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An instructor's behavior may be perceived as more important or more effective by students whose cognitive style is compatible with the instructor's teaching style.

Students' Cognitive Style and Their Ratings of Their Teacher's Effectiveness

by Dona M. Kagan
and Yvonne Tixier y Vigil

What cognitive or affective variables can cause students in the same class to rate their teacher differently in terms of effectiveness? Even a tentative answer to this question might provide useful information about the ways in which students' perception of their teacher can delimit the effectiveness of instruction. In this context, students' evaluation of classroom instruction, as a topic for research, can be seen as a subcategory of a larger area of inquiry: variables that affect one's perception of others (Fox, Peck, Blattstein and Blattstein, 1983). To date, researchers have found a variety of psychosocial student characteristics that were significantly related to the way they perceived and evaluated their teacher's classroom behavior: e.g., students' self-esteem, psychological needs, educational values, styles of coping behavior, motivation (Crittenden and Norr, 1973; McKeachie, Lin and Mann, 1971; Rezler, 1965; Trent and Johnson, 1977).

What is the relationship between students' cognitive style and their ratings of a teacher's professional competency? Cognitive style, the characteristic way in which an individual perceives, organizes and interprets information, should logically affect the way students perceive and evaluate a teacher's classroom behavior. One dimension of students' cognitive style that had been examined in relation to their perception of a teacher was students' tendency to think concretely vs. abstractly. The definition of cognitive style as concrete vs. abstract thinking was derived from Harvey, Hunt and Schroder's (1961) comprehensive model of cognitive development. In the one study that attempted to relate concrete vs. abstract thinking to students' perception of their teacher, Ingersoll and Strigari (1983) focused on sixth graders and used an open-ended questionnaire. They found that students who tended to think concretely looked to their teacher for structure and authority. Those who tended to think abstractly saw effective teaching more in terms of encouraging individuality and independence.

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The definition of cognitive style as simply a tendency to be concrete or abstract in thinking seemed too broad to distinguish the many ways in which individuals can differ in their perceptions and judgments. Therefore, we chose to assess students with instruments representing a variety of definitions of cognitive style: the Myers–Briggs Type Indicator (Myers, 1962), the Inquiry Mode Questionnaire (Harrison and Bramson, 1977, 1982), and the Conflict Mode Questionnaire (Thomas and Kilmann, 1974). Each has been described briefly below.

The Myers–Briggs inventory includes four pairs of subscales that assess fundamental dimensions derived from Jungian personality theory: (a) **Sensing vs. Intuition**: Those who tend to sense prefer to work with known facts rather than look for new possibilities and relationships. They also prefer standard ways of solving problems, tend to be patient and good at precise kinds of work. Intuitive types rely more upon inspiration than on direct experience. They tend to pass over details quickly, see in flashes of insight and work on hunches. They also enjoy looking for new ways to solve problems. (b) **Thinking vs. Feeling**: Thinking types make decisions by logical analysis. They may not show emotion readily and are often uncomfortable dealing with others' feelings. In contrast, Feeling types tend to base judgments on subjective values, are aware of others' feelings, are sympathetic, and enjoy pleasing people. (c) **Perceiving vs. Judging**: Judging types prefer a planned, orderly way of life. They like to come to closure quickly, to arrive at decisions, and to work according to a schedule. In contrast, Perceiving types are more interested in obtaining and weighing data rather than rendering decisions. They tend to be uncomfortable with fixed patterns or structures, aim for pluralism and value the freedom to respond to impulse. (d) **Introvert vs. Extrovert**: Introverts relate more easily to the inner world of ideas than to people. They prefer quiet for concentration, are careful in detailed work, and tend to dislike sweeping statements. Extroverts relate more easily to the outer world of people, prefer variety and action, and may be impatient or act quickly without thinking (Jung, 1923/1971; Myers, 1962).

Students' scores on the Myers–Briggs inventory have been related to their preferences for various instructional formats at the college level (Smith, 1973). Results suggested that students who obtained relatively high scores on the Intuition or Perceiving scales preferred self-paced rather than group instruction. High scores on the Thinking subscale were associated with a preference for letting the instructor set course goals and for traditional methods of instruction. High scores on the Feeling scale were related to students' attendance at help sessions. Based on these results, it was logical to infer that students' scores on the Myers–Briggs scales would also relate significantly to preferences and assumptions regarding effective teaching.

"Inquiry Mode," as defined by Harrison and Bramson (1977), describes distinctly different ways in which individuals assess problems and arrive at decisions: the **Synthesist** tends to focus on underlying assumptions and abstract concepts; the **Idealist** focuses on process, values, and aspirations; the **Analyst** concentrates on method and plan, seeks predictability through ordering data and concrete detail; the **Realist** evaluates available resources and immediately apprehendable facts; the **Pragmatist** looks for the immediate payoff and uses incremental step-by-step thinking. These general approaches to decision making were based on the work of Churchman (1971) who identified five traditions of inquiry characteristic of Western philosophy. Mitroff and Pondy (1974) later labelled these "inquiry

modes" and suggested that they are used preferentially by individuals when making decisions. To date, the Inquiry Mode Questionnaire had not been used in relation to either students' or teachers' attitudes or behaviors.

The third definition of cognitive style was operationalized with the Conflict Mode Questionnaire (Thomas and Kilmann, 1974). It includes five subscales, each assessing characteristic ways in which an individual may react in situations where the concerns of two people appear to be incompatible: **Competing (forcing):** an individual pursues his/her own concerns at the other person's expense; **Accommodating (smoothing):** unassertive and cooperative style in which an individual neglects his/her own concerns to satisfy the concerns of the other person; **Avoiding (withdrawal):** the individual does not immediately pursue his/her own concerns OR that of the other person, but prefers not to address the conflict at all; **Collaborating (problem-solving):** an attempt to work with the other person to find some solution which satisfies the concerns of both parties; **Compromising (sharing):** the individual's objective is to find some expedient, mutually acceptable solution that partially satisfies both parties. No attempt is made to explore the issue in depth. Each of these styles represent varying degrees of **Assertiveness** vs. **Cooperativeness**. In operationalizing the concept of conflict mode, Thomas and Kilmann extended the theoretical work of Blake, Shepard and Mouton (1964) on intergroup conflict. This instrument also had never been examined in the context of students' or teachers' attitudes or behaviors.

Research Questions

Because the theme of perception and evaluation is so central to each of these measures of cognitive style, we anticipated that students' scores on them would be significantly related to the way they judged their teacher's classroom behavior. What proportion of the variance in teacher ratings could be accounted for by the entire set of subscales? A secondary purpose of this study was to examine interrelationships among subscales on the three inventories, since the instruments had never been compared. To what degree did they evaluate common perceptual, cognitive or affective dimensions? Did they really represent three distinctly different definitions of cognitive style?

Method

Subjects

Subjects were 107 college students enrolled in one of two sections of a course taught by an instructor in the Department of Teacher Education at the University of Nebraska at Omaha. The content of the course was the teaching of reading at the secondary level; it could be taken for undergraduate or graduate credit. Demographics of the subjects were as follows: males = 30%, females = 70%, 100% = juniors.

Instruments

Cognitive style. Students' cognitive style was measured with each of the following inventories:

1. **Myers–Briggs Type Indicator** (Myers, 1962): As described earlier, this contains eight separate subscales.

2. **Inquiry Mode Questionnaire (Harrison and Bramson, 1977):** Each of the five types of thinking were assessed with separate subscales. The inventory consists of 18 hypothetical situations followed by five possible responses, each characteristic of one mode of inquiry. Subjects are asked to rank the responses from 1 to 5, indicating how accurately

each response describes their own style of thinking. Ratings assigned to all responses belonging to the same inquiry mode are then summed across the 18 situations. Since a forced-choice ranking is used, the maximum score obtainable on any one subscale is 90, and the minimum is 18. Test–retest reliability was reported at .61 to .75 for the set of subscales (Bruvold, Parlette, Bramson and Bramson, 1983). Sample item: When there is a conflict between people over ideas, I tend to favor the side that (a) identifies and tries to bring out the conflict (Synthesist); (b) best expresses the values and ideals involved (Idealist); (c) best reflects my personal opinions and experience (Pragmatist); (d) approaches the situation with the most logic and consistency (Analyst); (e) expresses the argument most forcefully and concisely (Realist).

3. **Thomas–Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument (Thomas and Kilmann, 1974):** As described earlier, this inventory yields five separate subscales, indicating a respondent's tendency to use different methods for resolving interpersonal conflict. The items consist of a pair of statements describing possible behavioral responses in conflict situations. For each pair the respondent indicates which is not characteristic of his/her own behavior. Sample item: (a) I am usually firm in pursuing my goals. (b) I might try to soothe the other's feelings and preserve our relationship. Results reported by Yarnold (1981) suggested that the five conflict modes could be described generally in terms of instrumental (task-oriented) vs. expressive (process-oriented) behavior—a dichotomy similar to Thomas and Kilmann's distinction of Assertive vs. Cooperative styles.

Ratings of teacher effectiveness. Subjects' evaluation of the teacher's classroom competency was measured with 25 items taken from the Teaching Analysis of Students (TABS) questionnaire, routinely used by the Office for the Improvement of Instruction at the University of Nebraska at Omaha. Students rated the teacher on 25 specific skills (e.g., ability to use a variety of teaching techniques, to inspire excitement in the course, to ask easily understood questions, etc.) by selecting one of five alternative responses: excellent, generally good, mediocre, poor.

Procedure

Subjects completed all instruments during class hours. Participation was voluntary and totally anonymous to ensure honesty, particularly in regard to teacher ratings.

Data Analysis

Scores for subjects were computed on each subscale of cognitive style. In each case, higher scores indicated a greater preference for a particular style of thinking or behavior. Bivariate correlation matrices were computed separately for students in each of the two sections of the course, and the matrices were statistically compared via Box's **M**. Since the test was N.S., data from all subjects were pooled in all subsequent statistical tests. Twenty-six separate multiple regression analyses were conducted, predicting each item on the TABS questionnaire, as well as the summative score. Predictors in each equation consisted of scores obtained on the cognitive style scales.

Results and Discussion

Ratings on 14 TABS items could be predicted from measures of cognitive style (Table 1). For six of these items, students' scores on the Myers–Briggs Extrovert scale were positively correlated with the ratings assigned to the instructor: teacher's ability to explain course objectives,

arouse interest, answer questions clearly, generate or conduct class discussions, and promote mutually respectful relationships. Extroversion is defined in part as sensitivity to nuances of personality and social interaction, so it was logical that relatively extroverted students would have been particularly sensitive to the common theme underlying these particular TABS items: the effectiveness of communication and interpersonal relationships.

Two other Myers–Briggs scales emerged as significant predictors: Perceiving and Feeling. Each was positively correlated with ratings assigned to the instructor's ability to arouse interest and to inspire excitement in the course. It was logical that both these skills would be important to students whose cognitive style could be described as more affective than analytic (i.e., Perceiving being the opposite of Judging; Feeling the opposite of Thinking). Students who scored high on these two scales may have equated effective

teaching with the ability to generate positive affective response among students.

Scores obtained by students on the Pragmatist or the Synthesist scales of the Inquiry Mode Questionnaire were associated with lower teacher ratings, as were scores on the Competing or Compromising scales of the Conflict Mode inventory. In contrast, scores on the Collaborating scale and on the Idealist scale were each positively related to one or more TABS items. Viewed together, one could infer that the least analytic and the most social dimensions of cognitive style tended to be positively related to teacher ratings. Synthesists, preferring to impose their own organization upon information, may have viewed structured, organized teaching behaviors as negative characteristics. Similarly students who approached interpersonal conflict with a Competing style of interaction, may have disliked more assertive teacher behavior. The Collaborative ap-

Table 1
Multiple Regression Analyses
(N = 107)

Dependent variable	R	Predictor	cum. R^2	Beta weight
How would you rate your instructor's:				
Ability to explain course objectives.	.36	Extrovert (Myers–Briggs)	.13	.357
Ability to arouse interest when introducing an instructional activity.		Feeling	.09	.393
		Perceiving	.16	.369
		Extrovert	.22	.299
	.53	Sensing (all Myers–Briggs)	.27	.281
Skill in making clear the distinction between major and minor topics.	.28	Collaborative (Conflict Mode)	.07	.281
Ability to answer questions clearly and concisely.	.29	Extrovert	.09	.293
Overall effectiveness as a discussion leader.	.29	Extrovert	.09	.289
Ability to get students to participate in class discussions.	.29	Extrovert	.09	.293
Ability to wrap things up before moving on to a new topic.	.28	Synthesist (Inquiry Mode)	.08	-.283
Explanation of precisely how your performance is to be evaluated.	.28	Sensing (Myers–Briggs)	.08	.278
Selection of materials and activities which are varied and thought-provoking.	.34	Intuition	.11	-.334
Management of day-to-day administrative details.		Collaborating (Conflict Mode)	.14	.393
	.48	Perceiving (Myers–Briggs)	.23	.296
Flexibility in offering options to individual students.		Pragmatist (Inquiry Mode)	.17	-.491
	.49	Judging (Myers–Briggs)	.24	.267
Availability for personal consultation.		Idealist (Inquiry Mode)	.10	.315
	.43	Compromising (Conflict Mode)	.19	-.290
Ability to relate to people in ways that promote mutual respect.	.35	Extrovert	.12	.351
Ability to inspire excitement or interest in the content of the course.		Perceiving (Myers–Briggs)	.08	.333
		Competing (Conflict Mode)	.17	-.322
	.51	Collaborating (Conflict Mode)	.26	.304

Note. Significant regression equations could not be derived for each of the following TABS items: Explanation of the objectives for each class session and learning activity; explanation of the work expected from each student; ability to maintain a clear relationship between the course content and the course objectives; skill in clarifying the relationships among the various topics treated in the course; skill in adjusting the rate at which new ideas are covered so that the material can be followed and understood; ability to clarify material which needs elaboration; speaking skill; ability to ask easily understood questions; performance in periodically informing you of your progress; ability to use a variety of teaching techniques; ability to relate the subject matter to other academic disciplines and to real world situations.

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Educational Considerations

proach to conflict resolution, the most social interactive style, and the Idealist approach to evaluating information, the most affective cognitive style, were each associated with higher teacher ratings. Thus, as with the results concerning the Myers–Briggs scales, students who seemed the most sensitive to social interaction, inclined to evaluate information in affective rather than analytic or judgmental manners, tended to assign higher ratings to their teacher on a number of TABS items.

We could think of several explanations for this pattern of correlations. These primarily affectively oriented students could have used low standards to evaluate their instructor, thereby accounting for higher ratings. Students sensitive to social interaction might also have inflated ratings in an effort to spare their instructor hard feelings. What seemed most logical, however, was that the aspects of teacher behavior assessed by the predictable TABS items (Table 1) were of special importance to extroverted, affectively oriented students. They may not only have noticed these behaviors to a greater degree than other kinds of students, but, because they valued them, may have "rewarded" their instructor with higher ratings.

Factors Underlying All Three Inventories of Cognitive Style

After 16 iterations, seven factors emerged with eigenvalues over 1.00, together accounting for 70 percent of the variance among all the cognitive style subscales. Varimax factor loadings have been listed in Table 2.

Factor 1 was characterized by a positive correlation with the Sensing scale of the Myers–Briggs, a negative correlation with the Intuition scale, and by a negative correlation with the Idealist scale of the Inquiry Mode Questionnaire. This suggested a dimension of cognitive style consisting of an affinity for apprehendable, concrete data, and a non-intuitive, non-idealistic attitude. Factor 2 was characterized only by the bipolar Myers–Briggs dimension of Perceiving rather than Judging—the tendency to analyze and weigh information rather than to rush to closure. Factor 3 combined the Myers–Briggs bipolar dimension of Thinking rather than Feeling, the Synthesist scale (Inquiry Mode), and the Compromising scale (Conflict Mode). This cluster suggested an intellectual rather than an affective approach to evaluating information and resolving conflicts. More than any of the other factors extracted, the third was successful in relating scales across inventories, extracting a common theme of a synthetic and reasoned cognitive style. The tendency toward synthesis was apparent even in the Compromising scale, a manner of resolving conflicts that most completely merges two opposing sides.

Two scales from the Inquiry Mode loaded on the fifth factor: Analyst (positive weight) and Pragmatist (negative), suggesting a tendency to weigh a situation without considering the immediate costs or benefits to oneself. Three scales from the Conflict Mode instrument loaded on the sixth factor: Collaborating (positive weight), Accommodating (negative), and Avoiding (negative). This seemed to suggest a style of resolving conflicts through a true give-and-take process, neither acceding to the other party's demands nor avoiding the conflict entirely. The last factor included the Realist scale (positive weight) from the Inquiry Mode and the Competing scale (negative) from the Conflict Mode. Apparently Realists preferred to resolve conflicts in a non-competitive manner—perhaps because they regarded it as more likely to be successful.

With the exception of Factor 4, on which only the Myers–Briggs Introvert/Extrovert dimension loaded, all the factors appeared to represent different aspects of an essentially realistic cognitive style. None could be described as affective or non-intellectual. Instead, scales from the respective inventories fell into clusters that described various non-idealistic, affective-free approaches to perceiving and evaluating information. One could conclude that, in part, all three inventories measured a few common variations of a primarily analytic cognitive style. This was best reflected in the composition of Factor 3, which combined scales from all three inventories in a highly synthetic mode of evaluating data and resolving personal conflicts.

Table 2
Varimax Factor Loadings
(N = 107)

Factor 1: Sensing rather than knowing by intuition. (18% of variance)

Sensing (Myers–Briggs)	.885
Intuition (Myers–Briggs)	-.868
Idealist (Inquiry Mode)	-.506

Factor 2: Perceiving rather than judging. (14% of variance)

Judging (Myers–Briggs)	-.988
Perceiving (Myers–Briggs)	.923

Factor 3: Thinking rather than feeling, and resolving conflicts by compromising. (13% of variance)

Thinking (Myers–Briggs)	.867
Feeling (Myers–Briggs)	-.862
Compromising (Conflict Mode)	.444
Synthesist (Inquiry Mode)	.350

Factor 4: Introversion. (8% of variance)

Introvert (Myers–Briggs)	.983
Extrovert (Myers–Briggs)	-.938

Factor 5: Analytic rather than pragmatic in examining and judging information. (7% of variance)

Analyst (Inquiry Mode)	.970
Pragmatist (Inquiry Mode)	-.522

Factor 6: Resolving conflicts through collaboration. (6% of variance)

Collaborating (Conflict Mode)	.685
Accommodating (Conflict Mode)	-.629
Avoiding (Conflict Mode)	-.473

Factor 7: Realist in evaluating information; noncompetitive in situations of personal conflict. (5% of variance)

Competing (Conflict Mode)	-.706
Realist (Inquiry Mode)	.634

Summary

Cognitive style is a broadly defined variable than can include intellectual and personality traits which affect the way an individual perceives and evaluates information and the behaviors of others. Students in the same class appeared to rate their instructor's performance, in part, according to their own cognitive style. Some of the instructor's behaviors and skills may have been perceived as more important or more effective by students, depending upon

ate School Renewal Teams (SRT) at schools of each level. This format would provide key school personnel such as principals, assistant principals, guidance counselors, department heads and teachers with opportunities to plan and promote the essentials of articulation. The salient features of the SRT concept are:

1. Each SRT meeting would have a planned, printed agenda.
2. Minutes of each meeting would be taken and distributed to all SRT members.
3. Each SRT meeting would have a discussion leader. This individual would come from the central office staff. The presence of key central office figures is crucial, since their attendance would lend authority and credence to a school district's intent to implement articulation.
4. SRT members would meet formally once a month. Guidance counselors, department chairpersons, representative subject matter teachers and principals would meet initially in separate teams. At periodic intervals all SRT members would meet collectively.
5. Agenda building for the SRT meetings is crucial. Prior to the meeting of each group, a brief questionnaire (see sample) would be mailed to all participants and returned before the group met. The purpose of the questionnaire is to solicit topics of interest that would be addressed.

Purposes

The purposes of the SRT Format are as follows:

1. To contribute to improved dialogue between levels of schools.
2. To assist a school district to plan more effectively by encouraging participants to meet on a regularly scheduled basis.
3. To encourage planning between levels of schooling with a view towards initiating communication among other district personnel i.e., district supervisors–principals, principals–school community representatives, superintendent–building levels, etc.
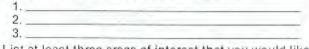
Implications

The SRT Format could be extended to many areas of a school district. For example, bringing new teachers together from different school levels could be a significant aspect of orientation activities at the start of the school year. The concept of School Renewal Teams fosters a team approach to school planning and addresses the problem of dialogue across faculties and staffs of different school levels. SRTs promote the idea that staffs from different schools can be interactive and proactive collaborators. An effective articulation format, however, must do more than help participants react to problems. Such a format should be based on the premise that junior and senior high school personnel should be better connected. Mutual support is the imperative. The SRT Format is designed with the principles of articulation as revealed in the literature in mind. An SRT can help erase barriers and build bridges because the process engages participants in focused discussions about practices and issues that have a direct bearing on the problems of articulation.

School Renewal Team Questionnaire

Date: _____   Name: _____
Position: _____   School: _____

I am very much interested in seeing that we as a school district implement plans and programs effectively. One of our efforts is to bring together personnel from the junior and senior high schools. You will be an important part of this endeavor. Meetings are planned with your counterparts. In order for this process to become a meaningful one, I am requesting that you complete this form. Your comments will comprise agenda items that will be discussed in future meetings.

Superintendent's Statement

I. List at least three questions about how the articulation process will work that you would like answered:

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

II. List at least three areas of interest that you would like to discuss with a colleague from the junior/senior high school:

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

III. List at least three ways you would like to cooperate with a colleague from the junior/senior high school:

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

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There are certain practices which have a direct bearing on what is needed to enhance the connection between the staffs of different school levels.

School Renewal Teams: A Format To Implement Articulation Between Junior and Senior High Schools

by Arnie Cooper

The need to effect a transition from junior high to senior high school indicates an "unfortunate gap" in our secondary education system (NASSP NewsLeader, 1985, p. 15). The importance of articulating programs and plans from one level to another is both a long-standing matter of concern as well as a major issue in contemporary educational practice. Gruhn (1947) not only cited articulation as one of the major historical functions of the junior high school but he also staked out in 1962 a compelling role in the articulation process: "The junior high school has the major responsibility for providing leadership among teachers at all grade levels to maintain satisfactory articulation in the total school program." (p. 5).

The NASSP Committee and Council on Middle Level Education cited the importance of articulating "instructional and school programs across the middle level–high school continuum" (p. 2) in a significant policy recommendation in 1983. This statement extolled the virtues of cooperative planning and challenged school administrators to begin "an effective local study" to improve interaction between levels of schooling.

The purposes of this paper are to review the relevant literature on articulation that addresses dialogue across faculties and staffs and to propose a format that can contribute to improved communication between the junior and senior high school.

The Practice of Articulation

Articulation refers to the "systematic coordination of course and/or program content within and between educa-

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tional institutions to facilitate the continuous and efficient progress of students from grade to grade, [and] school to school." (Houston, 1984, p. 18). A review of the related literature on articulation reveals that there are certain practices that have a direct bearing on what is needed to enhance the connection between the staffs of different school levels. Gruhn (1947) believed that satisfactory articulation demanded that "teachers in each school unit be kept informed regarding the objectives, learning activities, and instructional methods of other school units" (p. 416). Byers (1955) noted that articulation involved not only "bringing people together to work on common problems but providing for the exchange of materials and information through records, reports, bulletins and other means (p. 417). While Ball (1960) cited a "lack of professional interaction" (p. 419) between staffs as a major factor inhibiting the success of articulation, Campanale (1961) discovered that teachers recommended practices of a "more professional nature" beyond meeting with colleagues (p. 423).

Brinkopf (1962) described a student advisement effort implemented by school counselors from different school levels that was suggested by a school superintendent, a significant source of support and encouragement. Pew (1980) also found that commitment and leadership from the central district administration were needed in order that articulation across professional staffs became more than a token effort. Leiter (1981) devised a program that relied significantly upon interschool conferences between teachers while Nasca (1981) touted teacher communication to alleviate problems when gifted and talented students leave one school level for another. When Fowler (1982) examined the prerequisites for the successful transition of students with special needs, she concluded that teachers and administrators needed to share information regarding teaching strategies, behavior management and curriculum activities.

The Joint Statement of the NASSP Committee and Council on Middle Level Education (1983) called upon principals and district administrators to facilitate the solution of transition problems by defining "the kind and degree in which such articulation problems are reflected in program, methodology and adjustment of students as they matriculate to the high school" (p. 4). Hord and associates (1983) maintained that improved articulation between school levels could occur when "leadership cadres" of professional personnel met on a regular basis. These "cross-school groups" (p. 6), aided and abetted by central office personnel, generated activities that enabled participants to develop better communication.

From a number of different vantage points, practitioners of articulation believe, then, that the process consists of several key ingredients:

1. professional interactions among a wide range of personnel
2. an informational function where materials and methodologies are shared
3. visible and active support from central office personnel

The literature on articulation practices offers an integrated and consistent framework for assessing the articulation process. The centrality of interdependence between school level personnel is difficult to ignore.

School Renewal Teams: An Articulation Device

Format

One way to accomplish articulation of both purpose and programs for the junior and senior high school is to cre-

ate School Renewal Teams (SRT) at schools of each level. This format would provide key school personnel such as principals, assistant principals, guidance counselors, department heads and teachers with opportunities to plan and promote the essentials of articulation. The salient features of the SRT concept are:

1. Each SRT meeting would have a planned, printed agenda.
2. Minutes of each meeting would be taken and distributed to all SRT members.
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The SRT Format could be extended to many areas of a school district. For example, bringing new teachers together from different school levels could be a significant aspect of orientation activities at the start of the school year. The concept of School Renewal Teams fosters a team approach to school planning and addresses the problem of dialogue across faculties and staffs of different school levels. SRTs promote the idea that staffs from different schools can be interactive and proactive collaborators. An effective articulation format, however, must do more than help participants react to problems. Such a format should be based on the premise that junior and senior high school personnel should be better connected. Mutual support is the imperative. The SRT Format is designed with the principles of articulation as revealed in the literature in mind. An SRT can help erase barriers and build bridges because the process engages participants in focused discussions about practices and issues that have a direct bearing on the problems of articulation.

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Date: _____   Name: _____

Position: _____   School: _____

I am very much interested in seeing that we as a school district implement plans and programs effectively. One of our efforts is to bring together personnel from the junior and senior high schools. You will be an important part of this endeavor. Meetings are planned with your counterparts. In order for this process to become a meaningful one, I am requesting that you complete this form. Your comments will comprise agenda items that will be discussed in future meetings.

Superintendent's Statement

I. List at least three questions about how the articulation process will work that you would like answered:

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

II. List at least three areas of interest that you would like to discuss with a colleague from the junior/senior high school:

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

III. List at least three ways you would like to cooperate with a colleague from the junior/senior high school:

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

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Some philosophical questions need to be considered before any educational contribution that assessment centers have to offer can be intelligently judged.

The Homogenized and Pureed Principalship

by G. Daniel Harden

Recently there has been a spate of symposia, conferences, and special publications dedicated to the detailed consideration of the principalship. Much of this attention eminates from the laudable emphasis placed on the leadership role of the principal by the Effective School Research. Unfortunately, a great deal of that which has been written has related only to some very superficial behavioral observations which have missed the point of why the principal is the key to an effective school community.

Philosophical shallowness and/or vagueness is at the root of the failure to perceive some of the more important roles of the principal, as it usually is in any serious discussion of general education. How does one see the principalship and what is expected of it? What characteristics should a principal have and how do they affect the position? These questions are especially pertinent now that there is a movement developing for the establishment of regional assessment centers to screen potential administrators. Some philosophical questions need be honestly asked and considered before any educational contribution that assessment centers have to offer can be intelligently judged. Superficial assessments may be worse than none. Are the assessment centers simply assessing certain administrative strategies preferred by prospective principals or are they delving into the more profound foundational contours of their educational thought? This writer suspects that the more superficial profile is being sought.

There appears that there are at least three schools of educational administration that reflect substantial philosophical variations. The usual distinctions of authoritarian vs. democratic leadership or formal vs. functional leadership styles are ephemeral divisions at best. While they might indicate something in terms of a potential administrator's *modus operandi*, they shed little light on the vision that the principal has of the mission of the school enterprise or his place in it.

The first position, that supported in the main by those who have drunk deeply of the waters of educational psychology and philosophical positivism, measure the worth of an administrator by his ability to develop measurable goals and meet them. The outcomes are students who possibly are problem solvers, rational thinkers, and fit rather well into the Yuppie world of the Silicon Valley. Unseen dangers may well threaten from what Ortega y Gasset referred to as the "terror of the laboratory," but they go unheeded and little noticed by these 20th century inheritors of the positivist faith. The second group is composed of public administrators who, despite the periodic use of trendy rhetorical camouflage, see their task as one of balancing competing public interest groups and mediating differences. These administrators are concerned primarily with the appearance of technical and environmental modernity and progress, and the introduction of allegedly new techniques and organizational structures. Their foremost interest in education is, however, with the package in which it can be presented to the taxpaying public. These public servants are big on public relations, collegial decision-making processes, and Zig Zigler. The third group see its role as leaders in a learning community. A full understanding of all human experience within the cultural context of place and time, encouraging and directing the constantly changing syntheses of disciplined and creative minds, is the educational environment desired by these leaders. The mastery of specific goals are important primarily in the context of preparing the individual to deal intelligently with the timeless problems of both the material and non-material world. To develop a true *amor intellectualis* would be the final reward within their educational communities. The industrial schema is replaced with an almost ecclesial model. Metaphorically speaking, the picture of Lee Iacocca is replaced by one of Plato, the Holy Father, or the Baghwahn Rajneesh. These three groups are distinct and contrast sharply. True, like any effort at categorizing human behavior and understanding, there are few true "types." Most practitioners are hybrids, but hybrids with dominant characteristics and inclinations. That these delineations are most often not recognized in the current round of discussion is noteworthy.

In reality, we are forced to admit that each group has its own membership and constituency. Turf is jealously guarded and animosities often carefully nurtured. The first group finds its natural constituency on the university campus in the departments of psychology and curriculum. The second group centers on upwardly mobile school administrators—the ones depicted a few years ago by white shoes and belt cum Lion's Club pin and now noted for their slim line attache case and running shoes. Their department at the University is usually administration. The guru–leader of the third group normally must create his own constituency on the basis of personal and educational voltage and charisma. The new emphasis on coaching, taken partially from the Paideia formulation, seems to have implications favorable to this school of administrative leadership.

Assessment Centers

The establishment of assessment centers across the country raise a number of very real concerns among those who believe in a variety of legitimate educational leadership modes. Much of the Effective School's research indicates that strong building level leadership is vitally important, but is not as clear on the exact nature of that leadership. Some have developed 27 characteristics of effective leadership and some have gone over the 127 mark. If Professor Smith developed 500 (e.g. "A successful administrator smiles more frequently than an unsuccessful administrator,") they would probably all be valid to varying degrees, but they would not constitute a formula which would guarantee a successful educational leader. Nor do they contribute much to a better understanding of the actual philosophy of

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a prospective administrative candidate.

A two- or even three-day assessment period in terms of judging leadership characteristics is doubtful in terms of evaluative criteria. Most of the characteristics sought are questionable in terms of their empirical measurability. What we can best label this approach is assessment through Rorschach. Was the assessed properly aggressive or improperly passive during simulated discussion No. 3? Are the raters themselves as fresh, open and observant at the end of their evaluative marathon as they are at the start? Do not the individual personalities of the raters, after extended exposure, begin to chemically interact with those of the subjects and, thus, develop profile renderings based on personal proclivity rather than on empirical datum?

An assessment process such as that developed by NASSP and similar groups is vulnerable to the theater major. Verbal agility and the ability to quickly read desired responses may well help the educational administrator in the field, but is less important than many other characteristics desired of someone interested in developing a career in legitimate educational leadership. It is made to order for the person who knows how to skillfully manipulate jargon, avoid the pitfalls that plaque and bedevil all serious educational thinkers, and fit the mold. A question worth a moment of thought is how well would William Torrey Harris have done as he tried to discuss his philosophical Hegelianism with his evaluators or how would Mortimer Adler relate to the gentlefolk from the NASSP assessment team? Assessment center dependence on the empirical methodologies of educational and leadership psychology ensures a bias toward strategic thinking as opposed to philosophical thinking.

We talk quite a bit in education about risk-taking. Most of the verbiage is just that—empty speculation. The educational community generally has been very conservative about protecting its own flank. An example has been the reserve shown toward any program that would tend to put the public educational system in a truly competitive position vis a vis any system of non-public instruction. A chill goes down the collective spine of our national organizations at the mention of educational vouchers or of legitimizing and enriching the value of the home school experience. The fact is that someone who suggests team teaching is still being loudly heralded as a risk-taking innovator. When the foundational questions are being considered there is no risk taking, nor is there any reason to believe that those who would be evaluating potential administrators would recognize the worth and value of nonconformist educational thinking. As long as innovation is limited to the reorganization of observably superficial modes of instruction, no real danger exists. But it is advised to not start tampering with institutional missions and priorities or those with vested interests will turn around and bite the tamperer. Does this not have an implication relative to the assessment center process? There are delicate areas in educational speculation and fairly safe havens. Surely no practical person interested in getting through the assessment center procedure with high recommendations is going to actually risk the former with a potential career hanging in the balance. The appearance of novelty and innovative thinking must, within this format, replace actual risk taking.

No one can now predict the future of the move toward assessment centers with any certitude. To the extent that they survive, one might suspect that they will tend to dull the cutting edges, recommending primarily those who will fit pleasantly (or unpleasantly) into the corporate industrial model. Those who are interested in quality of cultural product might well have a more difficult time getting into public school administration. But the demand for such schooling will remain, if not within the public school system, then without. If public schools remain largely fixated with the readjustment of their methodologies and fail to enlist administrators as well as teachers who are versed in those foundational areas upon which the entire educational superstructure is built, they are the losers.

Every institution of higher learning needs understanding and support from the society which it exists to serve.

The Constituencies of Higher Education

by W. M. Perel

In recent years the question of the purpose of institutions of higher learning has risen again and again. What are universities and colleges for? Whom do they serve? These questions are more basic and must be answered before such questions as "Who should control or govern colleges and universities?" The faculty have traditionally felt that the university existed for and was to be controlled by its members. Administrators have accepted this view and have attempted to justify their control by referring to themselves as faculty. If one thinks of a university as an institution which preserves, transmits, and adds to knowledge, then clearly the major role of the faculty as scholars, teachers, and researchers is clear.

This traditional view was openly challenged by student militants during the '60s. Students voiced the cry for "relevance" which was soon taken by some faculty members and some administrators, even though no generally accepted definition of the term was ever enunciated.

An effect of student activism was an erosion of the powers of both the faculty and the administration. Students ceased to think of themselves solely as consumers of the academic product, or customers, if you will, and began to demand a more active role not only in more or less generally accepted student affairs questions, but in academic matters as well. Committees of all sorts now have student members. On some campuses students have the power to hire and fire coaches and sit on search committees which hire both administrators and faculty. Student began to think of colleges and universities as institutions which existed for them, which meant that they emphasized the university's role as a transmitter of knowledge and deemphasized research and scholarship, not seeing any connection between the two.

Actually, there are four constituent groups which compose a University Community. These are the students, the faculty, the administration, and what for lack of a better name will be called the "larger society." While these four groups have composed the university community in all times and all places, their relative importance and power has varied from time to time and place to place. The role of students and faculty are best known so that the discussion

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here will concentrate on the latter two groups, but there is no intention to downgrade the importance or necessity of both students and faculty.

Historically, the role of the faculty has been paramount. A community of scholars gathered together to study and to learn. In time, students attached themselves to the community of scholars as apprentices. There was little or no administration, as such. All of the myriad questions of physical plant and equipment are relatively recent and will be ignored here, because the focus is on groups of people. As mentioned above, students particularly within the last 10 or 20 years have sought and gained a larger role within the university community. Perhaps student militant rhetoric should not be taken too seriously, but sometimes students seemed to totally ignore all of the other constituents which compose the institution they were seeking to control. Naturally, they failed.

First, let us define terms. By students I mean persons who pay tuition or who enroll as students presumably to learn under the direction of faculty. Students differ from faculty, even though faculty members also continue to learn, principally because the faculty member is paid a salary for his services to students, and the student typically pays a fee for the privilege of his association with the faculty. Some faculty members are fond of saying, "I have learned as much from my students as they have learned from me," but such remarks are not to be taken too seriously. As a wise man once said, "In order to teach a dog tricks, you must first know more than the dog." A faculty member is presumably an expert within the discipline or area in which he was hired. If the faculty member does not know more than the students about his own discipline, he is clearly incompetent and should be removed from the faculty. Faculty members are persons employed by the university because of their knowledge, training, skill, or credentials within some discipline, for the purpose of transmitting such knowledge to other persons called students.

Perhaps unfairly, but primarily to avoid too many divisions, the administrators are defined to be all employees of the college or university who do not qualify as faculty members by the definition given above. Thus the administration includes secretaries, librarians, electricians, gardeners, and the like as well as presidents, vice presidents, deans, and associate deans, budget officers, fund raisers, museum curators, and others too numerous to mention. Having given the above definition, it is now proposed to concentrate only upon those administrators who exercise control over faculty members in some direct chain of command manner. However, the stake which the other university employees have in a healthy University atmosphere and sound university fiscal policies should not be ignored.

One problem is that deans, academic vice presidents, and even presidents like to refer to themselves as faculty members when addressing faculty meeting and no doubt some of them even feel that they are faculty members. They often hold academic rank within one of the departments of the university and may be highly qualified within a particular discipline. But they do not qualify as faculty members by the definition given above. They were not hired by the university to preserve, increase, or transmit knowledge, but were hired as administrators because of administrative experience or skills they possessed or were thought to possess. Certainly, at the level of president, one finds many persons who are utterly unqualified academically to hold an assistant professorship in any department, but who acquired their administrative skills and experience in industry or in the military. Some such presidents are highly success-

ful and have served their universities well. But they were and are not faculty members, and they neither speak nor think as faculty members do.

Academic administration has become much more complicated within the past decade. It is no longer clear that a professor can be made into a dean over night and learn his administrative duties on the job. There are now special training programs in academic administration and some institutions employ deans and other administrators who have been through such programs. Such administrators are not professors and have never been professors. Even though they hold a doctorate in some discipline represented in the university's curriculum and even though they occasionally teach a course, they were not hired because of their discipline training and they were not hired to teach. They are rewarded in terms of promotion to a higher level of administration or in terms of salary increases for their performance as administrators, as they should be. Indeed, they can lose their positions by inadequate administrative performance, no matter how great their teaching or research, as they should.

Of course, there are still many deans and other administrators who have come from the ranks of the faculty. They have been assistant professors, then associate professors, then professors, and perhaps department chairmen before moving on into the higher levels of administration. Are not such persons still faculty members when they become deans? The answer is clearly NO. The chief difference between the two types is that the latter is more secure in that he generally has "retreat rights" to the department of which he was formerly a member, whereas the other types of dean may have no place to go within the university which employs him if he should decide or if his superiors should decide that he should no longer be dean. But in their dealings with faculty, students, and others within the university community there is little difference between the two. When a professor becomes a dean, he becomes further and further removed from his discipline as the years pass. More important, he stands on a different platform than does even a department chairman and it is natural that the university and the world look different to him. His concerns are with budgets, enrollment, administrative and other problems which a typical faculty member ordinarily ignores. The better administrator he is the more remote from faculty concerns he becomes. There are no doubt examples of great professors who become great deans and continued to be professors, but typically the better the academician, the less likely he is to become a dean or want to become a dean.

Now that many institutions have adopted collective bargaining, the line between administrators and faculty members is more clearly drawn. Administrators are not members of the unit and faculty members are. By this definition department heads or chairpersons are sometimes faculty members and sometimes administrators, but never both. Without collective bargaining the determination of group membership for department heads is less clear, but usually these persons are faculty members because they still maintain contact with the discipline and they were often hired for the same reasons and with the same qualifications as other faculty members.

Administrators are concerned with maintaining themselves in office. This consideration is much more important to an administrator than to a faculty member because the faculty member can normally expect to acquire tenure in his position, whereas tenure is not usually available in an administrative post. Administrators support research because good faculty research enhances the reputation of the insti-

tution which in turn reflects favorably on the administration. Administrators also support good teaching, since poor teaching not only reflects unfavorably on the institution, but also because it may affect enrollment adversely and often causes student unrest. However, these matters of faculty concern are important to the administration primarily as they affect the real administrative goals which are typically growth . . . growth in enrollment, in physical plant, and in reputation. The emphasis on growth may cause the administration to support programs of doubtful academic merit, in the view of many faculty members, but which will nevertheless attract additional students.

In any case it seems clear that administrators and faculty members are different groups of persons. For a stronger statement of difference, see "Impolite Speculations on Higher Education" by Edward L. Galligan, **Bulletin, American Association of University Professors,** April 1977.

But the really neglected constituent group is that which was referred to above as the "larger society." For a state university, the larger society is the population of the state, represented by a governor and legislature, which, in turn, often selects a governing board which, in turn, hires and sometimes fires the institution's chief administrative officer. For a regional state university, the population of the region may have somewhat more say, even though the support comes from the state as a whole. The larger society for a private institution may be the alumni, or the leaders of a particular religious denomination which supports the institution. In either case, it is the larger society which pays both to establish and to operate the university, as student tuition and fees in neither case pay more than a fraction of the total cost. There is an ancient saying: "He who pays the piper calls the tune." Faculty members and students may not like either the quotation nor its implications for higher education, but it still expresses the opinion of many members of the larger society.

Some state legislatures have by statute decreed that all students enrolled in the state universities shall enroll in such courses as state history or government, or perhaps American history, as requirement for graduation. Other states require that state university students be taught "anti-communism" or that they not be taught evolution. The consideration here is not whether such requirements are academically sound, but rather that they were not imposed by academicians for academic reasons but that they are imposed by politicians for political reasons. Some states have even defined faculty teaching load by statute. Private institutions often have required courses in religion, chapel attendance, dress codes, and a whole host of other requirements imposed by the governing board in response to demand from the larger society which the board represents. In the February 1977 issue of the **Bulletin of the American Association of University Professors** appears an article titled, "Statement on Government of Colleges and Universities." Within this article appears: "When such external requirements influence course content and manner of instruction or research, they impair the educational effectiveness of the institution." Even though the Association of Governing Boards of Universities and Colleges had a hand in the preparation of this statement, it seems clear that boards and legislatures will continue to exercise the control, examples of which are cited above.

The whole problem of ultimate control is further complicated by the intrusion of the federal government into the affairs of both private and state-supported institutions. Particularly since World War II, many institutions have come to rely upon massive infusions of federal funding. The current

demands for affirmative action programs are only the most recent manifestation of the power of the piper payer to call the tune. The availability of research funds in one area as opposed to another has influenced the direction of faculty research. During the "Sputnik" era, the funds made available by the National Science Foundation made engineering, the sciences, and mathematics much better able to attract both undergraduates and graduate students. In short, society determined a need for more scientists and engineers and the pump was primed to produce them. Now that society is more concerned about energy and the environment, other pumps are being primed.

Why is a particular institution of higher learning founded? Many students believe that a state establishes a medical school because some of its young people wish to become physicians, and that state education or normal colleges were founded because some of the young people of the state wished to become teachers. However, the truth is that, for the most part, society acted from a sense of need for the product of such institutions rather than from a desire to supply opportunity to its young citizens.

In other words states establish medical schools, dental schools, law schools, etc., in order to fill society's need for doctors, dentists, and lawyers. It may be argued that law and medicine represent ancient academic components of universities. But, surely, no one would make such a contention for agriculture, yet states founded colleges of agriculture to serve the needs of the largely agricultural society which existed when most of them were founded in this society. Many denominational colleges were founded in order to supply the denomination with ministers. When private liberal arts colleges were no longer able or willing to supply society's need for public school teachers, states founded normal schools and teachers' colleges. It is true that many graduates of denominational colleges do not become ministers just as many graduates of state teachers' colleges never teach, but the founding of such institutions did increase the supply of both preachers and teachers.

In the view of a typical member of the larger society, then, an institution of higher learning does not exist solely to fill the expressed needs of the student body. Nor does it exist to provide an opportunity for faculty to engage in research which he may regard as useless or worse, inimical to his interests. Certainly, he often objects vigorously if a faculty member uses his academic platform, either within the classroom or without, to express views which he finds abhorrent. Even after many years of experience with the traditions of academic freedom, the lay public often fails to understand or appreciate the concept.

Most faculty members and the official position of the American Association of University Professors are in agreement with the principal that both the board of control and the institutional administration must define academic freedom as one of their chief duties and responsibilities. In the book **University Goals and Academic Power** by Gorss and Grambsch, published by the American Council on Education in 1968, it is reported that university presidents indicated in a survey that the protection of the academic freedom of the faculty was their most important responsibility. There are some faculty who do not take this self analysis of university presidents too seriously. The board which exercises the power to hire and fire the president is the representative of the larger society from which complaints about faculty statements, teaching, and/or publications are likely to issue. The members of the board are likely to find it much easier to identify with the complainers than with the faculty. Faced with a board trying to represent the constituency

which selected its members, perhaps the president can be forgiven for giving some attention to keeping his job.

Let us consider an example. At a state university, a group of students forms an organization known as the Erotic Arts Society, complete with faculty advisor and approval of the Student Senate. Under the sponsorship of the Society, a film is shown which courts have held to be obscene. Although the showing of the film is not associated in any way with the curriculum and is not a class exercise, university facilities provided for the use of student activities are used. Local authorities invade the campus, confiscate the film, and arrest the president of the Society. It cannot be doubted that both local and statewide sentiment is against the showing of such films. Letters to the editor of the local paper, to members of the Legislature, and to the board of control run heavily in favor of the actions of local authorities. Even the faculty is divided on the question of whether or not academic freedom is involved. What should be the response of the president to the charge that he has allowed the facilities of a tax-supported institution to be used to undermine the morality of the student body? A wise president must be capable of an adroit middle-of-the-road approach, which while causing him to receive flak from both sides, enables him to survive. Certainly, he cannot totally ignore the wishes of the public which not only pays its taxes but also supports the university with private gifts and in hundreds of other ways.

Less trivial examples exist, examples which involve the academic functions of the institution more directly. Shall a predominantly white public support a state university which seeks to establish an academic program in Black Studies to satisfy the demands of a small minority of black students? Shall a predominantly religious public support a state university in which it is alleged that professors of diverse disciplines are teaching atheism? What if the public demands that the state university teach Christianity or that faculty meetings and certainly football games must begin with a prayer? Public sentiment may strongly favor those disciplines which train or propose to train young people for a specific occupation and oppose those such as philosophy which can make no such claim.

The answer to these and other such perplexing questions lies not in giving in to every pressure from a largely uniformed public. However, many students and faculty members are either unaware that such problems exist or choose to ignore them. Every institution of higher learning, indeed, every institution, needs understanding and support from the society which it exists to serve. No doubt many faculty members feel that their institution exists to serve faculty needs and interests, but such a view ignores reality. Faculty members are aware of the needs and wishes of students and administrators and in many cases are able to prevent the wishes of students and administrators from prevailing. Faculties must also be aware of the needs, wishes, and views of the larger society. Awareness does not mean abject surrender, but hopefully will inculcate within the mind of the faculty a greater awareness of the problems of the administration which must mediate disagreement among all of the constituencies which form a college or university. It is unrealistic to expect the administration to support faculty views at all times and in all places, and it is absurd to have any such expectation from the members of the board of control. An important function of the administration, particularly of the president, is to serve as mediator. It is surprising how many university presidents play the role of mediator so well, without, in many cases, even recognizing its importance.

A sense of direction is critical to all involved in determining competencies for school board training programs.

School Boards: Coming of Age

by Richard E. Ishler, Paula Lawrence,
Weldon Becker and June Hogue

School boards have come of age, and it appears that they are currently facing a mid-life crisis. Because educational reform has indeed arrived, decisions made by state and local board members today are certain to impact schools and schooling for years to come.

Mid-life crisis in individuals is associated with a time of self-evaluation and assessment. It comes after a period of years and involves a realization of one's worth and one's mortality. School boards as entities and school board members as individuals are finding themselves involved in complex and demanding positions. They, too, must re-examine their roles in the light of existing priorities in order to gain information, make wise decisions, and function in ways that improve quality in education and survival in their positions. While boards, past and present, have traditionally been guardians of accountability, it may now be time that they assess their own skills and needs in view of increased demands from public and legislative climates.

Historically, local boards of education have concerned themselves with matters related to goals, policies, finances, community relations, personnel decisions, negotiations and the writing of local policies and procedures. The following topics are representative of those often addressed by school boards: energy conservation, declining enrollments, school calendar, discipline, transportation, immunization, school construction, debt limitations, insurance, teacher evaluation, and employee complaints. But the demands of the '80s upon school board members have increased in both quantity and complexity. Need for an information base, necessary in decision making, is intensified by a multiplicity of programs spanning early childhood through adult education and addressing needs on a learner continuum of disability through gifted.

For example, each district in Texas will need to document basic financial state allotments annually through a process that: (1) stipulates average daily attendance exclusive of full-time equivalent students in special education and vocational education progress and (2) is adjusted by a price differential index as well as a small district adjustment, where applicable. Such a task demands financial and

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mathematical skills that may be beyond the training level of most board members.

A recent state mandate (Texas House Bill 72) has required that school board members be trained. Due to the kinds of legislation currently being enacted, one might also ask whether such a training program should concentrate more on curricular areas than it has in the past.

Steller (1985) suggested that school board members use board policies to set the direction for effective instructional management. The role of board members in determining policies related to curriculum systems, supervisory and evaluation systems was discussed. The content of this article acknowledges that board members need to be well versed in curricular matters.

The National School Board Association (NSBA) also published a guide, **Becoming a Better Board Member** (1982), that served as a manual with the primary objective of condensing the amount of time board members need to become effective school leaders, as well as providing information designed to be helpful to experienced board members. Curriculum was included as one of the areas in addition to traditional roles.

The California School Boards Association (1981) acknowledges that evaluation of school instructional progress and curriculum is a school board responsibility.

School board members determine and implement far reaching changes. Board members are now framing the direction of curriculum reforms for years to come. Given this new emphasis upon board members' impact upon curriculum, one might examine the new areas in which board members need to become knowledgeable in order to function in today's educational arena and in arenas of the future.

Ron Brandt in "On Education and the Future: A Conversation with Harold Shane" considered the need for educating for a new millennium. In that article, Shane noted that education for the future must consider the body of knowledge essential for survival. He also commented upon the common views of scientists that he had interviewed regarding education for the future; he concluded that there was an "amazing tendency" for those persons to be able to draw upon one another's disciplines. He said that the "interdisciplinary tone was conspicuous." Shane's main concern and that of the people he interviewed, was whether or not human beings could cope fast enough to deal with the changes and problems that threaten them.

Consistent with Shane and Brandt's conversation regarding the need for educating for a new millennium, the authors of this article investigated the training programs needed for board members—the educational leaders for a new millennium.

The authors polled members of higher education, public school administration, and local and state board members to determine major categories to be included in a survey designed to determine priorities for school board training programs. Participants were asked to indicate three priority areas for school board member training programs.

The following areas emerged from a compilation of participant responses:

1. **Processes That Crosscut Learning**

How can one determine which processes contribute to analytical thinking? What are the processes that crosscut all of learning? As Shane pointed out, the scientists he interviewed had amazing abilities to draw upon one another's disciplines. Science processes such as observing, patterning, inferring, predicting, classifying and integrated processes apply in all content areas. Board members with a background in "sciencing" could do much to ensure the in-

tegration of content, as opposed to fragmentation of curricular areas.

2. Tests and Measurements

More and more board members are requiring and implementing systemwide testing programs. There is a body of knowledge from the area of tests and measurements as well as statistics that would be valuable to board members as they deal with evaluation and interpretation of test results.

3. Learning/Teaching Theory

Much is known about how people learn and about some of the factors related to "good teaching." This would constitute required reading/instruction for a board member.

4. Development Stages

Not all learners progress at the same rate, but there is some information about what one might expect of learners at various stages of development.

5. Reading Education

Reading education is a lifelong process and certainly knowledge of theories, approaches, strategies, and materials in reading education would rate high on the board members' curriculum awareness report card.

6. Special Learners (Bilingual/Multicultural Education)

Knowledge of special learners' needs and appropriate teaching strategies would affect one's world view in the area of curriculum.

7. Discipline

Theories about discipline are available in abundance. Knowledge of a variety of disciplinary strategies might affect the position one would assume in the area of discipline policy determination.

8. Group Process and Change Theory

Much is known about (a) the stimulation of effective group processes and (b) the motivation of change. This would be relevant information for board members.

9. Technology

Issues surrounding the use of technology and the evaluation of programs are of importance today and in the future. Simplistic views of technology and its impact must be dignified through a more thorough explanation of the options and the tools.

10. "Mathing"

Board members need to be aware of the need to focus upon application, problem-solving strategies in addition to computational processes. The same is true in other curricular areas.

11. Forecasting

Board members with some background in forecasting/projecting would have an advantage in the area of anticipating future needs.

12. Planning and Budgeting Systems

Some knowledge of planning and budgeting systems would serve a board member well.

The original pool of items was edited and then recirculated to the original contributors for additional revisions. These categories were then used to construct the **Survey of Expected School Board Competencies.** This survey was a forced-choice, paired comparison instrument that consisted of paired statements concerning competencies to be included in a training program for board members. Since every item was compared to every other item, the computer program generated a priority ranking of all items in the pool.

The sample for this study was comprised of 116 educational leaders in the state of Texas. Initially, 210 surveys were mailed to 43 professors from Texas institutions of

higher education, and a random sample of 38 local board members, 38 school superintendents, 38 senior high principals, 38 elementary principals, and 15 state board members. Of these, 116 useable responses were returned; this represents a total return rate of 55 percent. The return rate by categories follows:

Local Board Members 31.6%
School Superintendents 5.0%
Senior High Principals 57.9%
Elementary Principals 76.3%
Higher Education 72.0%
State Board Members 20.2%

Table I indicates the rank order for each competency according to the categories of respondents. (Descriptive statistics for the 15 competency areas, including raw scores, p values, z-scores, t-scores, and standard deviations are available upon request.)

Table I
Rankings by Respondent Categories

Item	Local Board N=12	High School Prin N=22	Elem Prin N=23	Higher Educ N=31	Supt N=19	State Board W=3
Planning, programming, and budgeting systems	1	1	1	3	1	3
The research findings about effective teaching and effective schools	2	2	2	1	2	2
Non-teaching duties that impinge upon actual teaching time	9	4	3	2	6	4
Different methods of teacher evaluation	3	7	4	6	3	5
The professional literature regarding the process and implementation of change	6	6	5	5	4	12
The professional literature related to local versus state and federal control (i.e., funding, textbook adoption procedures, etc.)	4	5	6	10	10	7
The professional literature regarding financial equity (e.g., the unique hardships of some small rural districts in meeting state mandates	5	3	7	12	8	10
The professional literature regarding the process of curriculum revision	7	9	8	9	7	15
Their own value system (regarding children, teachers, schools, and the role of the schools in society) as a basis for policy decisions	11	13	11	4	5	1

Program complexity as related to differences in early childhood, elementary, secondary, special, and adult education	12	8	10	8	9	8
The professional literature regarding current and future educational perspectives (e.g., EDUCATION WEEK, EDUCATION DAILY.)	10	10	9	7	13	11
Aspects of human development as they relate to mental, emotional and social adjustment	15	12	12	11	12	9
Tests and measurement issues and statistics that affect test construction, administration, and interpretation (i.e., the limitations of norm- and criterion-references tests, knowledge of measures of central tendency, etc.)	8	11	13	14	14	14
Applications of the thinking process (i.e., observing, inferring, predicting, and classifying) across content areas and grade levels	13	15	14	13	11	6
Models of the reading process and how a person's philosophical stance affects selection of materials and approaches	14	14	15	15	15	13

For the total sample of 116 respondents, (a) items pertaining to planning programming and budgeting and (b) research findings about effective teaching and effective schools were chosen significantly more than any of the other items. These items had greater than 70 percent chance of being selected by each respondent. The various groups surveyed agreed on many of the items that were selected as being important for board members, yet there were differences across groups in terms of the relative ranking of each.

It is interesting to note that the item reflecting Shane's concern for an interdisciplinary emphasis (applications of the thinking processes) was not given a high ranking by most of the respondents.

In addition to the forced-choice format, respondents were asked to make additional comments regarding identification/evaluation of competencies for school board members. Seventeen people responded to the open-ended portion of the survey.

The following categories were suggested as additional areas that might be included in board training programs: (1) how schools operate, (2) teacher/parent/student relationships, (3) interest in state laws affecting districts, (4) behavior at public meetings and resistance to special interest groups, (5) effective methods of dealing with patrons and public, (6) implementing the majority decision, (7) leadership skills of administrators, (8) problem-solving skills and techniques, (9) human relation skills, (10) policy determination versus administration of policy, (11) awareness of legal responsibilities, (12) knowledge of school finance, (13) skills in policy planning and formulation, (14) knowledge of budget preparation procedures, forms, and budget management, (15) student discipline, (16) information on career ladders, (17) learning disabilities, (18) teacher evaluation, (19) textbook evaluation (process and procedures), (20) gifted and talented, (21) phonics and how it relates to reading, (22) management of food commodities, (23) special education in general (including federal funding/training), (24) communication between different groups, and (25) how to help children learn.

Other general comments suggested that board members should: (1) be able to read and write, (2) be well educated, (3) have children currently in school, (4) be receptive to change, (5) know the duties of policy making, (6) have balanced desires in the area of educational opportunity, (7) know how to delegate authority, (8) hold a college degree, (9) be knowledgeable regarding what a successful business requires, and (10) strive for a balanced educational program.

Although some of these categories duplicate the forced-choice items (in different terms), all suggestions have been included here.

Of the 116 people responding to the survey, nine reacted to the survey itself. Some felt that the survey items were weighted too heavily in curricular and/or philosophical areas. These persons seemed to feel that knowledge of curriculum is more an administrative function than a policy making function. Others commented about the forced-choice format and the necessity of comparing each item to every other item. Some felt that the survey was too long. One person commented that the items on the survey were idealistic; another, that they were esoteric.

The additional categories that were suggested could be included in a revision of the survey. An all-inclusive survey would certainly encounter the same criticisms regarding length of the survey and difficulty of completion. Given the reactions of some to the forced-choice format and the length of the existing format, it might be very difficult to get people to respond to a longer survey. Certainly, however, this survey is a beginning in surfacing what people believe to be important competencies for board members.

The survey also emphasizes the importance of knowledge of curricular matters to informed policy making. Some obviously view these as two distinct functions while others clearly believe knowledge of curriculum to be an essential ingredient in informed policy determinations. While some people proposed literacy (interpreted as being able to read and write), others would define literacy of board members in a much broader sense. Where on a continuum of literacy are we today? And where might we be in the future? The survey results may pose more questions than answers, but it is a beginning.

The goals that are deemed unrealistic and idealistic today could become the goals of the future. Would a national sample produce the same results? And since testing and teaching are two different arenas, competencies that are not very palatable from an assessment stance might be made palatable in a training program.

As we embark on the "yellow brick road," it does matter that we know where we want to go; otherwise, it doesn't matter which fork in the road we take. A sense of direction is critical to all involved. This survey was an initial attempt to

determine some of the competencies deemed necessary for school board training programs. In that sense it has achieved a crucial first step in further defining the components involved in today's schools, the priorities identified in an historic reform era, and the human components necessary to make decisions that will impact the quality of education for students of the present and the future.

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If higher education is to remain a vital and viable social institution, it must place a premium on academic self-renewal.

A Perspective on Issues Facing the Professoriate

by Jay L. Chronister

It is widely recognized by leaders in higher education that the most critical investment that colleges and universities make is in the human capital that we call faculty. It is also generally accepted that the quality and vitality of these institutions is a function of the quality and vitality of their faculties. As colleges and universities chart their way through the remainder of the 20th century, many of the critical problems they will be required to address will involve this most valuable resource, their faculty.

The literature on higher education has chronicled the issues of enrollment uncertainty, changes in client populations, changing societal expectations, quality concerns, issues of financial support and cost constraints, and the impact of high technology as challenges facing institutions for the years ahead. Each of these general problem areas has significant implications for the professoriate.

Recent History

In order to understand the issues facing the professoriate it is necessary to review the recent history of higher education as the context for the current situation. The significant growth of higher education during the 1960s and the early 1970s provided a highly supportive job market for the professoriate. Between 1960 and 1970 the number of full-time faculty employed in higher education more than doubled,[1] and during the peak years, new additions to the professoriate were being made at the rate of 20,000 or more per year.[2] During these same years the employment market in colleges and universities provided for high mobility for faculty who utilized interinstitutional job changes as a means of achieving rapid advancement in rank and salary.[3]

The economic climate for faculty was also highly supportive in terms of significant increases in salary and real income. In constant dollars faculty compensation increased by 41.2 percent between 1959–60 and 1969–70.[4] In the 1970s the economic climate began to change significantly. Inflationary economic conditions coupled with a stabilization and subsequent declines in enrollment resulted in losses in potential mobility and real income. According to the 1980–81 AAUP Report on the Economic Status of the Profession, real salaries of faculty declined by 21 percent

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during the '70s.[5] Typifying the situation as higher education entered the '80s was the change in real income between 1979–80 and 1980–81 when faculty salaries, on average, increased by 8.7 percent in current dollars while the Consumer Price Index rose by 11.6 percent.[6] In its 1984–85 analysis, the AAUP reported an average combined salary increase of 6.6 percent for all ranks and categories against an estimated 4.0 percent increase in price-level increases.[7] This is the fourth straight year of real salary increases, with the previous three years reflecting smaller gains. Although real salary gains appear to have begun to improve the economic status of the professoriate in recent years, there remains the need for further improvement to recoup the purchasing power lost in the '70s.

Of possibly more significance to the professoriate, and to higher education in general, are other issues created by the age and tenure status of the professoriate. Because of the significant influx of new, young faculty members in the late 1960s and early 1970s, higher education entered the decade of the '80s with a relatively young professoriate. A recent report by TIAA/CREF provided data indicating that nearly 46 percent of their policy holders were in the age range of 36 to 50.[8] In a similar vein, Novotny provided data which showed that in the late 1970s the median age of faculty was approximately 42, and that the median age would reach 50 to 52 by 1995.[9] In addition to the professoriate being relatively young, it is also characterized as being highly tenured. In 1980, the Carnegie Council estimated that nearly 75 percent of faculty in four-year institutions were tenured. The Council also reported the modal age of those tenured faculty to be 36 to 45 in 1980 and that it would not be until the year 2000 that the modal age would reach 56 to 65.[10] The 1978 amendments to the Age Discrimination in Employment Act which raised the mandatory retirement age from 65 to 70 (for higher education effective July 1, 1982) had the net effect of adding five additional years to the career of all faculty members.

The situation facing the professoriate is further shaped by economic and demographic variables over which it has no control. College enrollments have begun to decrease due primarily to a reduction in the size of the traditional college-age population, with this decline projected to continue until approximately 1995. Compounding the problems of declines in enrollment are state financial constraints created by the general economy and a reduction in federal support for higher education, especially in terms of student aid programs. These constraints on financial aid programs further exacerbate the enrollment problem.

The Implications

All of the above issues and recent history create problems for the professoriate. For aspirants to faculty positions, as well as for young faculty just beginning their careers, the future is rather bleak. The Carnegie Council has projected that net additions to the professoriate for the remainder of the century will be about zero.[11] This problem, created by enrollment decline and the current age and tenure structure of the professoriate, will be especially damaging to the career opportunities of women and minorities. The opportunities for potential women and minority faculty members will be constrained primarily to acquiring positions which become vacant through retirements of current faculty, which as noted above will be rather minimal.

Compounding the problem for young, untenured faculty are institutional concerns with the high ratios which has caused many institutions to invoke environmental issues such as program demand, staffing flexibility, and

budgetary constraints into the tenure award decision process. Therefore, scholarship and quality of teaching are no longer the sole criteria for achieving security in the professoriate. To promote staffing flexibility and to control costs, many institutions can be expected to appoint junior faculty to non-tenure term appointments of one to three years, and to increase the use of part-time faculty. As a result of this "academic depression" it is widely believed that the professoriate will lose a generation of bright young scholars which will have a long-term negative impact on higher education and society.

Currently employed senior faculty are not immune from this milieu. Loss of interinstitutional mobility, the loss of real income cited earlier, the threat of loss of positions as a result of program discontinuance, and the loss of the intellectual challenge provided by scholarly junior faculty are obvious issues facing tenured faculty. Beyond these obvious issues though, there are other, often more subtle challenges.

During times of financial constraints higher education has deferred maintenance of its human capital as surely as it has deferred maintenance of its physical facilities. In both cases, the long-term effects are expensive. In recent years many colleges and universities have cut funds for faculty travel to professional meetings, restricted expenditures for supplies and materials, deferred the purchase of necessary instructional and research equipment, and reduced secretarial staff in the interests of cost containment. While often critically necessary to the financial health of institutions on a short-term basis, such actions have the potential in the long-term of leading to intellectual stagnation and the diminution of faculty productivity in scholarship, instruction and service.

At a time when institutions are faced with the challenges of changing client populations and the impact of new technologies it is important that faculty be provided with the resources necessary to respond to these challenges. For some members of the professoriate it will be necessary to develop new skills in order to respond to the opportunities presented by technological advances, and for others it may necessitate developing expertise in emerging fields of inquiry and instruction. In each case it is important that the institutional administration and the faculty view the need for professional enhancement and development as a mutually beneficial endeavor. Such activities require the commitment of resources and time on the part of both the institution and the professoriate.

Summary

If higher education is to remain a vital and viable social institution during the remainder of this century, it must place a premium on academic self-renewal. During the remainder of this century when the opportunity to provide for new ideas and new skills through hiring new faculty will be severely constrained, the provision for academic self-renewal of existing faculty resources gains increased significance. It is also important that the professoriate recognize the mutuality of institutional interests and self-interests in meeting these challenges.

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This research shows that the Ph.D and Ed.D degree programs in educational administration are virtually identical pursuits in UCEA member institutions.

Doctoral Studies of Students in Educational Administration Programs in UCEA Member Institutions

by M. Scott Norton and Frederick D. Levan

One of the initial activities of the UCEA Program Center for Preparation Programs was to determine the perceived value of certain kinds of preparation program information. Faculty members in UCEA member institutions listed curriculum information as having the highest interest and benefit for them and their departments' preparation programs. As a result of this interest, the study of curriculum became a high priority activity of the Program Center.

The feasibility of completing a study of the curricula of preparation programs in educational administration was discussed at length by the advisory committee of the Program Center in a one-day meeting in Tempe, Arizona. Questions of importance were: (1) Could such a study accurately determine the course work, practicum and research activity experienced by students in their preparation? (2) What degree programs should be included in the study? (3) Should only UCEA member institutions be included in the study? and (4) To what extent would it be possible and/or necessary to determine actual course content?

The student's official program of study was selected as the primary data document since it appeared to provide the most reliable indication of the actual courses, practica and research activities of students in preparation programs. Since the student's program of study for the doctorate in most all instances reflects course work completed for the Master's degree and administrative certification, the Ed.D. and Ph.D. degree programs were selected for study. In addi-

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tion, study of these doctoral degree programs provided some opportunity to compare degree differences. It was decided further to limit the study to a random sample of UCEA member institutions.

A primary concern, and a limitation of this study, was the inability to ascertain actual course content as well as the specific nature of program practica. Any attempt to determine actual subject matter of courses presented major problems. However, it was the consensus of the Program Center's advisory committee that such a determination was not essential. For example, it was the committee's view that it would be valuable to learn the extent of exposure of students to various areas of study (i.e., theory, policy, research) even though the specific course content might vary among institutions.

Pilot Study Activities

Study feasibility was examined through two pilot studies. The first pilot effort encompassed the examination of 36 Ed.D. programs of study at Arizona State University. Eight categories were utilized to record data as follows: (1) courses completed in educational administration; (2) courses completed outside the field of educational administration; (3) total number of courses completed and total credit hours; (4) practica completed; (5) research and statistics courses completed; (6) dissertation credits; (7) language requirements; and (8) residency requirements.

A second pilot study utilized 29 UCEA member institutions. One program of study for each doctoral degree offered was examined. An analysis of student programs was completed in the same manner described in the first pilot study. Several problems were encountered in the second effort, however. It was not always clear, for example, whether courses indeed were offered within or outside the department of educational administration. Dissertation credit was difficult to identify and in some cases was nonexistent even though the institution did require a dissertation. Such information as requirements for residency and foreign language were not determinable by an examination of students' programs.

With the above experiences in mind, the major study of the doctoral programs of students in educational administration was initiated and is reported in the sections that follow.

The Study Sample

A random sample of 27 UCEA member institutions resulted in the following selections:

Arizona State University
Fordham University
Illinois State University
Kansas State University
New Mexico State University
New York University
Oklahoma State University
Penn State University
State University of New York at Buffalo
Temple University
Texas A & M University
University of Connecticut
University of Florida
University of Kansas
University of Kentucky
University of Minnesota
University of Missouri
University of Nebraska
University of Oklahoma
University of Oregon
University of Toledo
University of Tennessee
University of Texas
University of Utah
University of Virginia
University of Wisconsin-Madison
Washington State University

Each institution was asked to send two student programs of study for each of the doctoral degrees offered. The

programs were to be selected on a random basis and were to have been developed within the last three years. Responses were received from all of the institutions except Fordham University and Penn State University. In all, 78 programs of study were utilized, 39 for the Ed.D. degree and an equal number for the Ph.D. degree.

The Study Results

Each of the 78 programs of study was analyzed and each course or experience recorded under one of seven categories as follows: (1) Courses in educational administration; (2) Research and statistics courses; (3) Foundations courses; (4) Seminars/Workshops; (5) Cognate courses; (6) Field Experience; and (7) Dissertation. Each of these categories is discussed in the following sections.

Courses in Educational Administration

All courses in the area of educational administration were recorded under one of 14 course areas. For example, the course area, Organization and Administration, included all courses that were concerned with how schools and school systems are organized and how they are administered. Thus, such courses as Educational Administration, Introduction to Administration, Organization and Administration, and Problems in Educational Administration were recorded under Organization and Administration. Similarly, such courses as Organizational Theory, Theory, Theory and Application, The Theory of Educational Administration and Advanced Theory were recorded under the course area of Theory.

Table 1 reveals the 14 course areas for educational administration for the Ph.D. and Ed.D. degree programs. Data do not include educational administration seminars, field experiences, research courses that were offered in educational administration or credits for dissertation.

Table 1
Courses in Educational Administration

Course	Ph.D.	% of Ed. Adm. Course Work	Ed.D.	% of Ed. Adm. Course Work
Organization & Administration	104	32	88	28
Personnel	43	13	27	8
Law	27	8	35	10
Finance	23	7	26	8
Human and Community Relations & Societal Factors	21	6	28	8
Management	17	5	12	4
Theory	15	5	18	5
Principalship	15	5	20	6
Policy	15	5	8	2
Supervision	14	4	19	6
Facilities	14	4	25	8
Politics	9	3	9	3
Leadership	9	3	13	4
Superintendency	2	1	3	1

The 324 educational administration courses for the Ph.D. degree represented 39 percent of the total course work. The 331 courses in the Ed.D. degree program represented 39 percent of the total doctoral course work as well.

As indicated by the data, Ph.D. degree students completed 32 percent of the course work in educational administration, with the exceptions previously noted, in courses in the area of Organization and Administration. Courses in personnel, law and finance constituted 29 percent of the course work in administration. Thus, 60 percent of the educational administration courses was in the area of organization and administration, personnel, law and finance. All other course areas included only 40 percent of the course work in the field of administration. As indicated in Table 1, courses in theory, policy and leadership constituted only 11 percent of the Ph.D. students' course work.

Similar results are noted for Ed.D. degree students. The four course areas, Organization and Administration, Law, Personnel and Finance constituted 53 percent of the educational administration course work. However, Ed.D. degree programs of study contained considerably less course work in organization and administration and personnel than Ph.D. programs. Ed.D. degree programs revealed a somewhat higher degree of course work in areas such as facilities and law.

Research and Statistics

Courses in research methods and statistics represented 16 and 13 percent of the total course work for the Ph.D. and Ed.D. programs of study respectively. The various courses in research and statistics were recorded within nine areas as shown in Table 2.

Table 2
Research and Statistics Courses

Courses	Ph.D.	Ed.D.
Statistics		
Tests and Measurements	12	8
Elementary Statistics	23	29
Intermediate Statistics (Inferential)	16	20
Advanced Statistics (Multivariate)	2	3
Total	53	60
Research Methods		
Introduction to Research	35	32
Quantitative Research	14	1
Advanced Research Methods	21	7
Qualitative Research	6	8
Computer (Research)	7	0
Total	83	48

Elementary Statistics and Intermediate Statistics dominated the course work for Ed.D. students and Introduction to Research clearly was the primary research methods course on Ed.D. degree programs of study. Ed.D. degree programs contained more courses in statistics than did Ph.D. programs of study. For the Ed.D. degree programs, work in statistics constituted 7 percent of the total course work while it represented 6 percent of total course work for Ph.D. students. However, Ph.D. course work in research methods clearly surpassed that in Ed.D. degree programs. Research courses in Ph.D. and Ed.D. programs represented 10 percent and 6 percent of the total course work respectively.

Foundations

Foundations encompassed a wide variety of course work in the areas of psychology, guidance and counseling, human resources development, special education, curriculum and instruction, history and philosophy of education,

and other courses related to education. In view of the generally accepted definition of Foundations (i.e., history, philosophy, psychology and sociology), the area of General Education might have been a more appropriate title for this classification.

Course work in the Foundations area constituted 26 percent and 24 percent of the total course work for Ph.D. and Ed.D. students respectively. These percentages were second only to the course work taken specifically in educational administration. It should be emphasized once again that the Foundations area included virtually all course work in education taken outside departments of educational administration except cognate work (Business, Liberal Arts, Music, etc.) and research, statistics, and seminar courses.

In total, 219 of the 841 Ph.D. courses and 207 of the 844 Ed.D. courses were classified as Foundations. It is significant to note that of the 219 Ph.D. Foundations courses, only five courses were reported on at least five students' programs of study. The variabililty of such courses on doctoral programs appeared obvious. For example, only the courses of Philosophy of Education, Directed Reading, Sociology of Education, Advanced Educational Psychology and Secondary School Curriculum appeared on at least five Ph.D. programs of study. The mode for the number of times a course appeared as a Foundations course was one.

Similarly, only five Foundations courses were common to as many as five students' programs in the Ed.D. degree. Philosophy of Education, History of Education, Advanced Educational Psychology, Psychology of Exceptional Children and Practicum in Counseling appeared on five student programs of study. One hundred six of the 207 Ed.D. Foundations courses were listed on only one program of study.

Cognate Course Work

Cognate work included courses in liberal arts, fine arts, business administration, religion and computer applications. Cognate work comprised 7 percent of the Ph.D. and 9 percent of the Ed.D. course work. Such work had no program commonality. Virtually every cognate entry was singular. Of the 841 total Ph.D. and 844 total Ed.D. courses, 60 and 72 were cognate courses respectively.

Seminars and Workshops

Seminars and Workshops included courses both inside and outside departments of educational administration. Twenty-eight of the 43 Ph.D. Seminars/Workshops and 31 of the 62 Ed.D. Seminars/Workshops were related to educational administration. Seminar/Workshop titles included School Administration, Educational Management, Fundamentals of School Administration, Policy, Secondary School Curriculum, Audiovisual Materials and various others.

Seminars/Workshops consisted of 5 percent and 7 percent of the total course work in Ph.D. and Ed.D. programs respectively. No patterns or commonalities were found among the Seminar/Workshop courses on the programs of study examined.

Field Experiences

Field Experiences included internships, independent study, field work and practica. Of the 33 Field Experience entries for Ph.D. degree programs, 26 were exclusively educational adminstration. Of the 41 Ed.D. entries, 31 were in the area of educational administration. The Ph.D. and Ed.D. experiences in educational administration are categorized in Table 3.

Table 3
Field Experiences in Educational Administration

	Number of Courses	
Field Experience	Ph.D.	Ed.D.
Internship	13	15
Independent Study	7	11
Field Experience/Application	6	5

As noted previously, other field experiences outside the field of educational administration were included in degree programs. Such experiences were quite limited, however.

Total Program Summary

Table 4 indicates the total percent data for each of the major areas of study for the Ph.D. and Ed.D. degree programs.

Table 4
Total Percent Data for Areas of Doctoral Study

Area of Study	Ph.D. No. of Courses	% of Total Work	Ed.D. No. of Courses	% of Total Work
Educational Administration Course Work	324	39	331	39
Research and Statistics	136	16	108	13
Foundations	219	26	207	24
Cognates	60	7	72	9
Seminars/Workshops	43	5	62	7
Field Experiences	33	4	41	5
Dissertation*	26	3	23	3
Total	814		844	

*Represents number of listings and not credit hours.

As the data indicate, no area of study for the Ph.D. and Ed.D. degrees varies more than 3 percent. While Ph.D. programs of study did contain 3 percent more courses in research and statistics, Ed.D. degree programs contained more work in statistics than did Ph.D. programs. The difference is accounted for by the greater research methods emphasis in the Ph.D. degree programs. The results relative to the dissertation are questionable. Since dissertation credit was not clear in all cases, dissertation was recorded only as a single entry for each student's program. Credit hours completed were not considered. In any case, these data led to an obvious conclusion that differences between Ed.D. and Ph.D. degree programs in UCEA member institutions are indistinguishable.

Summary

The data gathered from student programs of study in UCEA member instutitions supported the following conclusions:

1. Ph.D. and Ed.D. degree programs in educational administration are virtually identical pursuits in UCEA member institutions. The amount and kind of course work completed in the field of educational administration are the same for the two doctoral programs.

2. Students pursuing either the Ph.D. or Ed.D. degree program in UCEA member institutions could expect to complete at least 60 percent of their total doctoral work in the course areas of organization and administration, personnel, finance, law and human/community relations and social factors.

3. Research and statistical course requirements for the Ed.D. and Ph.D. degrees differed only slightly except for a somewhat higher expectation of research methods course work in Ph.D. programs.

4. Foundations course work for both the Ph.D and Ed.D. programs constituted approximately 25 percent of the student's program of study. Foundations encompassed a broad area of course work and included virtually all general education course work taken outside the field of educational administration.

5. Field experiences and workshops for doctoral students constituted a relatively small percent of the student's program of study. A student could expect no more than 5 percent of the total doctoral program to be devoted to field experiences.

6. Cognate work, courses in disciplines outside the field of education, also represented a relatively small percent of doctoral programs. Such course work almost always was brought to the doctoral program as previous credit earned during the Master's program.

7. Course work in theory, policy, the principalship, supervision, facilities, politics, leadership and the superintendency, when considered individually, would be expected to constitute 5 percent or less of the doctoral student's program of study.

Unexpected praise is much more satisfying than praise students tend to expect.

"Good Job!" Not Enough!

by Larry M. Albertson

Most of us in our academic preparation have received instructions regarding the importance of providing students with positive verbal responses. Most specifically, most of us believe in the importance of praise and have made efforts to provide needed praise to our students. One common form of praise used in schools is the verbal "good job!" Are we doing a "good job" of praising with our "good job!" response?

Probably not, according to much of the contemporary literature on the effective use of praise. In fact, this information indicates that the casual use of the phrase "good job!" may actually be a very "poor job" of delivering effective praise. Further, there is a potential for inappropriate praise to have negative effects on learning and teacher/student rapport.

The potential use of praise to influence the behavior of individuals has recently received considerable attention in popular literature. Books, such as **The One-Minute Manager** and its many follow-ups and look alikes have strongly advocated the use of praise through such strategies as "one-minute praisings." Books critical of these approaches, such as **The 59 Second Employee**, raise concerns regarding the effectiveness and ethicalness of such praisings.

While we have no concrete rules for the use of praise in education, we do have sufficient research to provide guidelines for utilizing praise effectively. The purpose of this article is to present practical guidelines based on the current literature in education. A detailed review of the literature regarding the use of praise in teaching has been done by Brophy.[1]

Educational research clearly indicates that praise has the potential to be an effective pedagogical tool for the teacher. However, like all instructional strategies, its effectiveness depends on its specific application. The use of effective praise requires intelligent decisions regarding the student, the behavior to be praised, the instructional environment, and the desired outcomes. The careless use of praise may not only render it ineffective but may result in negative responses from certain students and destroy teacher credibility.

A useful guideline for giving PRAISE in educational settings utilizes praise as an acronym:

Precise
Responses
Aimed at
Intrinsically
Satisfying
Efforts

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In other words, appropriate use of praise requires the teacher to give **Precise** praise **Responses** that are sincere and specifically **Aimed** at student behaviors that are **Intrinsically Satisfying** because of student **Efforts** at a particular task or activity. Utilization of this guideline requires that the teacher understand it and then make appropriate decisions about providing praise. The remainder of this article clarifies the guideline. It is up to individual teachers to utilize their pedagogical experience and skill in the rational application of "Precise Responses Aimed at Intrinsically Satisfying Efforts."

To internalize and utilize this guideline for effective praise requires an understanding of it that includes the individual components of the statement. The danger of dissecting the guideline is that, like many entities, the composite is much more than the sum of the parts. However, an understanding of the parts is a prerequisite to understanding the full significance of the whole.

Precise

Praise is more effective when it is specific. General praise, such as our "Good job!" example, provides too much opportunity for misinterpretation of the behavior or the details of the behavior at which the praise is directed. Precise praise that clarifies the specifics of the accomplishment also reinforces learning by providing detailed, positive feedback about performance. Praise should, therefore, be precise, clarifying the specific aspects of the behavior being commended.

Responses

Praise should be a response to a positive behavior of a student that has been observed by the teacher. The praise should be contingent on the desired behavior and be delivered as a precise response, leaving no doubt as to the behavior being praised. Given as a response, praise should be spontaneous, have a tone of enthusiasm or excitement, and be accompanied by appropriate nonverbal signals that reinforce credibility. Effective praise then consists of precise, spontaneous responses that tell a student you noticed something he or she did, it was good, and you are genuinely happy about it. As a result, the student should also feel good about it.

Aimed At

Praise as a precise response implies that it is directed at specific behaviors. Its aim is to recognize successes or praiseworthy efforts, real accomplishments by students. In examining praise for reinforcement, an analysis of the type of behaviors praise is usually directed toward can be enlightening.

Research shows that teachers are generally more likely to praise good answers or work than to criticize poor work, but are more likely to criticize poor conduct rather than praise good conduct. Effective praise requires strategic decisions about the behaviors at which praise is to be directed.

Intrinsically

Praise is more likely to be effective when the behavior being commended is one which the student feels interested in, committed to, or a need for. Ideally, success in the task will result in enjoyment, satisfaction, and pride. The more intrinsically satisfying the task, the more likely the

[1]Brophy, J. (1981). Teacher praise: A functional analysis. **Review of Educational Research, 51**, 5–32.

praise is to be effective. This is especially pertinent when utilizing praise to motivate and reinforce intermediate accomplishments achieved in pursuit of a major goal.

Satisfying

Not only should the behavior at which praise is directed be satisfying to the student, the praise itself should evoke a feeling of satisfaction if it is to be effective as encouragement, reinforcement, or additional feedback. Research indicates that students react differently to praise based on several factors. Low ability students and young students tend to be more influenced by praise, whereas high ability and older students are less influenced by it. Praise is also more likely to produce negative results in high ability and older students. These students tend to associate low ability with students who receive abundant praise. They also tend to feel insulted, even antagonistic, when they feel the praise is insincere or given for something they perceive as ordinary or obviously expected.

Unexpected praise is much more satisfying than praise students tend to expect. Too much praise, general praise, and praise considered insincere tend to be ineffective and generally ignored. There is also a possibility that the overuse of ineffective praise will also affect the potency of appropriately used praise. Students are more likely to find praise satisfying if teachers use a limited number of "praisings" rather than a high quantity of "praisings."

Efforts

Effective praise lets the student know that success is due to personal effort as well as ability. It encourages continued effort with the expectation of continued success. Praise may be used for motivation by recognizing exceptional effort prior to achievement of a goal. Upon achievement of the goal, the praise should continue to associate the accomplishment with the efforts of the student.

Precise Responses Aimed at Intrinsically Satisfying Efforts provides the teacher with a key for the effective use of praise. Praise, like other instructional tools, must be used wisely and requires conscious decisions as to the appropriateness of praise for a particular student in a specific situation. Used inappropriately, praise may not only be ineffective but may damage teacher–student rapport and weaken the effect of appropriately used praise.

Remember, provide individual students with a limited number of Precise praise Responses that are spontaneous, sincere, and specifically Aimed at student accomplishments that are Intrinsically Satisfying because of personal Efforts by the student. Then, following a few of these appropriate student "praisings," pat yourself on the back, and say "Good Job of providing Precise Responses Aimed at Intrinsically Satisfying Efforts!"

BOOK REVIEWS

Boys Together: English Public Schools, 1800–1864, by John Chandos. Yale, 1984. 411 p. ($29.95).

With the current plethora of books citing real and imagined malfeasances of modern American education, it is refreshing indeed to discover historian John Chandos' intimate and illuminating study of the English Public Schools of 1800–1864, **Boys Together.** Drawing on diaries, memoirs, letters and manuscripts (published and unpublished), Chandos gives the reader a front-row perspective of life in 19th-century public schools prior to the Clarendon Commission reforms of 1862–1864. Gone is the image of the pious and obedient scholar dedicated to God, school and country. In its stead Chandos reveals a subculture where brutalities and humiliations were commonplace and rebellion, debauchery and social corruption were not the exception but the rule.

In his skillfully researched text, the author seeks not only to reveal the ofttimes shocking life styles of the students who attended and governed these institutions, but to analyze the prevailing social climate in which these schools were permitted to function and flourish. At a time when the purpose of the public schools emphasized the necessity of turning out mannered men of respectable character who were libera of mind and generous of nature, society also was calling for men to be fully prepared for the roughening and disappointing realities of adult life.

The prevailing societal dichotomy regarding acceptable public school practice gave way to an outpouring of public criticism. As Chandos indicates, one of the most frequently voiced criticisms of the schools concerned the universal practice of "fagging," a system in which younger scholars performed prescribed duties for their senior classmates, or masters, and in return for their services received protection. Unfortunately, such was seldom the case. The author quotes Etonian George Lewis in the **Edinburgh Review** in which Lewis defines fagging as "the only regular institution of slave labour enforced by brute force which exists in these islands."

Among other criticisms notes is that of student-governance. In an environment which adhered to the traditional practice of senior scholar control over junior scholar, and to varying extent, schoolmasters as well, any attempt by internal or external forces to inhibit autonomy or self-governance was met with immediate rebellion.

The study appropriately concludes with the investigation of the Clarendon Commission into the administration, finance, curriculum, methods and instruction of the schools and the validity of the prevailing status quo. Past and present regard for scholasticism and civility are analyzed in lights of the changing mores of society and the reforms which would change the very nature of the English Public School are seen as reflecting changes in life and society.

While Chandos' rhetoric is frequently biased and his stance, depending on the readers' persuasion, debatable, his narrative is lively, authoritative and well documented. His study is a must read for scholars and academicians of education and 19th-century England and a recommended tome for readers of non-fiction.

—reviewed by Susan Day Harmison
Book Review Editor

Contemporary Approaches to Moral Education: An Annotated Bibliography and Guide to Research, by James S. Leming. New York: Garland Publishing, 1983 ($53.00).

Foundations of Moral Education: An Annotated Bibliography, by James S. Leming. Westport, Connecticut: Greenwood Press, 1983 ($35.00).

In recent decades there has been a surge of interest in the subject of moral education. People have become concerned with the lack of attention given moral education as well as the decline of moral and ethical standards.

James S. Leming is a professor of education at Southern Illinois University. In these two volumes he has attempted to chronicle and summarize some of the major developments in the field of moral education. The time covered in both bibliographies is the period from the mid-1960s to 1981.

In **Contemporary Approaches to Moral Education,** Leming presents important research and analysis surrounding the "practical" side of the moral education movement. Whereas this volume is a guide to the literature on the practice of moral education, the companion volume, **Foundations of Moral Education** is a guide to more theoretical philosophic and psychological literature on this issue. In **Contemporary Approaches to Moral Education,** for example, there are a number of references to the values clarification approach, which concerns the practice realm.

In **Foundations of Moral Education** Leming devotes the first major division to "Reflections on the Domain of Moral Education." References are predominately philosophical in nature, defining or clarifying the general purposes of moral education and related aspects. The second major division of the bibliography, "Moralization: The Learning of Morality," contains references that are taken largely from the behavioral sciences, with a third section devoted to "Additional Topics." This volume concludes with a section containing the major collections of readings on the topic of moral education.

Contemporary Approaches to Moral Education opens with a general analysis of those sources that present a broad overview of the field. Leming includes sections on values clarification, cognitive development, psychological or developmental education, humanistic or affective education, value analysis, directive moral education and a comparison of approaches. This volume concludes with a listing of bibliographies on moral education, collections of readings related to moral education, and special editions or sections of journals devoted to the topic.

Some valuable items have not been included: Gail G. Milgram, **Alcohol Education Materials: An Annotated Bibliography** (New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers Univ. Center of Alcohol Studies, 1975) and Grace M. Barnes, comp., **Alcohol and Youth: A Comprehensive Bibliography** (Westport, Ct.: Greenwood Press, 1982). Substance abuse is an enormous problem and certainly education materials addressing the issue fall into the category of moral education. While it would not be possible to include all references on alcohol and drug education (nor necessary), it would be advisable to include bibliographies on the subject. The same would be true of other related areas such as a "bibliography of bibliographies" on substance abuse education and business

ethics in education.

This criticism should not take away from the obvious quality of these two bibliographies. James S. Leming has contributed to our collective understanding of moral education in considerable ways by the publishing of these volumes. Indeed, the publication of both volumes takes place at an appropriate time, as the U.S. (and other countries) at-

tempts to come to grips with the necessity of moral education. These bibliographies will enable scholars, policymakers and citizens in general to gain a more comprehensive view of the literature on moral education.

—**reviewed by Thomas D. Watts**
Professor, University of Texas
at Arlington

Collaborative Program in Educational Administration at Kansas State University and Fort Hays State University is Established

The faculties in the educational administration programs at Kansas State University (KSU) and Fort Hays State University (FHSU) have entered into an agreement to facilitate the post-master's degree programs of graduate students admitted to the collaborative program. It is the intent of this arrangement to assure graduate students in educational administration that they may receive the best preparation possible with the economy of time and effort which may be achieved through close cooperation.

Admission

Each potential student for the collaborative program is identified by the educational administration faculty at FHSU as soon as possible after having earned a master's degree (not necessarily at FHSU). Joint admission to the specialist in education (Ed.S.) program at FHSU and the Doctor of Education (Ed.D.) program at KSU must occur at the beginning of post-master's coursework at FHSU.

All programs of study include formal coursework, guided individualized study, clinical/laboratory experience in knowledge applications, and a dissertation. Primary responsibility for planning the program rests with the major advisor, the doctoral supervisory committee, and the student.

Ed.D. Program of Study

Preparation to provide leadership in the resolution of problems of professional practice requires a firm grounding in the foundations of educational thought, in the nature and methods of education inquiry, in understanding the extent and complexity of educational activities and decisions, and in the knowledge base of educational administration. A carefully planned combination of coursework, supervised practical experience, problem-solving practice, individual study, and intellectual interaction among students, faculty, and practicing professionals provides the best opportunity to develop the knowledge and disposition for leadership. The Ed.D. program of study will meet the requirements of the KSU Graduate School, College of Education, and educational administration program.

The Ed.D. program requires a minimum of 94 semester credit hours beyond the baccalaureate degree, planned and approved by the supervisory committee, and approved by the department head and the Coordinator of Graduate Studies for the KSU College of Education and the Dean of the Graduate School.

The residency requirements for the Ed.D. program are the same for students in the collaborative program as for others. Up to one-half of the formal residency requirements may be fulfilled at FHSU.

For further information contact:
    The Department of Administration
        and Foundations
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