have created social relationships in order to promote the group's interests (Wilkinson 1987).

The factor, which relates to the political style received from the teachers, indicates that there is a certain lack of interpersonal relationships where the main aim of the school is to achieve the set goals (Hoyle 1986). The teachers perceive that the staff meetings centre around the principal's report and that there is pressure in their work as teachers (Becher and Kogan 1992). Some of the teachers form exclusive groups and cliques amongst themselves (Fershtman 1997). In addition, the teachers' response reflects the fact that the principal's management style is close to that of a political style, whereby the principal occasionally examines the professional standards of the teachers, as well as the relationship between the teachers (Bolman and Deal 1984). As a result of this, the teachers invest more time and energy in the school, especially in their own time. The teachers indicate that the principals also report directly to the school inspector, as well as updating the teachers accordingly.

The following analyses the subjective management style perceived by the principals and teachers.

Subjective management style

The subjective management style, which received a low level from the JHSP, points to the fact that individual goals are less important than the school's goals (Greenfield 1973). It also shows that the members of staff as individuals do not reflect different values and

tend not to interpret the school's activities differently. On the other hand, the level perceived by the HSP regarding subjective management style is higher than the JHSP. This indicates that a small number of teachers in the high school view the school's aims in the same light as their own individual interests (Greenfield 1973). A small group of teachers see their own personal interests as being of most importance (Hodgkinson 1993). A number of teachers are able to deal with problems using their own methods and decisions.

The findings perceived by the teachers, indicate that the teachers have a completely free hand, as well as being able to initiate new ideas to a far greater extent than the principal (Hoyle 1986). This finding does not entirely match that received by the principals relating to a subjective management style. It is possible to maintain that on one hand the teachers view high autonomy, while on the other, the principals maintain that there is almost no subjective style of management, which provides autonomy. The teachers also indicated that they tend to be on their own as opposed to being part of a group.

Summary of the management style analysis

In order to examine the difference between the JHS and the HS regarding management style, the following summarises the difference between the two schools.

JHS vs HS

The findings of the HSP, as opposed to those of the JHSP, tend to perceive the political and bureaucratic style as a dominant factor with a high value. Collegial and cultural management styles amongst HSP received a very low value. The value of the subjective style is seen by the HSP as non-dominant, with a low level. Also, both junior-high and high school principals perceive that there is ambiguity in the six-year system where the value of the ambiguity style is lower than the value received by the JHSP.

The difference between the two sections of the school regarding management style can be described as follows. It is possible to note that the JHSP perceive the collegial and cultural management styles as being the most dominant within the six-year system, with the emphasis on social cohesion (Hargreaves 1995). On the other hand, the HSP perceive political and bureaucratic management styles as being the most dominant within the six-year system, with slight emphasis being on social control. Both sets of principals perceive

the fact that there is a certain level of ambiguity in the six-year system, as shown in Figure 6.1.

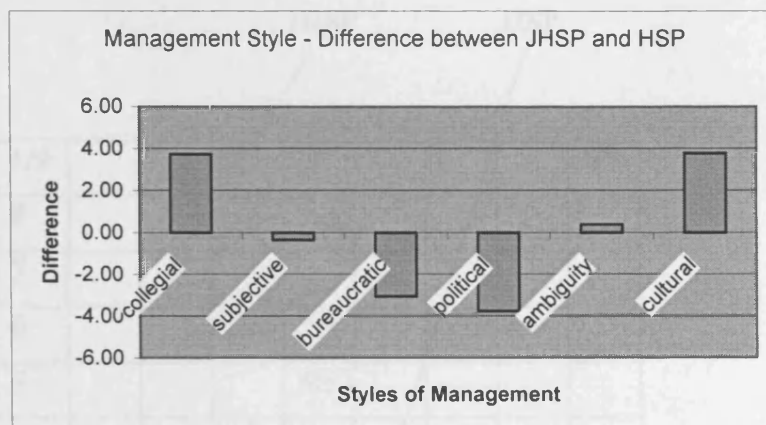


Figure 6.1: The difference between the JHSP and HSP regarding management styles.

The HSP characterised as high in initiating structure (Cheng 1991), could be described in terms such as assigning groups members to particular tasks – task oriented style (Blake and Mouton 1985, Robbins 1999, Gonen and Zaki 1999). On the other hand, the JHSP characterised as high in consideration, could describe principals who help subordinates with personal problems, are friendly and approachable, and treat all subordinates as equals – people oriented style (Fraser 1982), as shown in Figure 6.2.

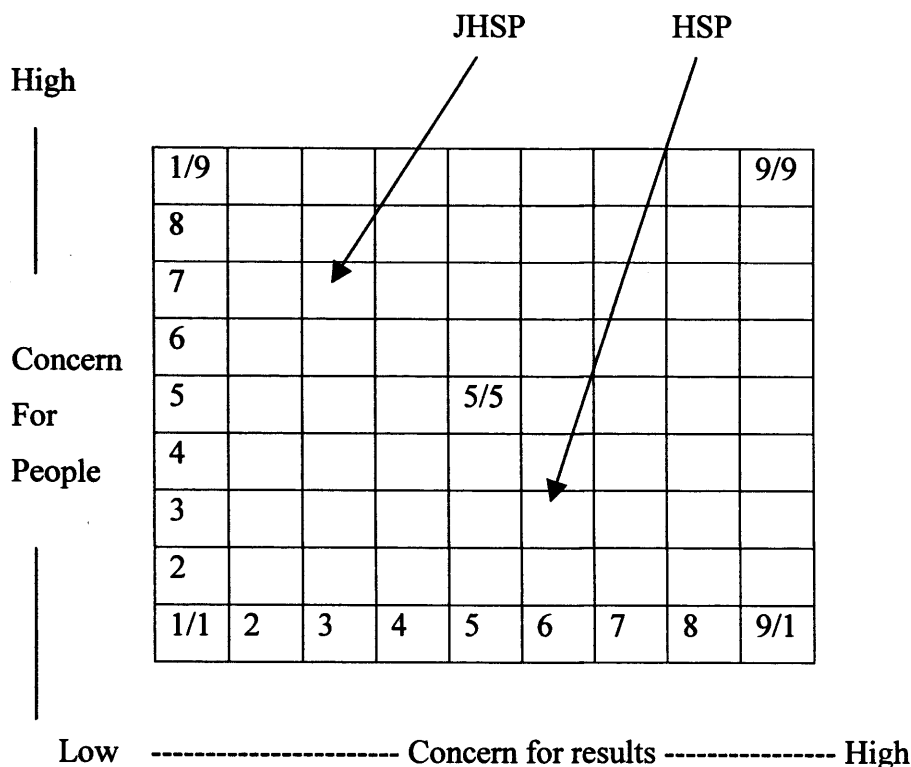


Figure 6.2: The JHSP and HSP leadership styles.

The findings received from the teachers regarding management style show a high level of collegial management style, which emphasises the principal's enthusiasm together with devotion and teamwork (Kotter 1990), with almost no alienation, as mentioned by Friedman (1989). The teachers contend that the principal puts a great deal of effort into getting matters moving, advancing the school and providing a dynamic personal example (Gonen and Zaki 1999, Harvey-Jones 1988, Zaleznick 1992). In the HS there is a similar contention but at a slightly lower level, due to the bureaucratic management style which was found in the principals of the high schools.

The high level of teamwork, which was indicated at by the teachers, points to the fact that in the JHS there is a high level of cohesion amongst the members of staff. In addition there is a high level of morale and high task implementation within the JHS (Bush 1995, Blake and Mouton 1985, Gonen and Zaki 1999). This finding matches the finding that was received by the principals regarding teamwork. The principal is less aware of an emphasis on achievement and production. The teachers also indicated the fact that there

is an opportunity for professional advancement, due to the collegial management style of the principal, which facilitates in-service training and advancement within the school (Friedman 1988, Degani 1997).

The findings received from the case studies point to the fact that the management style in ORT3 HS is more bureaucratic and authoritarian compared to that of ORT1 and ORT2. The culture/family parameter in ORT3 shows a lower level than that of ORT2 and ORT1. This points to the fact that in ORT3 less emphasis is placed on innovative and modern teaching methods which the teachers can develop within the school system. The high school teachers findings presented are very similar to the findings received from the 23 survey schools. Once again, it is also possible to note that there are differences between ORT3, and the other two schools regarding management style of the HSP.

On the other hand, the finding received from the junior-high school indicates the fact that in ORT3 there is a fuzzy situation regarding six-year continuity, more so than in ORT1 and ORT2. It is possible to add that the ORT3 JHSP uses a bureaucratic style of management to a far greater extent than the ORT1 and ORT2 JHSP. Due to the relatively high political value, there are various groups of teachers with different interests to those of the school. The findings of the three schools indicate the fact that there is almost no difference between the findings that were received from the 23 schools used in the survey and the three case study schools. In other words, high values were given by the JHSP to collegial, ambiguity and cultural management styles, as opposed to low values given to subjective, political and bureaucratic styles.

On the other hand, the findings from the high school point to the fact that in ORT2 there is less bureaucracy, less use of political tools and pressure groups amongst teachers, as well as less uncertainty regarding the six-year continuity. In other words, in ORT2 there is less concern regarding the fuzzy situation, as opposed to ORT1 and ORT3. The aims of the ORT2 school were clearly defined by the principal, as opposed to the other two schools. In addition, the principals and teachers' perception points to the fact that the difference of the management styles perceived by the JHSP and HSP causes problems relating to integration. The collegial management style of both principals has to be the same in order to produce benefits for the school, as well as advancing the process of

integration. Once again, there is correlation between the findings of the 23 schools of the survey and the three case study schools.

From the findings it is possible to compare the findings received by the JHSP and the JHST regarding management style. The comparison is represented in Figure 6.3.

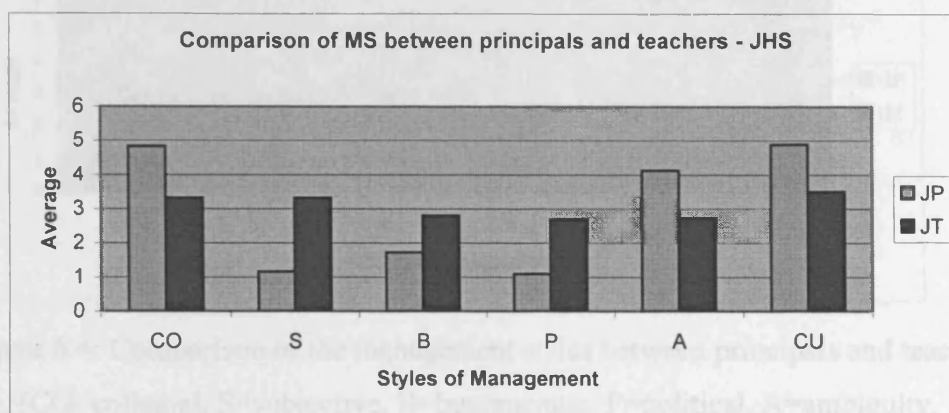


Figure 6.3: Comparison of the management styles between principals and teachers of the JHS. (CO=collegial, S=subjective, B=bureaucratic, P=political, A=ambiguity, CU=cultural).

From Figure 6.3 it is possible to note that the JHSP gave a high value to collegial, cultural and ambiguity management styles. This was contrary to the teachers of the JHS. In other words, the JHST do not place emphasis on the ambiguity of the six-year school in the same way as the principals view this. In addition, according to the JHSP, the teachers are actively involved in decision-making. This is contrary to the opinion of the JHST. The values that were received by the JHST regarding subjective, bureaucratic and political management styles are higher than the values received by the JHSP. These findings point to the fact that the JHST feel that there is conflict between them and the principal. There is a lack of shared norms and values. The teachers view a high level of bureaucracy, far more so than what the principals view. The reason for this difference could be the fact that the principals want to give the impression that they are very bureaucratic in order to play the game of effective principals (Friedman 1993). The findings from the JHST indicate that there is a conflict between themselves and the principals, as well as shared values and norms.

Another comparison of the findings received by the HSP and the HST regarding management style is presented in Figure 6.4.

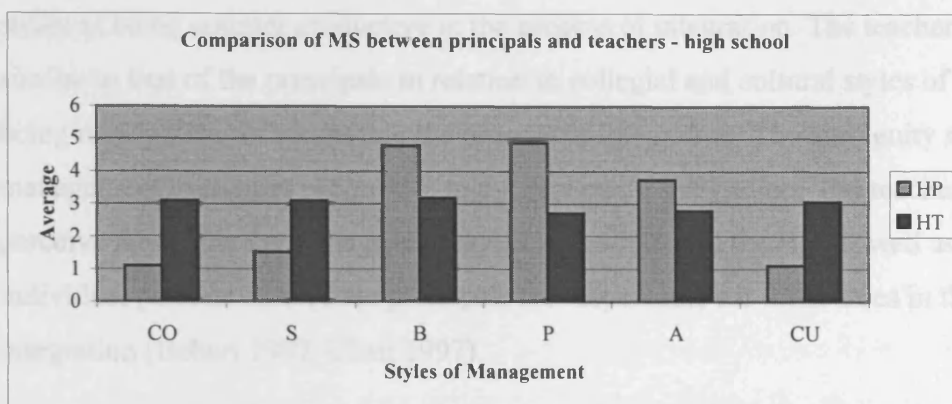


Figure 6.4: Comparison of the management styles between principals and teachers of the HS. (CO=collegial, S=subjective, B=bureaucratic, P=political, A=ambiguity, CU=cultural).

From Figure 6.4 it is possible to see that there is a marked difference between the HST and the HSP regarding bureaucratic, political and ambiguity management styles. In other words, according to the HSP strong emphasis is placed on a bureaucratic and political management style, in order to run the school. Coupled with this is the fact that the JHSP see a higher level of uncertainty regarding the six-year framework. The HST do not view this uncertainty in the same manner. The findings point to the fact that the HST view collegial, subjective and cultural management styles as being the dominant style. The HSP view the collegial, subjective and cultural management styles as having less dominance. In other words, the HST are under the impression that they are more involved in decision making and team work. This is contrary to the principal's point of view. The HST do not view the level of bureaucracy as high as the HSP. In addition, the HST do not place importance on team work and shared norms and values in the same way as the HSP. The HST indicate that problem solving in the school should be conducted through negotiation, but not on the same level as indicated by the principals.

To sum up the management style analysis with regard to the second R.Q., which relates to the impact of the management style on the process of integration, it appears that the JHSP perceive the collegial management style as being a positive factor in promoting the process of integration. This is opposed to the bureaucratic management style perceived

by the high school principals. Due to the fact that the two principals management styles are so completely different, the integration process has slowed down, as can be seen in the ORT3 school. A minority of principals perceive ambiguity and political management styles as being counter productive in the process of integration. The teachers perception is similar to that of the principals in relation to collegial and cultural styles of management being responsible for promoting the process of integration. The ambiguity style of management is counter productive to the process of integration. The teachers also perceive that different management styles in the JHS and the HS, as well as different individual personalities of the principals are responsible for difficulties in the process of integration (Beheri 1997, Chen 1997).

The following analyses the findings perceived by the principals and teachers regarding school culture.

School Culture

The discussion of school culture parameters received from the survey and the three case studies, can be seen in the following analysis. The analysis is based on the findings presented in chapters four and five.

Social control and cohesion

These findings point to the fact that in the high school emphasis is placed on teaching and learning and not to be distracted from the subject and the point of studying (Lieberman and Miller 1984). However, the HSP view social control (Hargreaves 1995) as a factor of lower importance than in the JHS and place less emphasis on this factor. These findings point to the fact that the six-year framework has encouraged the clear definition of roles and authority amongst those members of staff in the HS. This is due to the influence of the JHS, which demands clear identification of roles (Friedman 1993, Gaziel 1993). The JHSP see a need for a change in the physical structure of the school itself, in order to incorporate more dynamic and challenging subject learning (Autolongy 1997). The JHSP view this change in the physical structure as a necessity for implementing integration (Ben-Peretz 1995). The HSP do not completely disregard this approach, but place less emphasis on its importance. The JHSP view the modular and linear approach in the six-year framework as a means of advancing integration in both schools, which in turn allows for continuity in the high school (Cashty 2000, Autolongy 1997, Degani 1997, Amir 1997). Both sets of principals view the six-year continuity as a way of providing the principal with means to control power in the school (Handy 1987, Inbar 2000), and at the same time improve the process of integration.

From the findings, it is possible to see that the JHSP receive information from those members of staff who remain in close contact with the principals (Handy 1987). This is done in order to know what is going on in the school. It is important to emphasise the fact that not all information received from this group of people is reliable, due to the conflicting interests of certain members of staff (Chen 1997, Gibton 2000, Ball 1987). This in turn may lead the principal to come to incorrect conclusions (Friedman 1992).

The teachers place school culture in the same position as the principals with a lower level of social cohesion for the high school. In both of the positions in Hargreaves model, it is possible to see that the JHS emphasise social cohesion more than the middle value, as

opposed to a lower level of social control in the HS. In other words, there is emphasis on school achievement, as well as pressure on the pupils to receive good grades in the JHS. On the other hand, there is considerably higher cohesion between the staff and students as well as a relaxed carefree and cozy atmosphere (Inbar 2000). The combination of the two factors indicates that the junior-high schools maintain a high level of discipline and achievement together with a comfortable atmosphere of culture. The findings also point to the fact that staff meetings are conducted in a rigid formal framework and the principal examines the professional standards of the teachers (Bush 1995, Friedman 1993). According to the findings it is possible to see that the principal, as well as the school inspector, is interested in the teacher's work and finds it necessary for the teacher to take part in in-service training (Degani 1997).

The social control parameter points to a low value perceived by the ORT1 and ORT3 HSP, as opposed to a high value perceived by the ORT2 HSP. This is an indication that the ORT2 principal places particularly high emphasis on academic achievement both amongst pupils and teachers, with an extremely positive learning environment (Schneider 1997). On the other hand, in ORT1, almost no emphasis is placed on a positive learning atmosphere. The finding regarding social cohesion points to the fact that both JHS and HS principals place great importance on social relationships so that they are satisfying, supportive and sociable within the social cohesion domain of school life (Hargreaves 1995). It is interesting to note that the value of this factor is higher than the value of the social control factor. This applies to both sections of the school. This points to the fact that both principals place great importance on enhancing and fostering social relationships between the two schools (Inbar 1997, Chen and Adler 1997). According to Hargreaves' model it is possible to see the position of both schools in Figure 6.5.

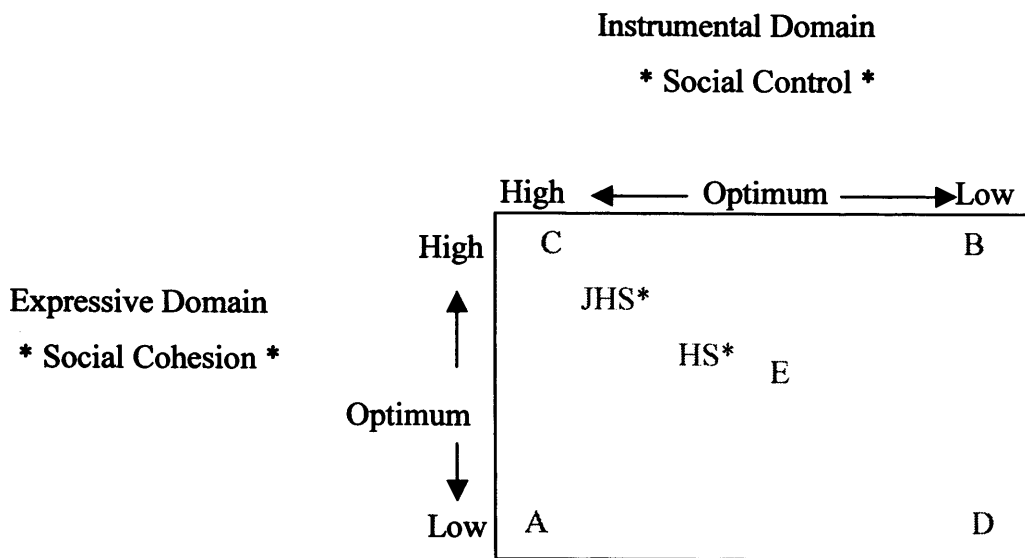


Figure 6.5: The position of both schools.

The findings received from the teachers is suitable for the area between C and D. In the model there is a situation of social cohesion, which is higher in the JHS, as opposed to low social cohesion in the HS. The findings of the JHS point to the fact that in the JHS there is a relaxed, cozy and carefree atmosphere. In addition, it places quite high emphasis on informal, friendly teacher – principal relationships (cultural style). Due to the lack of social control in the JHS there is very little work pressure. Academic goals are easily neglected. Social cohesion goals of life skills adjustment, take prime importance. As a result of the relaxed culture within the school there is an overall atmosphere of contentment and peace (Mortimore 1988, Rutter 1979, Prosser 1999). The junior-high school, according to this model is close to the ideal school, (point C), which gives a certain advantage to the JHS regarding social control. This finding points to the fact that the six-year change has affected the versatility of the school in adjusting to social and cultural change in the JHS (Weick 1976, Huberman 1993, Little 1990). This has meant that the process of integration has not been harmed. Teachers who work in the JH schools improve and advance the process of integration. This finding shows that the six-year continuity has expanded social issues in both schools in relation to achievement and study (Blake and Mouton 1985, Gaziel 1993, Robbins 2000).

Similarly, the principals view the six-year system as being responsible for joint rituals, ceremonies and the creation of joint social events and programmes (Beare 1989, Trice

1983, Hoyle 1986, Schein 1985). The six-year framework has also been responsible for creating a new strata of roles in both schools (Friedman 1988). This allows for a higher number of management positions, which in turn strengthens the contact between the two schools, as well as improving the process of integration (Degani 1997). From this finding it is possible to learn that HST view the six-year continuity as a tool for the continuity of educational processes that began in the JHS, and need to be completed in the HS (Ben-Peretz 1995, Ben-Ari 1978).

On the other hand, the principals perceive that there is a need for administrating the running of the schools as two separate unites, and not under one administration (matches the integration analysis). This is the consensus of the JHSP who perceive that there is a definite advantage of administrative separation for the success for integration (Degani 1997). On the other hand, the principals perceive that the disadvantage is that autonomy does not allow for successful continuity and integration (Beheri, Gordon, Chen 1997) with a separate JHS which is not part of a six-year system. From this perception it is possible to learn that the six-year framework is responsible for causing tension between the two schools, especially in the first few years of integration (Beheri 1997). During the initial years there is pressure and rivalry between the two schools due to the forced imposition of uniting two separate units. The Ministry of Education has initiated this policy of integration.

The teachers' perception points to the fact that the six-year framework encourages joint dialogue between the teachers and pupils (Bar-Oz 1997). This is important for developing social relationships, a convenient school culture as well as a pleasant learning environment with a sense of belonging to the school, which in turn advances the process of integration (Friedman 1993, Mitchell 1983). An important result of this finding is the fact that the HSP view the six-year framework as being responsible for lowering their area of authority (Beheri 1997). In most schools they see themselves as working for the HSP and feel inferior to those independent JHSP. Occasionally, this situation results in a lack of co-operation between the two principals, which in turn, effects the process of integration.

The JHS teachers place the school between points B and D in Hargreaves model. This location indicates that the pupil is always in the centre and that the pupils are happy

within the school framework (Woods 1983, Gordon 1997, Yellin 1997, Salomon and Almog 1999). The finding indicates that the teachers feel that they have an important part in the school organisation. The principal is interested in their work and progress, in addition to helping them solve any problems and difficulties (Leithwood 1996, Gonen and Zaki 1999). A further point is that the principal encourages them to take part in policy decisions. According to the findings, it is possible to see that there is co-operation between the teachers and that the principal which enables the teacher to have a sense of his/her own value.

The social cohesion parameter which received a relatively low value from the ORT3 HSP and a high value from the ORT2 HSP points to the fact that in the ORT2 school, not only is there emphasis on academic achievement and a positive learning environment there is also a high level of social cohesion amongst the members of staff (Hargreaves 1995, Blake and Mouton 1985). This in turn is reflected in positive school culture. From the findings it is possible to note that in ORT1 there is little social cohesion amongst the teachers and pupils. The social cohesion parameter received from the teachers indicates a lower value from the ORT3 JHST compared to the ORT2 and ORT1 JHST. This points to the fact that amongst the JHST there is less social cohesion compared to the positive social environment that exists in other schools.

To sum up the social control and cohesion part, it is possible to note that the ORT3 JHS culture is lacking in many forms regarding all the school culture parameters. This is opposed to a more positive school culture in the ORT2 school. The ORT3 open school culture parameter, indicates a lower level compared to the ORT2 and ORT1 schools. Once again, this points to the fact that the ORT3 school culture is less open than the ORT2 and ORT1 schools. This finding matches the other findings that were previously discussed relating to school culture. The ORT3 JHST and HST view their school culture in a less positive way than amongst the ORT2 and ORT1 JHST. This also points to the fact that the ORT3 HST are less of a cohesive unit and there is far less co-operation in their working environment compared to the ORT2 HST. This finding matches the team work relationships factor mentioned previously.

The achievement oriented school relates to the JHS and HS and matches the above findings. It indicates that the location of the JHS is closer to the area of points (C) in

Hargreaves' model (high social control). This is due to the fact that the value of achievement orientation in the JHS is particularly high. The findings show that both the JHS and HS principals, as well as inspectors, occasionally evaluate the professional functioning of the teachers and where necessary, guidance is given (Friedman 1988, Bernbaum 1976). It is important to note that in both schools the teachers put in a great deal of time and effort beyond their official school hours. They also attend in service training courses in order to improve their professional standing (Degani 1997, Chen 1997). The findings also indicate that the principals demand a high level of commitment and achievement to matriculation exams (Cotton and Savard 1982, Venezky 1989, Meyesed 1997).

Another point to be mentioned regarding the relationship between the JHS teachers and their pupils, is the use of first names by pupils when addressing teachers. This has an influence on the personal contact between teachers and pupils. This allows the pupil to feel that the teacher relates to him on a personal level, as well as being able to have an open relationship with the pupil. This point is part of the shared norms discussed in the following section.

The following analyses the findings perceived by the principals and teachers regarding shared norms.

Shared norms

The findings of this factor point to the fact that principals from both sections of the school maintain that there are almost no shared norms between the teachers of both schools. However, the finding indicates that the JHS teachers have fewer shared norms than the HS teachers (e.g. close contact between teachers and pupils). In any event, the values are considerably low. This finding points to a low school culture from the point of view of shared norms (Schein 1985). According to the principals from both schools, the gap between written and operational norms is extremely wide. This points to the fact that the school does not achieve the goals it has set for itself, regarding shared norms and values. Lack of goal achievement lowers the success for integration (Beheri 1997, Friedman 1988). The lack of shared norms, values and beliefs results in the fact that each group of teachers operates in a different way (Rutter 1979, Prosser 1999). This in turn may lessen the pace of integration. The lack of shared norms, values and beliefs (Beare

1989, Hoyle 1986), is also reflected in the high sense of belonging by the JHS teachers to the M.O.E., and the low sense of belonging to the M.O.E. by the HS teachers.

The shared norms parameter indicates that amongst the ORT3 members of staff there are very few shared norms. In addition, they are unaware of the importance of shared norms necessary to advance the six-year continuity and integration. In ORT3 one can note that there are negative norms amongst the teachers. For example, the teacher arrives late to the lesson or has no regard for the school's principles and aims. This is opposed to the level perceived by the ORT2 JHSP, which is close to the value given by the 23 survey principals. Here it is possible to note that amongst the members of staff of the ORT2 JHS the level of shared norms is higher than amongst the ORT3 teachers. The ORT1 school is placed between the two schools regarding shared norms. In other words, there are likely to be three different levels of school culture regarding shared norms.

The information gathered through the interview, indicates the fact that the principals encourage shared norms, values, and beliefs amongst the members of staff from both schools, in order to advance the process of integration, mainly in the ORT1 and ORT2 schools. In addition, there is a policy of shared values e.g. manners and behaviour (Pettigrew 1989, Lewis 1996, Conway 1985 and Nias 1989), which the majority of the teachers in the ORT1 and ORT2 schools follow. From the beginning of the process of integration joint ceremonies and rituals (Trice 1983, Beare 1983 and Schmidah 1991) have been part of the six-year system.

As a result, it is possible to note that the principals and teachers' perception is that merging two schools has influenced the school culture of the six-year system. (balkanised culture, Fullan and Hargreaves 1992, Schneider and Barsoux 1997). This fact relates to the third R.Q, which is concerned with how principals and teachers perceive the impact of merging two school cultures on integration. The social gatherings of teachers which take place in the JHS have in fact been adopted by the HS teachers as well. This is one example of the impact the JHS has had on the HS. At the same time, the HS has been influential in creating standards of discipline, whereby the JHS has adopted standards of discipline and values regarding their pupils (Schein 1985, Millikan 1987). One area where there is no impact from the JHS is that of the social interaction amongst the HS teachers. Very strong social cohesion does not exist in the HS. The overall picture of the

six-year school culture is a combination of social cohesion and control, whereby a higher level of social cohesion exists in the JHS, but weak social interaction exists amongst the HS teachers.

The following analyses the findings perceived by the principals and teachers regarding social interaction.

Social interaction

These findings received from the questionnaire, point to the fact that the JHS in the six-year framework has promoted far more dialogue and social contact between the teachers and pupils. This is opposed to the high school where there is very little social contact between teachers and pupils. Social interaction in the JHS is heavily emphasised, as opposed to that of the HS. It is possible to note that there is some tension between the members of the management teams of both schools. This indicates the lack of social contact and trust between the two teams (Blase 1991, Dunham 1992). The teachers' findings point to the fact that there are very few arguments and disagreements amongst the JHST (Bacharach 1980). On the other hand, amongst the HST this level is considerably high. Some of the HST form exclusive groups and cliques amongst themselves, as well as placing pressure on those teachers who do not accept majority decisions (Burgess 1983). In addition, there is a minimal amount of positive and pleasant social interaction amongst the high school teachers.

The social interaction parameter relating to the inter-personal relationships amongst the teachers in the ORT3 and ORT1 HS is extremely low compared to the ORT2 school. This points to the fact that the ORT3 and ORT1 principals are unable to promote good relationships amongst the teachers, as well as between themselves and their members of staff (Friedman 1988). In the ORT2 school, the relationships amongst the teachers are close to the value received from the 23 survey schools. The ORT3 JHST perceive a low level, as opposed to a higher level perceived by the ORT2 and ORT1 JHST. This points to the fact that social interaction amongst the ORT3 teachers is weaker than amongst the ORT2 and ORT1 teachers. The values received for the social interaction parameter match those received for the social cohesion parameter in the three case study schools. The

difference between the HST and HSP perception regarding social interaction, is shown in Figure 6.6

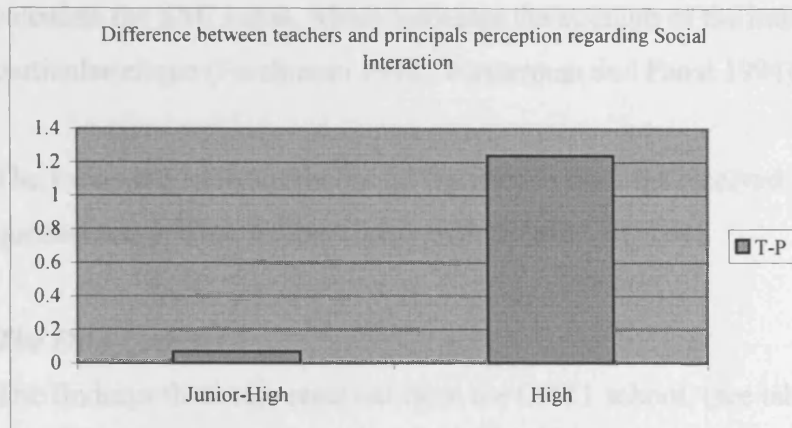


Figure 6.6: the difference between the HST and HSP perceptions regarding social interaction.

Figure 6.6 indicates the fact that there is a big difference between the high school principals and the teachers' perceptions regarding social interaction amongst the members of staff, as opposed to a very small difference (0.02) in the junior-high school. The principals and teachers of the junior-high school indicate a similar level of social interaction amongst members of staff. On the other hand, the high school teachers indicate a high level of social interaction, as opposed to a low level of social interaction perceived by the high school principals.

Regarding the fourth research question (R.Q), which relates to the impact of social interaction on the process of integration, the high school principals perceived weak social interaction amongst members of staff. On the other hand, the junior-high principals as well as the teachers of the high and junior-high school perceived strong social interaction amongst the members of staff, which in turn improves the process of integration (Frank 1995, Freiberg 1987).

In order to receive an overall picture of the social interaction between the two sections of the six-year school as reflected in the case studies, an analysis of the sociometric questionnaire is given below. The data regarding social interaction that was received from the teachers, after filling out the sociometric questionnaires was analysed with the

help of computer software. This was done in order to find out the cliques amongst the teachers and the strength of interaction amongst the teachers in each clique (Durland and Teddlie 1996, Reynolds 2000). In other words, the software set out the data in order to calculate the SMI value, which indicates the strength of the interaction within the particular clique (Fershtman 1993, Wasserman and Faust 1994).

The following analyses the social interaction findings received from the sociometric questionnaire. The first part deals with the ORT1 school.

The ORT1 school

The findings that were received from the ORT1 school, (see table 5.13 chapter 5), point to the fact that the level of activity provides an opportunity for contact within all kinds of frameworks within the high school staff room (Richardson 1973, Glover 1999). The interaction between the two groups points to the fact that there are no interpersonal relationships outside the high school (Fershtman 1993). In other words, there is no interaction between the groups of high school teachers with the group of JHST. The value of the SMI of the first group {2,3,4,5} indicates that the relationships amongst this group are much stronger than the second group {2,3,4,5,7,8,9,10}. This points to the fact that the smaller group is more cohesive with strong inter personal relationships. The findings also show that the contact between the teachers who teach English, Maths and Literature in the high school is extremely united (SMI=0.812). This is opposed to far less contact amongst the high school teachers in the larger group, which includes teachers who teach English, Maths, Literature, History and Bible. Similarly, in the JHS it is possible to note a sub group {13,20} with internal contacts but of less strength (0.727), as opposed to the strength of the sub group in the HS (0.812). A further element here is that the number of teachers in the small clique within the HS {2,3,4,5} is larger than the number of teachers in the small group of the JHS {13,20}. If the strength of the SMI in the HS (0.812) is larger than the JHS (0.727), it is possible to note that the contacts amongst the HST are stronger than amongst the JHST. An interesting finding is that in both schools those teachers who teach Maths have strong social contact within the group of teachers in the separate schools. In other words, the Maths teachers in the HS {3,4} are found within one group and the group of Maths teachers in the JHS {13,14} are found within another group, without there being any contact with the HS group. This is opposed to group number {13,20} within the JHS, where there is contact between a teacher who teaches

Maths with a teacher who teaches Bible. This can be explained by the fact that both teachers have known each other from childhood and live in close proximity.

To sum up, in the ORT1 school it is possible to map the interaction within the six-year framework by presenting two separate staff rooms with lack of any contact between them. In each staff room there is a large clique of teachers within which there is a sub group, which has high interaction amongst those particular teachers. Figure 6.7 shows the two staff rooms in the ORT1 six-year school.

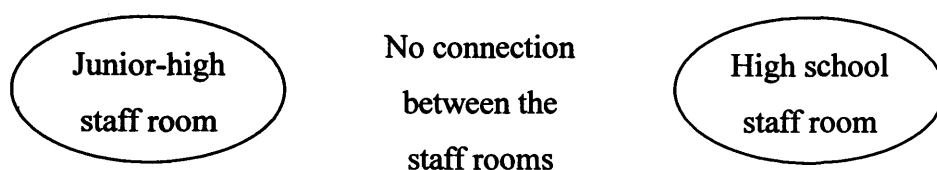


Figure 6.7: the staff room in the ORT1 school

The ORT2 school

The findings that were received from the ORT2 school (see table 5.14 chapter 5) point to the fact that in ORT2 there is good contact between the JHS teachers and the HS teachers in the subjects of Hebrew and English language, compared to ORT1 where there is no contact at all between the JHS and HS teachers. Other cliques point to the fact that there is contact amongst the high school teachers who teach within the same subject division (History and Bible). The clique of teachers Maths and English {11,14}, indicates that the contact is expressed through the joint pedagogical meetings which discuss areas related to matriculation. English and Maths are prime subjects in obtaining a matriculation certificate, therefore there is a need for joint meetings.

To sum up, the findings that were received from the ORT2 teachers regarding social interaction point to the fact that in this particular school there is a joint staff room. Within the staff room there are cliques whereby within each clique there is contact amongst the teachers, as well as interaction between the different cliques. Figure 6.8 indicates the joint staff room of the ORT2 six-year school.

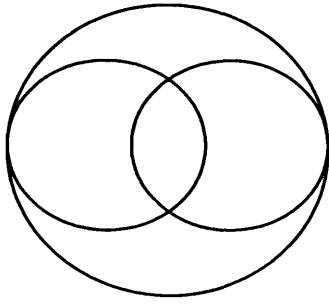


Figure 6.8: the ORT2 joint staff room

It is important to add that the findings indicate that there is not one particular nucleus of members of the clique with the other being left out, rather the range of choices applies to all members of staff. Each member of staff belongs to a group of friends or a couple of friends from both schools, as seen by groups {2,16}. There are lots of opportunities for forming relationships amongst the teachers from both schools.

The ORT3 school

The findings that were received from the ORT3 school teachers (see table 5.15 chapter 5) regarding social interaction point to the fact that in ORT3 the opportunity for contact between the JHST and HST is negligible. This also applies to the JHS and HS where teachers within these schools have very little opportunity for contact. The social interaction pattern points to the fact that there are few opportunities for contact. The findings also point to the fact that in ORT3 the social interaction amongst the teachers is far less than in the ORT2 and ORT1 schools. In ORT3 there is little interaction amongst teachers from the same department.

To sum up, it is possible to note that there is “**no staff room**” in the ORT3 school. Each member of staff is entirely on his/her own. There is no impression of interaction amongst the teams of teachers. Figure 6.9 indicates the “no staff room” of the ORT3 six-year school.

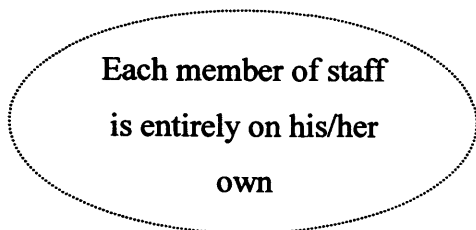


Figure 6.9: No staff room in the ORT3 six-year school

Summary of the school culture analysis

To sum up the school culture analysis, it is possible to place the JHS culture near the top left hand corner in Hargreaves model. In other words, this point indicates both high social cohesion and control. On the other hand, the HS culture can be placed at a point which indicates a high level of social cohesion and a lesser level of social control. The high level of social cohesion in the high school points to the fact that the JHS influences the high school culture, by the adoption of some elements of social cohesion from the JHS to the HS. The high level of social control in the JHS points to the fact that some elements of social control are adopted by the JHS from the HS. In other words, merging the two sections of the school influences the six-year school culture. The high level of social cohesion and control points to the fact that the six-year school emphasises academic achievement, order and discipline, as well as social relationships within the six-year framework. It is possible to add that almost no shared norms and common values exist within the six-year framework. On the other hand, there are common ceremonies since the process of integration began (Rush 1980, Schmidah 1991).

Regarding the third research question (R.Q), *what do the principals and teachers perceive as the impact of school culture on integration?* it is possible to note that merging two schools promotes both social cohesion and control of the six-year school, which improves the process of integration (Degani 1997, Meyesed 1997, Hargreaves 1995, Sharan 1981, Sweeney 1992, Kenworth 1994, Taylor and Tashakkori 1994). More details were received from the three case studies regarding social interaction amongst members of staff. The overall picture indicates that strong social interaction improves integration (the ORT2 school), whereby weak social interaction slows down the process of integration (the ORT3 school).

To sum up, it is possible to note that regarding the first research question, the analysis of the findings points to the fact that the principals and teachers' perception is that the six-year school has in fact achieved the aims it set for itself, which were social integration in the junior-high school, low dropping out rate and academic achievement in the high school. In the junior-high school the emphasis is on social integration and moral values, whilst in the high school the emphasis is on academic achievement. In order to achieve a low dropping out rate, both principals and teachers perceive that it is important for both school sections to maintain a high level of contact and interaction between principals from both sections, as well as amongst the teachers.

Regarding the second research question, it appears that the JHSP perceive the collegial management style as being a positive factor in promoting the process of integration. This is opposed to the bureaucratic management style perceived by the high school principals. Due to the fact that the two principals management styles are so completely different, the integration process has slowed down. The teachers perception is similar to that of the principals in relation to collegial and cultural styles of management, which promote the process of integration, as well as the ambiguity style being counter productive to the process of integration. The teachers also perceive that different management styles in the JHS and the HS, as well as different individual personalities of the principals as being responsible for difficulties in the process of integration.

Regarding the third research question, it is possible to note that the principals and teachers' perception is that merging two schools has influenced the school culture of the six-year system. The social gatherings of teachers which take place in the junior-high school, have in fact been adopted by the high school teachers as well. On the other hand, the junior-high school has adopted standards of discipline and values regarding their pupils. The overall picture of the six-year school culture is a combination of social cohesion and control, whereby a higher level of social cohesion exists in the JHS, but weak social interaction exists amongst the HS teachers.

Regarding the fourth research question, the analysis of the findings points to the fact that strong social interaction improves integration, whereby weak social interaction slows down the process of integration. The analysis of the three case studies indicates the fact

that there are three different six-year configurations. The first configuration is a six-year school with separate management for the junior-high and high school. The second configuration is a six-year school, with one principal responsible for both sections of the school. The third configuration is a six-year school but on a split-site with two individual principals. Of all the available possibilities mentioned above, it can be noted that there is not one uniform six-year school model.

In order to link the research questions with the results presented in this chapter, the next chapter deals with the research conclusion based on the analysis described in this chapter.

Chapter Seven: Conclusion

The aim of the research, as presented in the introductory chapter, was to examine the problems of integration of the ORT six-year comprehensive schools in Israel, as perceived by the principals, teachers and a limited number of pupils. In order to achieve this aim, the research dealt with three main areas: integration, management style and school culture.

Integration was presented by examining the way the principals and teachers perceive the advantages and disadvantages of the six-year comprehensive school, as well as the factors perceived to have most impact on integration. This was done in order to get an overall picture of the problems of integration within the ORT six-year comprehensive schools. In conjunction with the aims of integration, came the proposed organisational school structure, the most preferential being the six-year school. Over the years, a variety of organisational structures were developed with their own individual ethos and objectives, based on financial and professional considerations (Inbar 2000, Chen 1997, Degani 1997, Beheri 1997).

In order to sum up the analysis discussed in chapter six, the following section links the research questions (R.Q) with the results presented in the analysis chapter. From the analysis of the findings it is possible to note that integration in fact has brought benefits to the six-year school. This has been in the form of three different six-year configurations which will be discussed later on. The first configuration perceived by the principals is a six-year school with separate management for the junior-high and high school. In other words, two independently managed school which can be located on the same campus, but at the same time providing feeder pupils from the junior-high school to the high school. The second configuration perceived by the teachers is a six-year school, with one principal responsible for both sections of the school. In other words, no independent junior-high school. The third configuration perceived by the pupils is a six-year school but on a split-site with two individual principals. Of all the available possibilities mentioned above, it can be noted that there is not one uniform school model.

The first research question

Regarding the first research question (R.Q), *do principals and teachers perceive that integration has brought benefits for the school? If so, what factors are perceived as having most impact on integration*, the principals and teachers perceived that the process of integration within the six-year school has brought benefits to the school regarding the above factors. The main concepts of the six-year school, perceived by the principals and teachers, centred on the following points.

When a pupil has to contend with several transitional periods he/she has to cope with new environmental demands. The pupil has to deal with different rules and regulations as well as coping with a different team of educators. In the age of pupil centred education it is rather ironic that the student needs to cope with a great number of changes and challenges, especially when school autonomy is at the focus. The pupil's chances of coping with the system, in which he finds him or herself, are greatly improved when the pupil remains within the system for a longer period of time (Ryan and Deci 2000). In addition, there is no need for the pupil to get used to a new system every three years. Also, the pupil's social environment is enhanced by not having to deal with a different framework every three years. A pupil who is known by the team of educators has a greater chance of continuity in the same framework, as the educators have a personal commitment to the individual pupil (Bronfenbrenner and Morris 1998). This is particularly so when one looks at the average to below average student who comes from a junior-high school to a high school where the staff feel no commitment to such a pupil. The high school team is able to select the pupils they want and therefore the weaker student has less of a chance. In the six-year framework, the same pupil is part of the system and the school educators are more committed to him/her.

Schools have to cope with a variety of students with different educational needs and demands in individual and group situations. The six-year school is more flexible to cope with the needs of individual pupils. Planning of the school curriculum needs to be done by the professional team of educators. The amount of time for studying needed by the various pupils, changes with the needs of the individuals. There are some pupils who should have their studying time and needs accelerated, whilst others need far longer to deal with the same subjects. The school curriculum that is based on a six-year period allows the pupil to fully utilize and maximise his/her learning time in a flexible manner.

In the six-year school it is also possible to maintain a social environment based either on year groups, or two-year groups or even multi-year groups. It is also important to remember that the curriculum can only be implemented when the pupils remain within the same system and the staff plans the curriculum over the six-year period.

In addition to all that has been mentioned, it is important to relate to the aspect of maximised learning time. Apart from the fact that correct planning of the curriculum over six-years prevents overlapping and is far more economical, it is important to remember that when moving from one school to another a great deal of time is wasted due to the transition. Time is given to pupils in order to familiarize themselves with the new school, as well as time given to leaving the former school. One seriously needs to look at the time loss of the transition period, which could be used for other more important needs and aims, such as maximizing efficient learning time. Those educators, who claim that it is necessary to change the organisational structure of the high school, are able to have their wishes met by using the six-year framework, which allows for organisational flexibility. It is possible to preserve the individuality of each school within the six-year structure. It is also possible to consider the use of an alternative structure such as one age group in one particular building, where there is little chance to come in contact with another age group, or even going as far as a split-site school. In addition, there is flexibility to change the school organisation when the need arises.

Undermining of the six-year continuity has also been reflected in this research in the section on separation versus continuity, which centres around pedagogical and professional aspects. The six-year school, often due to the size of the institution ignores the pupil's social needs. Also the number of classes results in pupils "getting lost", which often has a detrimental effect on the younger and weaker pupils. In addition, there is teacher "burn-out" with the junior-high school principal feeling he/she has little authority and control. In certain institutions, instead of placing an emphasis on social activities, there is a tendency to centre on the academic needs of the high school, beginning in the 7th grade.

The paradox of the 1968 integration reform is that the situation that was created has allowed for the junior-high school to implement the first aim of the reform, being social integration of various groups of the population. The junior-high school has implemented

this aim by the use of heterogeneous classes, emphasis on the social outlook of the school, creating a pleasant and welcoming environment as well as preventing any form of pressure being placed on pupils. This aim can be summed up by using the term “a high level of social cohesion” of school culture. In contrast, the high school sees itself as being responsible for implementing only the second aim of the reform: advancement and improvement of academic achievement. In other words, placing the emphasis on high matriculation success rates. This aim can be summed up by using the term “a high level of social control” of school culture. This polarization has in fact harmed the aims of the 1968 reform act by creating a situation whereby the individual school only implements one aim of the reform, therefore achieving a negative result. In the same way as the junior-high school feels compelled to implement social integration, the high school rejects any responsibility in promoting it. Also, at the same time the junior-high school creates a pleasant and cultural environment, the high school is then placed in a situation where it has to enforce academic achievement, and at the same time neglect any form of pleasant socialization and social activities.

All professionals are interested in their own advancement and mobility; teachers are no exception. High school teachers need to be proficient in at least one major area of the curriculum. Motivation to improve the teacher’s skill in imparting his/her knowledge is linked to the idea of teaching in varied ways and methods, as well as different age groups. Ideally, the teacher needs to teach all age groups from the 7th –12 grades, paying attention to the special needs of the particular age range. For example, in the 7th grade attention needs to be paid to the development of the pupils in that age range, whilst in the 12th grade attention needs to be paid to the formal, structured teaching of pupils in order to pass the matriculation exam. A varied number of professional tasks, as well as common goals regarding the range of curriculum tasks is a major factor in providing professional stimulation. The possibilities for a variety of tasks are particularly limited when the age range is restricted.

Due to the presence of separate and individual junior-high schools and high schools, teacher training has been centred on either one age range or the other. The high school teacher’s training is based on clear disciplinary areas with little attention paid to didactic and pedagogical areas of study. On the other hand, teachers who are interested in teaching in the junior-high school are given full training in pedagogical matters, whilst at

the same time neglecting clear disciplinary areas. The fact that teaching pupils in the 7th – 9th age range requires little knowledge of the subject taught is a mistaken concept, in the same way that teaching in the 12th grade does not require any pedagogical and didactic background. The fact that there are two types of teachers is contradictory to what was said previously, whereby it is recommended to allow teachers to have mobility within the school framework and experience of teaching different age ranges. There is a need for the whole institution of the high school, from 7th – 12th grades, to be seen as one unit. Referring to what was mentioned above, it is necessary for schools to operate in service training to enable junior-high school teachers to teach in the high school and vice versa. It is advisable to pin point teachers' individual needs and only then operate in service training in the specific areas where a teacher is lacking certain skills. At the same time providing areas of teacher training compliments the system by filling in the gaps.

The second research question

The management styles, which were examined by the use of Blake and Mouton and Bush's models, reflected the fact that the high school principals perceived a high level of bureaucratic and political styles in order to promote the process of integration. The junior-high school principals perceived a collegial and cultural management style in order to promote the process of integration. All the principals perceived a high level of ambiguity management styles due to the move to the six-year framework. The teachers perceived almost all the management styles as being of a similar level in order to promote the six-year framework. In other words, it is necessary for the management style to be a combination of several approaches. In addition, the teachers perceived a high level of the subjective management style, as opposed to the principals. This points to the fact that the teachers' interests are not the same as the schools. A further interesting point, which relates to the different perception of the principals and teachers regarding management style, is that the high school principals want to show that the bureaucratic management style is supposedly the most effective management style, in order to promote integration.

Regarding the second research question (R.Q), *what are the principals and teachers perception of the management style and the impact of these styles on the process of integration*, the different perceptions of management styles, as seen by the junior-high school and high school principals, indicates that the process of integration does in fact slow down. This is related to the fact that there is little cooperation on this level within

the six-year school. It is not possible to fully match the second assumption with that of the findings, due to the fact that the management styles of the junior-high school and high school principals are so varied. It is possible to note that in one school, the ORT2 school, the difference between the junior-high and high school principals regarding management style, is less than the average received. Therefore, the model of the school presented by the ORT2 school shows that the collegial management style of both sections of the six-year school promotes and improves integration. Regarding the models used relating to management style, each of the models contributed a certain approach, which assisted in the examination of the difference in management style. Ultimately, all of the models are linked together. In other words, a combination of the models of Bush and Blake and Mouton, provide a wide and varied picture of the management styles perceived by the principals and teachers.

The third research question

School culture, which was examined by the use of Hargreaves and, Friedman's models, indicated that there was an impact of merging two school cultures on integration. The social and achievement components of school culture were improved by merging the two schools, which in turn advanced the process of integration. However, a certain lack of shared norms and common values of the two sections produced a slowing down of the integration process. It is important to note that shared norms and common values require many years of cooperation in order to produce their development (Friedman 1988, Tzifroni 2001).

Regarding the third research question (R.Q), *what do the principals and teachers perceive as the impact of school culture on integration*, the six-year school culture has been influenced by the process of integration of the two sections, whereby the junior-high school adopted the achievement and discipline approaches used in the high school. This in fact resulted in improving the level of social control in the junior-high school. The high school adopted some of the cultural and social approaches present in the junior-high school. This also resulted in the high school improving the level of social cohesion. In other words, this was a positive impact of the six-year school culture in promoting the success of integration.

It is necessary to point out that a socially cohesive school culture is also dependent on shared norms and common values within the six-year school (Friedman 1987, Hargreaves 1995, Beare 1989). Due to the fact that at the time of examining the findings, there were almost no shared norms and common values, apart from shared ceremonies and rituals; the process of integration was seen to be slow (Friedman 1988). On the other hand, it was seen that there was a high level of social cohesion and control, which in turn raised the level of integration. In other words, the process of integration is slowly moving in the right direction with gradual improvement.

The fourth research question

Regarding the fourth R.Q, the teachers perceive that strong social interaction has a positive effect on integration, as particularly seen in one school, such as the ORT2 school. This reflects the fourth research question, *what are the principals and teachers' perceptions of social interaction on the process of integration*, as well as fitting in with the fourth assumption, *the principals and teachers perceive that strong social interaction is likely to improve integration*. On the other hand, the teachers and principals perceive that weak social interaction does not contribute to the process of integration, as seen in other schools such as the ORT3 school.

The results received from the case studies can be interpreted as a generalisation (Bassey 1999, Ben-Yehoshua 1999) of three types of six-year schools. The first being similar to the ORT2 school, whereby the management style of both principals is collegial. The school culture of this type of school is located in Hargreaves' model where there is high social cohesion and control. In addition, social interaction amongst the teachers of both sections of the school is strong. This shows that there is one staff. The second type of six-year school is similar to the ORT3 school whereby the management style of the high school principal is completely different to that of the junior-high school principal. The school culture is located in Hargreaves model where there is a difference between social cohesion and control. The social interaction amongst the teachers shows that there is not a single team within the six-year school. The third type of six-year school is similar to that of the ORT1 school whereby the management style of the high school principal is different to that of the junior-high school principal. The school culture is located in Hargreaves model where there is a difference between social cohesion and control. The principals and teachers of this type of school, perceived a high level of social control in

the high school, as opposed to the junior-high school. In addition, the social interaction amongst the teachers shows that there are two different teams, one in the junior-high school and one in the high school, without any connection between them.

The following section sums up the three different types and configurations of six-year schools.

Summing up

Two approaches were used in this research project: a survey of all the integrated schools belonging to the ORT Network in Israel and case studies in three of the integrated six-year schools. The findings of the case studies can be used to generalise all the six-year schools in Israel, and in particular the 23 ORT six-year schools. Table 7.1 (see the next page) indicates the difference between the three schools regarding integration, management style and school culture. The table indicates the fact that in the ORT2 school, integration has been successful and brought benefits for the six-year framework. This is opposed to the complete lack of success regarding the ORT3 school. However, ORT1 is placed in the middle whereby the process of integration is constantly continuing. In the ORT2 school, the collegial management style is similar in both the junior-high school and high school. This is opposed to the **different management styles** between the junior-high school principals of ORT3 and ORT1 (collegial) and the high school principals of ORT3 and ORT1 (bureaucratic).

Regarding school culture, Table 7.1 indicates that in the ORT2 school, social cohesion and strong social interaction are likely to improve integration. This is opposed to the culture of the six-year framework in the ORT1 and ORT3 schools due to the fact that there is no strong social interaction amongst the teachers of the junior-high school and high school.

School	Integration	Management style	School culture
ORT2	Successful.	Collegial in both schools.	Combination of high social cohesion and control in both schools. Strong social interaction.
ORT1	In the process of development.	Collegial in the JHS. Bureaucratic in the HS.	Low social control and cohesion in both schools. Weak social interaction.
ORT3	No integration.	Collegial in the JHS. Bureaucratic in the HS.	High social control in the JHS. Low social cohesion in the HS. Weak social interaction.

Table 7.1: The difference between the three types of six-year schools.

From the results received from the three case studies, it is possible to make a generalisation (Bassey 1999) that the six year schools in Israel are divided into three different categories, as indicated by Table 7.1. In the first category there are schools where integration has succeeded, as in the ORT2 school. In the second category there are schools, which are in the process of implementing integration and the six-year framework, as in the ORT1 school. Lastly, in the third category there are schools which have not succeeded either in the process of integration or the six-year framework, as in the ORT3 school.

To sum up, the conclusion of this research is that there is no overall consensus on the part of principals, teachers and certain pupils regarding the six-year school structure, due to the fact that there are three different configurations perceived by them. Figures 7.1, 7.2

and 7.3 (see the following pages) show the models perceived by the teachers, principals and pupils respectively. The models summarise the different perceptions of the principals, teachers and pupils of the ORT six-year comprehensive schools in Israel regarding the six-year system. The model that was perceived by the pupils is based on the interviews with a sample of pupils from the three case study schools. The pupils were carefully picked by the researcher due to the standard of their answers and the seriousness with which they undertook the interview. This was done in order to obtain the perception of pupils who were both serious and credible regarding the six-year structure of their preferred educational framework. Further interviews were conducted with a number of other pupils but the researcher soon became aware of the fact that their answers were flippant and did not answer the questions. The pupils are therefore included only as an element to examine their points of view, but not as part of the generalization in the research data.

Figure 7.1 presents the six-year model perceived by the teachers. This model shows that the teachers preferred a six-year school being one unit, as opposed to two separate sections. The model consists of an overall six-year principal whereby the junior-high and the high schools principals are subordinate to the overall principal. The joint six-year school culture consists of some of the elements mentioned in the literature review regarding school culture, such as continuity of the curriculum, one head of department, joint teachers, one joint team, strong social interaction amongst the teachers, as well as high social cohesion and control.

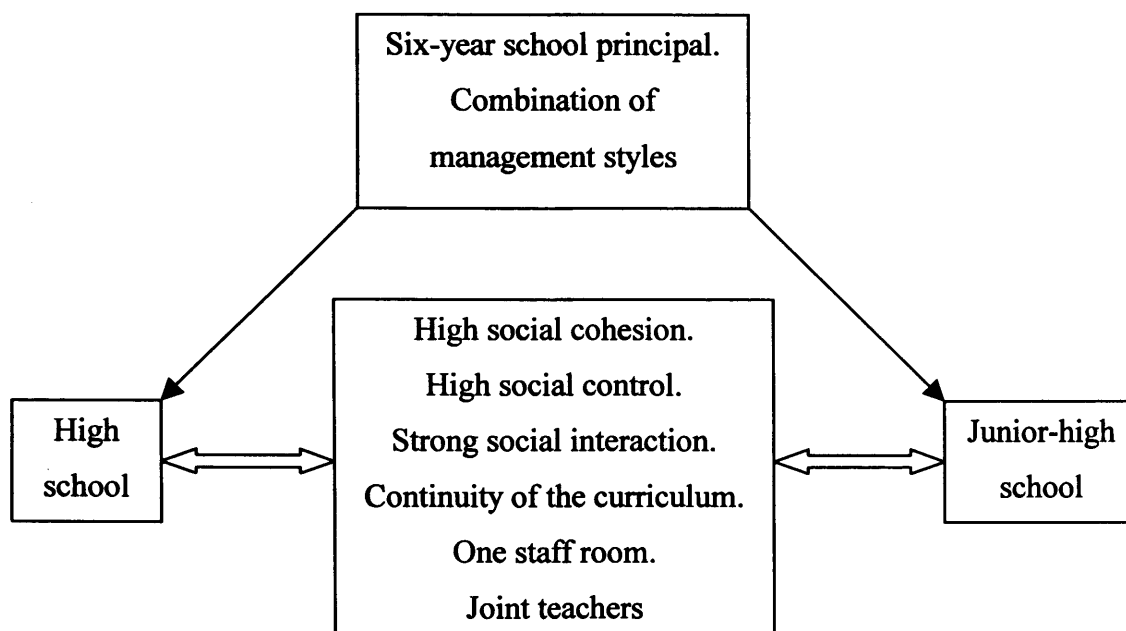


Figure 7.1: Model perceived by the teachers

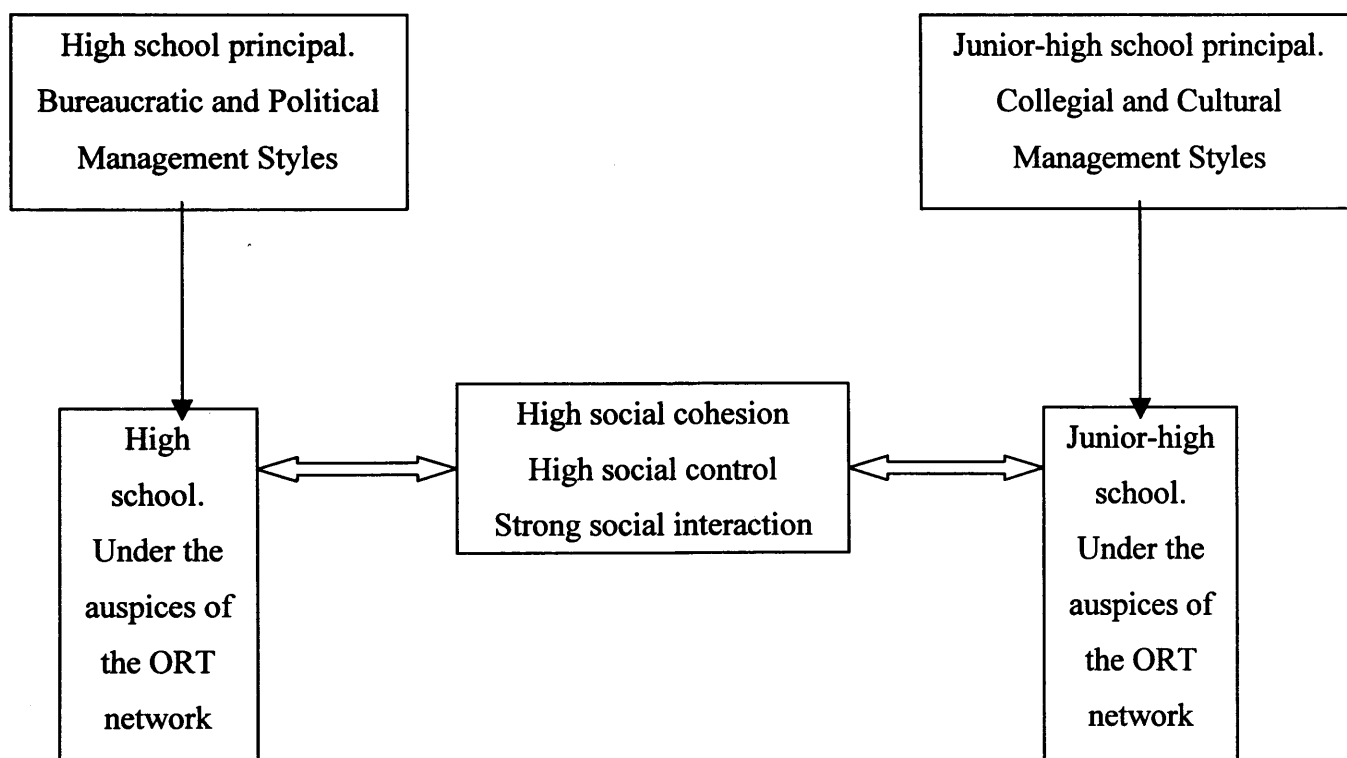


Figure 7.2: Model perceived by the principals.

As opposed to the teachers, the principals perceived the six-year school model presented in figure 7.2. In this model, there is management separation between the high school and the junior-high school principals. In other words, there is a different principal in each section. This model shows that the junior-high school principals perceived a collegial and cultural management style, as opposed to the bureaucratic and political management style of the high school principals. In this model, the two sections of the six-year school are operated on the same campus and under the auspicious of the ORT network. The link between the two sections is presented by some of the elements of school culture as mentioned above, such as high social cohesion and control, as well as strong social interaction amongst the teachers. The high school principals perceived this model due to the fact that the junior-high school feeds the high school, taking into consideration the advantages of social integration on the same campus.

Figure 7.3 presents the split-site school model perceived by the pupils.

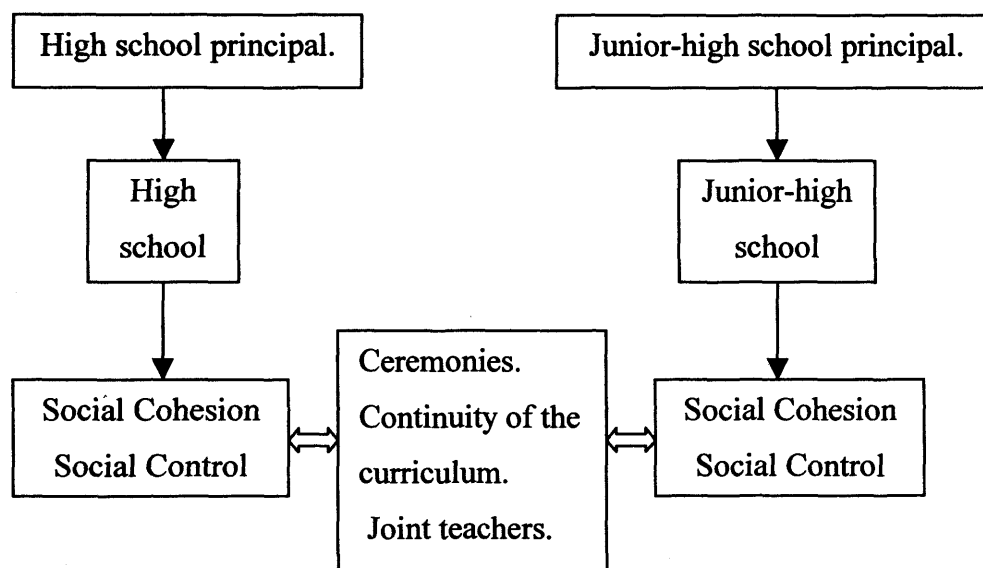


Figure 7.3: Model perceived by the pupils - Split-Site School

In this model, the two principals are separate from each other. Each section of the six-year school has its own level of social cohesion and control, whereby the teachers have to teach in both sections. In other words, there are advantages in having joint teachers as well as continuity of the curriculum and holding joint ceremonies.

Regarding management style, the high school principals and junior-high school principals perceive **management styles differently**. The teachers perceive that management style

should be a combination of the various different management styles. In other words, a management style that combines a leadership style which develops both the school itself and the members of staff, supports the teachers, involves the teachers in decision making, as well as presenting an excellent personal example. In addition, this management style demands high standards from both teachers and pupils which includes high academic achievement and results, discipline and order, as well as exercising a high level of control regarding academic matters and the day to day running of the school. This style, presented by the ORT2 school, in fact demonstrates the link between leadership, management style and school culture. Regarding school culture, more social cohesion in the junior-high appears to be feeding through into the high school (Weick, 1976, Little, 1990, Huberman, 1993).

Recommendation

It is important to note that in order to achieve the maximum potential of the six-year framework, principals need to have full training both before embarking on their duties and during their school careers. In addition, it is recommended to guide principals in the effective use of personnel, as well as in service training, in order to maximise the resources available so that the school may reach its potential. The six-year school has to also invest time and effort in the development of school culture, which is based on good inter-personal relationships, social interaction amongst the teachers and the teachers and principals, as well as between the principals. There is a need to develop team-work as well as providing teachers with their own autonomy, as well as including members of staff in decision making and empowering them to take an active part in running of the school.

As a result of the research, the conclusion reached is that no single model for the six-year school is preferable. However, the ORT2 school presents a successful model for the six-year framework regarding benefits for the school, collegial management style, socially cohesive and controlled school culture, as well as strong social interaction amongst the teachers of both the junior-high school and high school.

The final conclusion

The most important conclusion that the researcher reached, based on the principals, teachers and a limited number of pupils' perceptions, as well as the results of the survey and case studies, is that the preferred model for the six-year school is as follows:

- One overall principal for the six-year school with a further two principals who are in turn in charge of the pedagogical running of either the high school or the junior-high school. The management style of the three principals should be mainly collegial.
- School culture must be of a uniform pattern for the six-year school with a combination of social cohesion and control. The same level of social cohesion and control must operate both in the junior-high school and high school. This is in order to provide a secure and consistent environment for the pupil.
- Advantages for the pupils are no transition difficulties, reduced dropping out rate, versatility, responsibility and commitment of the teachers, maximised learning time, same educational methodology, prevention of trauma, learning conducive environment, as well as joint resources.
- One subject coordinator for all the six-years which in turn has the advantages of maximalising learning time, no repetition of subject material taught, co-operation between members of staff and finally, planning of the curriculum over a six year period.
- Both the junior-high school and high school need to be under the auspices of the ORT Network in order to prevent a conflict of interests regarding the aims of the six-year school, as well as the budget and resources.

For integration to be successful it is necessary for all principals, teachers, and even pupils to share common perceptions of culture and management. Due to the fact that the results of the research show no common perceptions, the conclusion reached is that the present six-year school is not effective. The schools either have to be two separate schools, or follow the preferred model based on the principals, teachers and pupils' configurations regarding the six-year school. In other words, an overall principal has to be appointed, as well as a principal for the junior-high school and one for the high school. In addition, the junior-high school teachers must be made an integral part of ORT, rather than feeling that they are represented by the Ministry Of Education.

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Appendix A

World ORT Union

ORT was founded in St Petersburg in Czarist Russia in 1880 to provide basic trades and agricultural skills. ORT was originally a Russian acronym for *Obshestwo Propostranienia Truda*, meaning The Society for Handicrafts and Agricultural Work. To day ORT stands for "Organisation for Rehabilitation and Training".

The ORT network, (OWU, 1990), extends to more than 50 countries. ORT co-operates with many governmental and International Aid agencies to assist and operate programmes at the request of countries in the developing world. For the past 30 years more than 250 training projects in developing nations have been successfully implemented in all forms of technical and vocational training skills. ORT's aim in these countries is to establish and then hand over a self-sustaining project, which can be operated by a locally trained workforce. In Israel the average number of students enrolled in each academic year is around 100,000, with a staff of 5,000 educators, engineers, instructors and administrative personnel. ORT runs its own junior-high, comprehensive, technical high schools and colleges, covering an age range of 7 to 18, as well as offering post-secondary training towards practical engineering degrees and BSc's for technical teachers within its own Teacher Training Institutes.

Historical Highlights of ORT

- 1880** A fund to give aid to needy Jews in Russia is established.
- 1905** ORT gains official recognition by the Russian authorities.
- 1906** The first general meeting of the ORT Company.
- 1921** A global organisation of ORT organisations is created in Berlin.
- 1922** ORT is established in the United States of America.
- 1928** ORT establishes the "Tools Supplies Company".
- 1938** ORT ceases to exist in Russia.
- 1939** World ORT headquarters move from Berlin to France.
- 1940** ORT conducts vocational training courses in the Warsaw ghetto (until 1943) and the Kovna ghetto (until 1942).
- 1941** The first ORT school in Buenos Aires opens.
- 1941** ORT becomes active in Shanghai, China (continuing 9 years).
- 1943** World ORT headquarters move from Paris to Geneva.
- 1946** A teacher-training institute is opened in Anieres, Switzerland.
- 1947** ORT's activities start in Algeria (continuing 14 years) and in Morocco.
- 1948** The start of ORT's activities in Israel in the form of the "Tools Supplies Company".
- 1949** The first ORT schools in Israel are instituted (in Jaffa and Jerusalem).
- 1950** ORT starts to be operative in Tunisia (continuing 13 years) and in Iran (continuing 31 years).
- 1960** ORT starts International Cooperation activities.
- 1961** The first industrial school is established in Israel (in Lod).
- 1981** ORT ceases to be operative in Iran.
- 1985** ORT organizes courses for the absorption of Ethiopian Jews after the first large wave of immigrants to Israel in 1984-1985.
- 1985** A B.Ed.Tech (Bachelor of Education in Technology) teacher-training programme is established at the ORT School of Engineering in Jerusalem.
- 1988** The Braude International Institute of Technology in Karmiel, Israel, is inaugurated.
- 1992** ORT Israel absorbs thousands of Russian Jews after the fall of the "iron curtain".
- 1994** ORT opens resource centres in schools in Moscow and St. Petersburg.
- 1994** ORT returns to Eastern Europe (Budapest, Zagreb, Prague and Riga).

Appendix B: Questionnaires

The questionnaires given to the teachers.

Dear teacher,

Within my Ph.D. research on the subject of:

The Introduction of the Six - Year Comprehensive School

In ORT Schools in Israel: Overcoming Problems of Integration

I would appreciate your cooperation in completing the following questionnaire.

(Confidentiality will be assured at all times).

Part One – the sociometric questionnaire

1. Indicate the names of the teachers, from the enclosed list, with whom you participate during departmental meetings.

2. Indicate the names of the teachers, from the enclosed list, with whom you participate in the pedagogical committees.

3. Indicate the names of the teachers, from the enclosed list, with whom you usually converse in the staff room.

4. Indicate the names of the teachers, from the enclosed list, with whom you participate in other school activities.

5. Indicate the names of the teachers, from the enclosed list, with whom you have contact on a social level outside the school framework.

6. Indicate the names of the teachers, from the enclosed list, with whom you discuss events or issues, which arise in the school.

7. Indicate the names of the teachers, from the enclosed list, with whom you turn to for advice on events or issues, which arise in the school.

8. Indicate the names of the teachers, from the enclosed list, with whom you consider to be a close personal friend.

Part Two

I would appreciate your cooperation in completing the following questionnaire. (Confidentiality will be assured at all times).

On the following pages a number of statements about teaching are presented. Our purpose is to gather information regarding the actual attitudes of educators concerning these statements.

You will recognize that the statements are of a nature that there are no correct or incorrect answers. We are only interested in your frank opinion of them.

Your responses will remain confidential, and no individual will be named in the report of this study. Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Instructions: The following are 74 statements about the six-year comprehensive school. Please indicate the most relevant answer to your school by ticking the appropriate response at the right of the statement. Each statement consists of five categories from one to five, where one doesn't characterise in any possible way and where five characterises to the greatest extent possible.

Remember: your answer is based on your present position and **not** on how you would like your school to operate and function.

No	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
1	The physical environment of the school is pleasant and indusive to a positive atmosphere.					
2	Staff meetings are conducted in a rigid format.					
3	A positive atmosphere exists amongst the members of staff.					
4	I am able to work freely and operate within the school according to my own beliefs and professional understanding.					
5	The number of teaching hours per week is too much.					
6	The teachers feel that they are needed within the school.					
7	The principal is responsible for the teacher's timetable.					
8	My principal is not prepared to listen to another opinion apart					

	from his / her own.						
9	I feel uncomfortable when I give high marks.						
10	The principal helps the members of staff solve their personal problems.						
11	The teacher does not have enough free time in order to read professional literature.						
12	The principal in my school pushes forward new ideas.						
13	During the last twelve months I have inaugurated new teaching methods.						
14	I am able to be creative within my work.						
15	Administrative tasks are considered to be a nuisance.						
16	Staff meetings centre around the principal's report.						
17	I am able to establish the rate of progress within my class.						
18	There are many disagreements and arguments amongst the teachers.						
19	I am able to operate freely and unhindered in my work.						
20	There is a lot of pressure in my work as a teacher.						
21	Teachers are generally creative and positive in their work.						
22	The principal encourages the teachers to take part in policy decisions.						
23	Teachers are able to get help and the use of multi-media equipment.						
24	Teachers form exclusive groups and cliques amongst themselves.						
25	The principal occasionally examines the professional standard of the members of staff.						
26	My teaching load hinders my own personal family life.						
27	My principal is an educational role model.						
28	Staff members tend to be on their own as opposed to being part of a group.						
29	My work enables me to be creative.						
30	My own personal workload is much heavier than of other members of staff.						
31	The principal is involved in solving disagreements amongst the						

	teachers.						
32	The principal remains in school at the end of the teaching day in order to assist members of staff.						
33	The school has all the necessary equipment and facilities in order to fulfill my professional duties.						
34	There is a small group of teachers, who always oppose majority decisions.						
35	There is no supervision and inspection of my professional work.						
36	During the past twelve months new teaching methods have been introduced by the members of staff.						
37	Criticism by the principal is constructive.						
38	Members of staff assert pressure on those teachers who do not accept majority decisions.						
39	The principal communicates by the use of written instructions and messages.						
40	During the past twelve months I have adopted new teaching methods to implement the curriculum.						
41	The school caretaker co-operates fully with the members of staff, when necessary.						
42	In order to promote professional advancement and aims there is a high level of co-operation amongst the staff.						
43	My work enables me to operate according to my professional beliefs.						
44	There is a lot of extra work aside from classroom teaching.						
45	The principal shows appreciation of the staff's efforts.						
46	The principal tries to obtain extra financial benefits for the members of staff.						
47	I frequently feel drained as a result of my work.						
48	The principal is concerned that members of staff will fill all the necessary teaching hours and posts.						
49	I decide on my own teaching progress and on what is to be taught within the school curriculum.						
50	The principal conducts staff meetings efficiently.						

51	The principal monitors the distribution of marks.						
52	I am able to operate freely and unhindered in my professional work.						
53	The school inspector is an educational role model.						
54	My professional work is viewed with respect by the general public.						
55	Teaching as a profession enables members of staff to achieve high status in society, within a very short period of time.						
56	In order to have a meeting with the principal, it is necessary to make an appointment in advance.						
57	I am seldomly able to operate teaching methods of my choice.						
58	The school inspector is interested in every member of staff.						
59	My professional work enables me to have a sense of my own value.						
60	The principal explains the reasons for his / her criticism.						
61	During the past year I have initiated the use of group work.						
62	The principal maintains distance between himself and the members of staff.						
63	The members of staff receive feedback from the school inspector at the end of his / her visit.						
64	The principal demands that teachers take part in-service training courses.						
65	A talented teacher is able to advance professionally.						
66	The members of staff need to appear to be busy even when there is little work to be done.						
67	The principal is always the first person to arrive at the school.						
68	The school inspector passes on new information and enables the teachers to be updated on the latest trends.						
69	During the last year I attended in-service training courses on the latest methodology.						
70	My work enables me to achieve high status amongst fellow professionals.						
71	The principal demands maximum achievement from a member						

	of staff.					
72	Teachers tend to divert from the main issue during staff meetings.					
73	During the school day there is positive and pleasant social interaction amongst the teachers.					
74	My work enables me to take part in educational processes within the school system.					

The questionnaire given to the principal.

Dear Principal,

Within my Ph.D. research on the subject of:

**The Introduction of the Six - Year Comprehensive School
In ORT Schools in Israel: Overcoming Problems of Integration**

I would appreciate your cooperation in completing the following questionnaire.
(Confidentiality will be assured at all times).

In my research about the six-year system, I would like your opinion on several subjects.
Your answer will enable me to better understand the problems of integration within the
six-year system.

I would like you to spare a few minutes of your time to answer the questions in the
attached questionnaire.

The information is privileged and will serve me only in my research. The questionnaire is
anonymous and you cannot be tied to the information you give.

I would appreciate it very much if you could fill in the enclosed questionnaire.

Thanking you in advance for your cooperation.

Tzafrir Shlomo

Following is a list of behaviours, which characterizes the functions of a principal of an
educational institution.

The left column describes the reality, i.e. describes what the principal is actually doing.
Please, fill in the left column of the questionnaire, circle the appropriate letter, (No' 1 is
the lowest and no' 5 is the highest).

In the right column, write your opinion or personal remarks.

No'	1	2	3	4	5	Reality	Answer
1	a	b	c	d	e	Your knowledge and professional ability Influence your authority at the institute.	
2	a	b	c	d	e	The teachers are part of the decision making process.	
3	a	b	c	d	e	The teachers share a common value system	
4	a	b	c	d	e	The staff has an official representation in all decision-making bodies.	
5	a	b	c	d	e	All the staff members participate in all the staff meetings.	
6	a	b	c	d	e	Individual goals are more important than the Institute's goals.	
7	a	b	c	d	e	The staff is given the possibility to solve problems according to their own decision.	
8	a	b	c	d	e	There is no coordination among the various factors of the system.	
9	a	b	c	d	e	Decisions made at the Institute are imposed on the staff.	
10	a	b	c	d	e	The principal has authority over the staff and responsibility for external relationships.	
11	a	b	c	d	e	Decisions and behaviour patterns are made without any personal initiative.	
12	a	b	c	d	e	Conflicts amongst the staff are solved through negotiations.	
13	a	b	c	d	e	Principles are determined after processes of negotiations.	
14	a	b	c	d	e	The staff works in small groups who share common interests.	
15	a	b	c	d	e	The goals are so vague that they can be used to justify almost any behaviour.	
16	a	b	c	d	e	The school has a problem in that its processes are not properly understood.	
17	a	b	c	d	e	The school is divided into groups which have internal coherence based on common values and goals.	
18	a	b	c	d	e	There is uncertainty over the relative power of the different parts of the institution.	
19	a	b	c	d	e	The school is becoming more dependent on external groups.	
20	a	b	c	d	e	The school focuses on the values, beliefs and shared norms of members of staff.	

21	a	b	c	d	e	The school is typically expressed through rituals and ceremonies.	
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On the following pages a number of statements about the six-year framework are presented. The purpose is to gather information regarding the actual attitudes of educators concerning these statements.

You will recognize that the statements are of such a nature that there are no correct or incorrect answers. I am interested only in your frank opinion of them.

Your responses will remain confidential, and no individual or school will be named in the report of this study. Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Instructions: Following are 73 statements about the six-year comprehensive school. Please indicate your personal opinion about each statement by ticking the appropriate response at the right of the statement. No' 1 is the lowest and no' 5 is the highest.

No	Question	1	2	3	4	5
1	To what extent has the six-year change affected the high school's academic curriculum?					
2	To what extent has the six-year change affected the time organisation of the school?					
3	To what extent has the six-year change affected the alienation between the teachers in both blocks?					
4	To what extent has the six-year change affected the versatility of the school to adjust to social and cultural changes?					
5	To what extent has the six-year change improved the teamwork between teachers?					
6	To what extent does the junior-high principal follow the principal's instructions?					
7	To what extent does the six-year change effect the cooperation between the head principal and the junior-high principal?					
8	To what extent has the six-year change affected the passage from the junior-high to the high school?					

9	To what extent has the six-year change affected the dropout rate?					
10	To what extent has the six-year change had an effect on integration?					
11	To what extent has the six-year change affected the negative opinion about the school?					
12	How has the six-year change affected the equipment in the investment resources?					
13	To what extent has the six-year change affected the value of the teachers in the eyes of the school management and to what extent have they been granted more important tasks and better classes?					
14	To what extent has the six-year change affected the principal's status in the junior-high and the high school?					
15	To what extent does the overt and covert struggle have between the principals of the junior-high and the high school?					
16	To what extent has the six-year change affected the teachers stand about the change process in the teaching programs and contents?					
17	To what extent has the six-year change affected the teachers who teach in both sections has had on remuneration in wages and status?					
18	To what extent does the six-year structure give the pupils a sense of belonging?					
19	To what extent does the six-year structure give a variety of the different levels?					
20	To what extent does the six-year continuity raise the motivation level amongst teachers to train themselves to teach in the six-year structure and not in the junior-high and high school alone?					
21	To what extent has the six-year structure created a better learning environment on the campus?					
22	To what extent has the continuity expanded social issues in the high school in relation to achievement and study?					
23	To what extent has the six-year structure created rituals and ceremonies in the school?					

24	To what extent has the six-year continuation softened the changeover from junior-high to the high school?					
25	To what extent does the continuation allow the use of new technologies?					
26	To what extent did the continuation influence the development of the independent learner?					
27	To what extent has the continuation affected the planning and development of social planning?					
28	To what extent does the six-year continuation cause strained relation between the junior-high principal and the head principal?					
29	To what extent have the interpersonal relations between the 2 principals affected the functioning of the school?					
30	To what extent have the interpersonal relations between the 2 principals affected the relationships between the teachers from both sections?					
31	To what extent does the six-year change have on reducing the number of teachers the pupils are acquainted with during their studies?					
32	To what extent does the six-year structure have on the definition of the duties of the teachers?					
33	To what extent does the six-year change have on the welding of the organizational structure of the teachers?					
34	To what extent has the six-year change affected the structure of joint management?					
35	To what extent has the six-year change affected the structure of a professional coordinator forum?					
36	To what extent has the six-year change affected the structure of study groups?					
37	To what extent has the six-year change affected the structure of multi-age study groups?					
38	To what extent has the six-year change affected the structure of buildings according to study subjects?					
39	To what extent has the primary school prepared the children for					

	junior-high in order to slide into the continuative structure?					
40	To what extent does the high school emphasis on the processes that began in the junior-high such as the development of social education?					
41	To what extent has the six-year structure affected modular continuation?					
42	To what extent has the six-year structure affected the linear continuations (math)?					
43	To what extent would separate management of both sections contribute positively to the six-year structure?					
44	To what extent does the linkage of both sections contribute to the better functioning of the school?					
45	To what extent has the structure given the child the appropriate settings?					
46	To what extent has the structure caused stress between both sections?					
47	To what extent did the high school principal transmit the goals of the high school in relation to the junior-high?					
48	To what extent did the six-year structure stress the school climate?					
49	To what extent did the six-year structure bring about cooperation with parents and community?					
50	To what extent did the six-year structure develop a dialogue amongst the pupils and between themselves and the teachers?					
51	To what extent has the continuation contributed to the transmission of values in school, utilizing flexible time between teacher and pupil?					
52	To what extent has the continuation affected the cultural climate within the school?					
53	To what extent does the six-year school continuity provide a combination for achievement with an enhanced social climate.					
54	To what extent does continuity cause problems between the relationships of younger and older pupils in connection to neglect					

	and taking advantage of the younger pupils.					
55	To what extent does continuity prevent students with a feeling of belonging to the school campus.					
56	To what extent do the high school teachers wish to work in the junior-high school.					
57	To what extent did the six-year school continuity provide acceleration in paper work.					
58	To what extent did continuity initiate acceleration in matriculation achievement.					
59	To what extent did continuity provide a change of attitude by teachers towards their work.					
60	To what extent did continuity provide a situation where pupils were neglected physically, academically and socially.					
61	To what extent does continuity provide a situation where there is a power struggle amongst the teachers having managerial functions.					
62	To what extent does continuity provide a situation where the junior high head teacher loses his/her authority.					
63	To what extent does continuity cause dissention amongst the management team.					
64	To what extent does continuity cause suspicion and lack of trust amongst the junior high staff.					
65	To what extent does continuity provide a situation where the emphasis is on the child rather than on achievement.					
66	To what extent does the principal help provide solutions amongst the staff.					
67	To what extent does continuity provide shared norms amongst the teachers.					
68	To what extent does continuity provide the head teacher with means to control power in the school.					
69	To what extent does the head teacher receive information from those closest to him.					
70	To what extent is there a gap between written norms and					

	operational norms.						
71	To what extent do the teachers feel they are part of the school?						
72	To what extent do the junior-high schoolteachers, feel they belong to the Ministry Of Education, as opposed to the high school teachers who belong to ORT?						
73	To what extent is there financial freedom?						

Appendix C

Interviews - Questions

Questions for interviews - given to the principals:

1. What is your opinion of the six-year continuity?
2. What, in your opinion, is the preferred educational structure of a secondary school?
3. Is it preferable to separate the junior-high from the high school in administrative matters?
4. What, in your opinion, are the problems of a six-year comprehensive where there is no administrative separation?
5. Does the principal have total responsibility for all pupils from the 7th - 12th grade, in the case of a school where there is continuity of the administration?
6. In your opinion, does the continuity within the six - year school allow the teachers to be versatile and flexible between the two schools?
7. Does the six-year school provide for social integration of both staff and students?
8. In order to provide pedagogical and administrative continuity, does the junior-high school have to be located within the high school campus?
9. *Cancelled - (In your opinion, should the high school be heterogeneous?)*
10. Does continuity ensure integration?
11. What do you think are the main problems of integration? What can be done to solve the problem of integration?
12. In your opinion, how does continuity affect the rate of high school dropouts?
13. Are there additional advantages to the six-year continuity that you have not already mentioned?
14. Those opposed to continuity claim that it prevents special attention being given to the age of puberty. What is your opinion?
15. Does the six-year school place the emphasis on academic work at a much earlier age?
16. Within the six-year school, do students' reputations continue with them from the junior high to the high school more than they did previously?
17. What is the desired organisational structure for six-year continuity regarding the subjects taught?

18. Does the success of six-year continuity, in all the areas mentioned depend on open pupil registration, as opposed to restricted feeded registration?
19. In the six-year school, is the time used to the fullest advantage?
20. Do you believe that the six-year school has brought benefits for the school?
21. What is the impact on school culture of the merging of two schools?
22. What is the impact of the management style of the two principals, on the process of integration?
23. What is the impact of social interaction between teacher teams, on integration?
24. Do shared norms exist between the teachers of both schools? (For example: the level of responsibility they take on, the characteristics of the teachers' work - does he/she arrive on time for his/her lesson, check homework, work more hours than the minimum required).
25. *Cancelled (How do the teachers respond to known situations regarding expressions and language?)*
26. Do teachers have shared values? (For example, do they place their own interests above those of the staff?)
27. Since the integration, which rituals and ceremonies are shared jointly by both schools? (For example: prize giving, memorial days, official beginning of the school year ceremony).
28. Since integration, which kind of symbols are shared by both schools? (For example: competitive sport, technological quizzes and competitions, joint plays and shows).

Questions for the interviews given to teachers.

1. What do you see as the problems of integration? For instance, the impact of management style on integration, and/or shared norms and beliefs.
2. What do you see as the benefits and advantages of integration?
3. How does the high school influence the running of the junior-high school and vice versa?
4. *Cancelled (What is the preferred administrative structure within the six-year school, and what are the reasons for this?)*
5. *Cancelled (What is the preferred division of year groups within the six-year school e.g. 2:2:2, or 3:3, or 2:4, or 4:2?)*

6. Do the junior-high teachers work happily and successfully in the high school and vice versa? If so why? If not why?
7. What is your general opinion of the continuity of the six-year school?

Questions for the interviews - given to students

1. What were the difficulties you experienced in the transition from the junior-high to the high school?
2. In your opinion, what should be done to minimise the difficulties in the transition?
3. Was there a lot of revision of material taught in the junior-high, when entering the high school?
4. Are the teaching methods and approaches within the six-year school, interesting and varied?
5. Is there continuity within the curriculum, starting from the 7th grade?
6. Do some of the teachers who taught in the junior-high also teach in the high school?
7. What are the advantages and disadvantages of teachers who teach in both schools?
8. In your opinion, what is the preferred school make up? A six-year comprehensive; a separate junior-high and high school or any other combination?

Interviews with teachers to check the learning and social environment within the school system

1. To what extent does the curriculum provide for extension?
2. How do the pupils refer to the teachers regarding their formal title or personal name?
3. Are the pupils able to discuss all matters openly and freely with the teachers?
4. Is the emphasis on academic achievement or social cohesion? Does it differ in different parts of the school?
5. Are priorities given to academic values as opposed to creative values and vice versa? Is this true for the whole school?
6. What are the norms and attitudes regarding discipline conduct within the school and behaviour?
7. Does the school have a policy to incorporate weak students?

8. Does the school place a particular emphasis on either the academic students or on the weaker students? Does it differ in different parts of the school?

Appendix D

Cohesive group, SMI and its Algorithm

There are many different possible groups of size N to which actor j belongs. From the point of view of this actor, the most highly segregated group (the group with the highest SMI) is the most cohesive group of that size. However, there may be other groups of different sizes to which actor j belongs and which reveal even higher segregative behaviour (higher SMI). In this case actor j will now regard the most highly segregated group (let us call it A) of all, as the cohesive group. At the same time, other actors in A may not see it as their most cohesive group. They may belong to another group with an even higher SMI, which, from their point of view, is their most cohesive group. Hence, A can be considered a cohesive group, only if all of its members regard it as such. A cohesive group by this definition will be named an S-clique (the 'S' stands for segregation) grounded on the segregation matrix index serves as a base for an algorithm for cohesive group detection in a social network (Pearce 1983). The algorithm has several features and advantages:

- Its criteria are based on the relative number and intensity of inward to outward interaction.
- There is no need for an outer threshold (to distinguish an S-clique from groups). In order to be an S-clique, the group's SMI may have any value provided it has a local maximum.
- The S-cliques that are revealed may have inner structures (sub-cliques), overlap and contain liaison.
- The SMI expresses cohesiveness properly, provided there are equal chances for each individual to choose and to be chosen.

