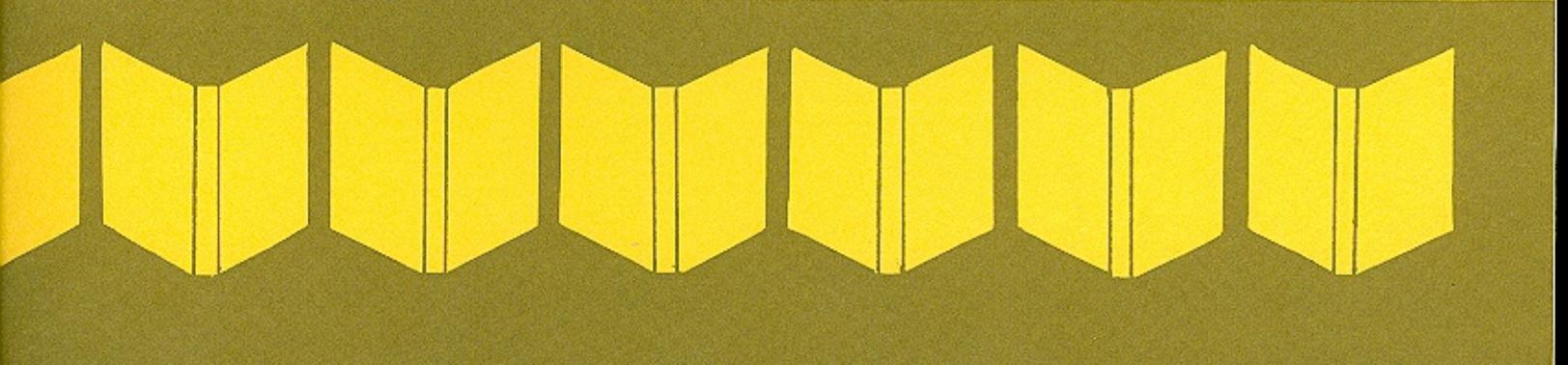Spring
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Another Bureaucratic Compromise

   Kenneth Hoyt observes in this issue that any lasting educational reform is largely dependent on a consensus among those groups that would be significantly affected by a particular reform. Such is true, and the same is sad. Since our educational system has been made, by acclamation, universal, all of the witty but nasty little truisms drawn up in the 1950s by C. Northcote Parkinson on the foibles of bureaucracy have come uncomfortably close to the mark.

   Bureaucratic and special-interest positioning and subsequent compromise, oft in the form of some kind of beneficent "conflict resolution" consensus, is directly responsible for the curricular cafeteria that we are now trying to sort out. Because of the immense size of the educational enterprise and the economic implications of reform/change all the involved groups are acutely aware of the effect of any shift in emphasis.

   Consider the plight of most institutions of higher learning and it is not difficult to understand why there is, at least on the informal (and therefore probably the more important) level, less than honest enthusiasm for doing away with the undergraduate education programs that have generated so many credit hours. To make this observation says nothing about the merit of the argument, but points out that bureaucratic and institutional leadership is distinct from visionary leadership.

   Bureaucratic and institutional leadership is guided by the lodestars of "turf," conflict resolution, and compromise. The key to understanding the dynamics of this leadership mode is to properly identify constituencies and interests. Visionary leadership is not usually generated, at least initially, in board offices, hotel meeting rooms, or nationally called conferences. As Tom Schall wrote in 1914 from a cabin in rural Minnesota, "Not in reveling palaces nor pillared halls are the deepest emotions felt, grandest conceptions born, or most vital truths discovered. But from Sinai's slopes, from the felon cell at Bedford, from the chamber of blindness in London have come the inspirations that have blessed mankind." Of such conceptions American education is now in need.

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No consensus found on major Holmes Group recommendations even among representatives of participating institutions.

An Approach to Assessing Readiness for Educational Reforms

by Dr. Kenneth Hoyt
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Background

Major shifts in direction for educational reform are currently taking place. These include shifts toward: (a) recognizing the key importance of the teaching faculty in implementing reform; (b) formulating reform proposals oriented around simultaneous collaborative changes in both K–12 school districts and in teacher education programs; (c) specifying the importance of the total package of proposed changes rather than a piecemeal approach; and (d) financial empowerment of the organizations calling for change.

Such shifts are clearly evident in three currently popular reports: (1) the Holmes Group report entitled **Tomorrow's Teachers**; (2) the report of the Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy entitled **A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century**; and (3) the report of the National Governors' Association entitled **Time for Results.**[1] Each of these organizations has already initiated actions aimed at implementing recommendations found in its report.

The Need

Lasting educational reform can come about only through consensus decisions and actions by members of key groups/organizations affected by various reform proposals. Each has great power to resist changes with which their members disagree. No matter how powerful or well funded, there is no way that reform proposals found in these reports can be forced on such persons. If consensus is to be attained, representatives of these groups must be able to communicate their extent of agreement with each other. Thus, there exists a great need to develop a means by which such communication can occur.

Pleas to be heard have already been voiced by several of these groups in various issues of **Education Week** appearing in the last year. Examples include those of: (a) vocational education (12/17/86); (b) subject-matter oriented

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associations (2/4/87); (c) special education (1/21/87); and (d) state boards of education (10/22/86). Such groups, of course, represent only some of those sure to be greatly affected if recommendations in the Holmes/Carnegie/NGA reports are implemented.

Assessing readiness for reform is quite different from simply voicing objections to various parts of these reports. Many examples of objections and/or warnings raised by particular persons/groups/ organizations have appeared since these reports were issued (Gartner, 1986; Lawless, 1986; McGrath, 1986; Olson, 1987; Tom, 1986; Soltis, 1987). Each is apparently intended to influence readers with respect to readiness to endorse/implement recommendations found in one or more of these reports. The extent to which they are being successful is, of course, unknown.

A number of position statements reflecting reform proposals have been issued, in part, as alternative reform proposals to the Holmes/ Carnegie/NGA reports. (TECSCU, 1986; AASCU, 1986; Travers & Sacks, 1987; UCEA, 1987). Each appeared *after* publication of the Holmes/ Carnegie/ NGA reports and appears to be, at least in part, a reaction to these reports.

The need for a means by which persons representing various groups/organizations can, in common terms, express their degree of agreement with reform steps suggested in the Holmes/Carnegie/NGA reports appears to be great. If progress toward implementing educational reforms advocated in these reports is to be documented longitudinally, an equally great need exists for beginning baseline data representing where we are now. The effort reported here represents one attempt to begin meeting these needs.

A Rationale for Assessing Readiness for Educational Reforms Advocated in the Holmes/Carnegie/NGA Reports

Four elements combine to form the basic rationale for the effort reported here. First, it is assumed that those who disagree with a given reform proposal are less ready to implement it than are those who agree with it. Thus, a beginning step toward assessing readiness can be considered to be the extent to which a person agrees with a given proposal for reform.

Second, it seems apparent that few persons will find themselves either 100 percent in favor or 100 percent opposed to all of the suggested reform steps found in these reports. Thus, it will be necessary to allow respondents to make independent judgments on each specific suggestion for change.

Third, it seems logical to assume that persons officially representing one of these three groups (Holmes, Carnegie, NGA) should be more uniformly in favor of reform steps suggested by the report with which they are identified than persons representing other groups/ organizations. Thus, data from such official representatives should provide a baseline against which data from other groups and/or organizations can be compared.

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[1] It should be recognized that those parts of **Time for Results** that speak to the need for collaborative, simultaneous reform of K–12 school districts and teacher education programs reflect primarily the contents of the Carnegie Forum's report and, to a lesser extent, the Holmes Group report. The Carnegie Corporation has awarded a $890,000 grant to the National Governor's Association to help states carry out the reform agenda of the Carnegie Report (Olson, 1986). Thus, while **Time for Results** may well have a greater eventual impact than either of the others, its basic recommendations in this area are found in the other two reports and so do not have to be considered separately here.

Fourth, of the three groups, only the Holmes Group has an institutional membership structure that allows data to be collected from persons officially serving as institutional representatives. Thus, initial attention appears to be most appropriately focused on Holmes Group members.

The Problem

Two research problems are evident. The first is one of demonstrating the extent to which baseline data can be collected form Holmes Group institutional representatives in a form useful for making later comparisons with other samples and populations. The second is one of discovering the extent to which Holmes Group institutional representatives now appear to be in agreement with reform changes suggested by the Holmes/Carnegie reports.

Four research questions require answers here: (1) to what extent are responses of Holmes Group sample members sufficiently homogeneous so as to justify their use as a single entity?; (2) to what extent do significant differences exist in ways Holmes Group sample members respond to various subscales found in the instrument?; (3) to what extent to Holmes Group samples members differ in terms of their agreement with the nine commitments each Holmes Group member institution is asked to make when joining the Holmes Group?; and (4) to what extent do Holmes Group sample members differ in terms of mean responses they give to items taken only from the Holmes Report, items taken only from the Carnegie Report, and items found in both the Holmes and Carnegie reports?

The Population

The inaugural meeting of all Holmes Group institutions took place January 31–February 2, 1987. Rosters distributed to those attending that historic meeting contained names of 264 persons including 229 from 98 Holmes Group member institutions and 35 persons listed as "invited participants." These 264 persons constitute the population for this study.

It seems reasonable to assume these persons can be regarded as a special kind of baseline population. Odds appear slight that a Holmes Group member institution would, after having paid $4,000 to join, name, as their official representatives, persons who are unfamiliar with and/or opposed to the Holmes Group report. That is, the person(s) designated as official representatives of the 98 Holmes Group member institutions or as "invited participants" to the inaugural meeting should surely be expected to be more familiar with and probably more favorably inclined toward the contents of the Holmes/Carnegie reports than typical faculty members. They are in no way a random sample of teacher education faculty in these institutions. Data collected from persons representing this special population should provide an operational beginning baseline from which to measure "readiness for educational reform" as reflected in Holmes/Carnegie suggested reforms.

Data Collection Procedures and the Sample Resulting from Them

Using rosters supplied by the Holmes Group, an initial individually typed letter was sent on February 24, 1987 to the 264 population members requesting their participation. Data collection instruments were mailed along with a common memo to the 198 persons who agreed to do so. Three followups were made as "progress reports" to both respondents and non-respondents. By June 1, 1987 when data collection ceased, useable replies had been received from 144 people.

Each data collection instrument was coded prior to being mailed. This allowed comparison of respodents with non-respondents on (1) type of position held, (2) geographic region, and (3) sex. Each of the 264 members of the population were categorized in these ways by the investigator prior to data collection. The similarities and differences among members of the population and those providing useable replies are summarized below in Table 1.

Examination of the data found in Table 1 leads to a conclusion that the sample used in this study is remarkably representative of the population from which it came. Striking similarities can be seen between members of the population and members of the sample on each of the three characteristics on which they were compared.

The sample appears to be slightly less representative when Holmes Group member institutions in the sample are compared with Holmes Group member institutions in the total population. That comparison, using region of the country as a basis for classification, is as follows:

Holmes Region	No. of Institutions In the Population	No. of Institutions In the Sample
Northeast	22	15
Southeast	17	17
Midwest	19	16
South Central	23	19
Far West	17	13
Total	**98**	**80**

Table 1—Extent to Which Respondents Are Representative of the Population of Pre-Registrants to the Holmes Group Inaugural Meeting

Type of Person	N & % in the Population		N & % in the Sample	
	N	%	N	%
Education Deans	76	28.8	44	30.5
Assoc/Asst. Ed Deans	36	13.6	19	13.2
Ed. Dept. Heads	45	17.0	30	20.8
Ed. Professors	47	17.8	27	18.8
A & S Deans/Assoc.	14	5.3	5	3.5
Central Adm.	16	6.1	7	4.9
Program Contributors	30	11.4	12	8.3
TOTALS	**264**	**100.0**	**144**	**100.0**
Holmes Region				
North East	50	18.9	27	18.8
South East	49	18.6	30	20.8
Mid West	55	20.8	34	23.6
South Central	47	17.8	25	17.4
Far West	33	12.5	16	11.1
Program Contributors	30	11.4	12	8.3
TOTALS	**264**	**100.0**	**144**	**100.0**
Sex				
Male	189	71.6	105	72.9
Female	75	28.4	39	27.1
TOTALS	**264**	**100.0**	**144**	**100.0**

When institutions rather than respondent characteristics are used as a basis for judging representativeness of the sample, it can be concluded that, relatively speaking, institutions in the Northeast region of the nation are slightly underrepresented while those in the Southeast are slightly overrepresented. Even here, the sample does not appear to be very biased.

Table 3—Intercorrelation Matrix for the Ten Sub-scales of the Hoyt RER Scale Using Data From the Holmes Inaugural Meeting Group Sample

Sub-Scale	Cert./ Licnsg	Tchr. Power	Tchr. Actblty	Nature of Tchr Ed	K-12 T.E. Rel	Lib Arts Change	Need for Change Lib Arts	More Minority	Finance Budget	Holmes Commit's
Total	.69	.56	.65	.68	.71	.73	.24	.51	.61	.77
Certification/ Licensing		.35	.37	.27	.51	.41	.02	.17	.20	.55
Teacher Power			.30	.17	.39	.26	.14	.24	.31	.26
Teacher Accountability				.34	.43	.34	-.08	.18	.47	.45
Nature of Teacher Ed.					.38	.76	.15	.32	.32	.64
K-12 Teacher Ed. Relationships						.42	.12	.24	.32	.63
Liberal Arts Changes							.14	.42	.27	.67
Need for Change In Liberal Arts								.13	.17	.14
Need For More Minority Students									.40	.36
Budget/Finance										.31

The Instrument

Instrument development began with construction of detailed outlines of both the Holmes and the Carnegie reports. From those outlines, a list of 138 specific suggestions for educational reforms was compiled.

A separate item, usually using the exact wording of the report from which it was taken, was constructed for each suggested change. Items were worded to avoid any meaning inconsistent with the suggested reform found in the report from which it was taken. Each item was constructed using a Likert type format with five possible responses ranging from "Strongly Agree" (scored as "5") to "Strongly Disagree" (scored as "1").

The 138 items stating specific suggested reform actions were initially grouped into eight sub-scales, each of which contained items reflecting a particular aspect of educational reform advocated by the Holmes and/or the Carnegie reports. Each sub-scale contained information designed to help those respondents unfamiliar with one or both of the reports better understand the context in which they were being asked to respond to its items. Three items appeared to belong in each of two sub-scales and, subsequently, placed in both thus making a total of 141 items.

For purposes of data collection in the effort reported here, the eight sub-scales were collated in a single instrument. Eight items specifically concerned with need for change in liberal arts offerings were added to the 141 thus making a total of 149 items. These eight items became a new sub-scale. The "Teacher Power/Teacher Accountability" sub-scale was split into two sub-scales. Thus, the final instrument contained ten sub-scales. The topic of each sub-scale and the number of items in it are:

Topic Covered by Each Sub-Scale	No. of Items
1. Teacher Certification/Licensing	31
2. Teacher Power	17
3. Teacher Accountability	18
4. General Nature of Teacher Education Programs	14
5. Teacher Ed/K-12 School District Working Relationships	13
6. Changes Affecting Liberal Arts Offerings	11
7. Need for Change in Liberal Arts Offerings	8
8. Encouraging More Minority Persons to Become Teachers	11
9. Changes in K-12 School District Financing/ Budgeting	17
10. Commitments Holmes Group Institutions are Asked to Make	9

Of the 149 items, 32 came from suggestions for change made in the Holmes Report, 91 from the Carnegie Forum report, and 26 from suggestions for change made in both reports. This is simply a function of the nature and content of the two reports. The Holmes Report concentrates relatively more attention on the need for reform whereas the Carnegie Report places its primary focus on suggested reform steps.[2]

Following its use in this effort, two attempts were made to judge the worth of the data collection instrument. One was aimed at computing Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients for the instrument as a whole and for each sub-scale. Using data collected from respondents, Table 2 below provides pertinent reliability data:

Table 2—Reliability Data for Form II—Part B Total Scale And Each Subscale Using Responses From Holmes Group Sample

Name of Sub-Scale	Cronbach Alpha "r"	No. of Cases*	No. of Items
Total Instrument	.94	78	149
Certification/Licensing	.82	115	31
Teacher Power	.84	136	16
Teacher Accountability	.73	117	19
Nature of Teacher Education	.74	139	14

[2]This can be clearly seen in a second instrument compiled from the Holmes/Carnegie reports using an analogous approach. That instrument contains items constructed from statements of need for reform found in both reports. Of 75 items in that instrument, 28 came from the Carnegie Report and 47 came from the Holmes Report.

K–12 Teacher Ed Relationship	.84	139	13
Changes in Liberal Arts	.72	137	11
Need for Change/Liberal Arts	.61	134	8
Enrolling Minority Students	.65	135	11
Budget/Finance	.77	113	17
Holmes Commitments	.71	138	9

*Indicates number of respondents completing all items on the scale.

Data found in Table 2 above lead to a conclusion that sub-scale reliabilities are sufficiently high as to justify comparisons with other samples when the Holmes Group sample is taken as a whole.

Second, intercorrelations were computed between each of the ten subscales and between each subscale and the total instrument. The resulting intercorrelation matrix appears below as Table 3.

Data found in Table 3 make it appear that the subscales are measuring different aspects of reform thus justifying the use of scores from each subscale as well as from the total instrument.

Results

Results will be presented as attempts to answer the four research questions posed earlier.

Question (1) related to homogeneity of the total Holmes Group sample. To answer this question, means, standard deviations, and "F" tests were computed for various kinds of sub-group categories of Holmes Group sample members in terms of responses to each sub-scale and the total instrument (11 in all) for each classification category. Because of the large numbers of comparisons required, Tukey (HSD) corrections for multiple comparisons were made for each classification category. Findings are summarized below.

Table 4—Summary of Number of "F" Tests Computed and Number Found Statistically Significant For Various Sub-Categories[3]

Classification Category	No. Ways Classified	Total No. "F" Tests	No. Sig. at .05 Level
Region	5	11	0
Age	3	11	1
Sex	2	11	0
Type of Position	2	11	0
Type of Setting	4	11	1
Type of Student Worked With	4	11	0
Type of Expertise	6	11	2
Years Experience	3	11	0
Totals	32	88	4

[3]Detailed tables available from author upon request

With 88 "F" tests conducted, 4.44 can be expected to be significant at the .05 level by chance alone. Four were found here. These include statistically significant differences in means between:

Classif.	Sub-category vs	Sub-category	On Sub-Scale	Higher Being
Age	Under 40 (4.36)	Over 55 (4.07)	Teacher Power	Under 40
Type of Position	Deans (3.05)	"Other" (3.78)	Need for Change in Liberal Arts	"Other"

Type of Expertise	Ele. C. & I (3.40)	Ed. Psych. (4.02)	Teacher Power	Ele. C. & I
Type of Expertise	Ele. C. & I (3.40)	"Other" (2.96)	Need for Change in Lib. Arts	Ele. C. & I

It seems proper to assume here that these differences, even though statistically significant, probably are, in reality, due to chance. Based on these findings, it is concluded that respondents are sufficiently homogeneous in their responses so as to justify answering Questions 2 and 3 using the total N without any subcategories.

Question (2) asked if differences exist in mean scores among the various subscales in the total instrument. To answer this question requires a separate analysis of data for each of the 10 subscales. Since 122 of the 144 respondents were employed in teacher education, it was decided to include means/standard deviations for both teacher education respondents and for all respondents in answering Question 2. The data appear below in Table 5.

Table 5—Means and Standard Deviations for Each RER Scale When Compared for Teacher Education Respondents versus All Respondents

	Teacher Education Respondents			All Respondents		
Measure	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.
Certification/ Licensing	122	4.22	.33	141	4.19	.34
Teacher Power	118	4.22	.42	137	4.20	.43
Teacher Accountability	120	3.80	.44	139	3.80	.43
Nature of Teacher Ed	121	3.45	.52	140	3.50	.52
K-12 Teacher Ed Relationships	121	4.32	.43	140	4.29	.43
Suggested Changes in Liberal Arts	121	3.75	.50	140	3.77	.51
Need for Change in Liberal Arts	119	3.99	.35	138	3.20	.50
Need for More Minority Teachers	119	3.99	.35	138	3.99	.36
Finance/Budget	120	3.58	.46	139	3.58	.45
ALL Holmes Commitments	119	4.16	.47	137	4.14	.47
GRAND MEAN	122	3.93	.28	141	3.92	.28

Note: A one way repeated measures ANOVA using mean scores of all respondents on subscales for (a) teacher power; (b) teacher accountability; (c) nature of teacher education; (d) finance and budgeting; and (e) Holmes commitments yielded the following results: $F(4,540) = 112.224$, $p < .0001$.

Note: After Tukey (HSD) correction, statistically significant differences exist between mean scores on the following subscales:

a. Teacher Power versus Teacher Accountability
b. Teacher Power versus Nature of Teacher Education
c. Teacher Power versus Finance/Budget

d. Teacher Accountability versus Nature of Teacher Education
e. Teacher Accountability versus Finance/Budget
f. Teacher Accountability versus Holmes Commitments
g. Finance/Budget versus Holmes Commitments
h. Nature of Teacher Education versus Holmes Commitments

Data reported in Table 5 above clearly demonstrate differences exist in respondents' "readiness for educational reform" in terms of mean scores on the sub-scales of the instrument. Three categories of "readiness" appear to exist including:

Highest Mean Scores	Middle Mean Scores	Lowest Mean Scores
(4.14–4.29)	(3.77–3.99)	(3.20–3.58)
Certification/ Licensing	Tchr. Account- ability	Nature of Tchr. Ed
Teacher Power	Sugg. Chgs. in Lib Art	Need Chg., Lib Arts
K–12 Tchr Ed Rel.	More Minority Teachers	Finance/Budget
All Holmes Commitments		

Items in sub-scales having the highest mean scores appear to represent reform suggestions most acceptable to these respondents. Items in sub-scales with the lowest mean scores are assumed to be least acceptable.

Question (3) asked about mean differences for all respondents with respect to each of the nine items in the "Holmes Commitment" subscales. Each item in this sub-scale represents one of the nine commitments institutions are asked to make when they become Holmes Group members. These nine commitments can be paraphrased as:

#1—Phase out the undergraduate major in teacher education and develop in its place a graduate program in teacher education.
#2—Greatly strengthen the pedagogical curriculum.
#3—Focus clinical experience on development of practice, not simply to exposing prospective teachers to experienced teachers.
#4—Support differentiated staffing of teachers at three levels and change graduate teacher education to provide for it.
#5—Support development and administration by the Holmes Group of a series of professional teacher examinations.
#6—Require students to demonstrate qualifications at (a) time of admission; (b) prior to internship; and (c) during work in classrooms.
#7—Significantly increase the number of minority persons in teacher education programs.
#8—Establish and work with Professional Development schools.
#9—Strive to change the structure and working conditions within schools to make them compatible with the requirements of a new profession.

Pertinent data required to answer Question (3) appear in Table 6 below.

Table 6—Frequency Distributions, Means, Standard Deviations, And "F" Tests for Holmes Group Commitments 1–9 for All Respondents

Holmes Commit- ment	N	Agree	Strongly Agree	Unde- cided	Dis- agree	Strongly Dis- agree	Mean	S.D.
1	140	27	41	23	24	25	3.15	1.39
2	140	83	55	1	1	0	4.57	.55
3	140	87	51	2	0	0	4.61	.52
4	139	33	51	26	20	9	3.57	1.19
5	139	17	58	46	13	5	3.50	.95
6	140	52	81	5	2	0	4.31	.61
7	140	91	45	4	0	0	4.62	.54
8	140	73	50	13	1	3	4.35	.85
9	139	93	43	2	1	0	4.64	.55

Note: A one way repeated measures ANOVA using Holmes Commitments Nos. 1, 4, 6, 8, and 9 yielded the following results: $F_{(4,548)} = 71.754$, $p < .0001$.

Note: After Tukey (HSD) correction, there are statistically significant differences between:

a. Commitments #1 and #4
b. Commitments #1 and #6
c. Commitments #1 and #8
d. Commitments #1 and #9
e. Commitments #4 and #6
f. Commitments #4 and #8
g. Commitments #4 and #9
h. Commitments #6 and #9
i. Commitments #8 and #9

Data found in Table 6 make it clear that, both from the standpoint of the relatively large number of respondents marking this time "strongly disagree" and from the standpoint of mean score comparisons, Holmes Commitment #1 stands out as significantly lower in degree of "readiness for educational reform" than any of the remaining eight commitments. Its mean score is lower than the next lowest mean score by an amount statistically significant at the .05 level of confidence. In addition, three other categories of "readiness for educational reform" appear to exist including:

Highest Mean Scores	Middle Mean Scores	Lowest Mean Scores
(4.57–4.64)	(4.31–4.35)	(3.50–3.57)
Commitment #2	Commitment #6	Commitment #4
Commitment #3	Commitment #8	Commitment #5
Commitment #7		
Commitment #9		

It is clear that on six of the nine commitments Holmes Group Institutions are asked to make, mean scores of these respondents were in the "Agree—Strongly Agree" range.

Question (4) asked if respondents differed in mean scores when items derived only from the Holmes Group report, from the Carnegie report, and from both reports are contrasted. To answer this question, the 149 items were divided into three groups. Group 1 contained items derived only from the Carnegie Report, Group 2 contained items derived only from the Holmes Report, and Group 3 items were constructed from suggestions for change found in both the Holmes and Carnegie reports. Following this, means/ standard deviations were calculated for each group and

comparisons made using a one way ANOVA. Results appear below in Table 7.

Table 7—Means, Standard Deviations, and F Test
for Carnegie, Holmes, and Carnegie/Holmes Items
In Terms of Responses Given By all Respondents

Category	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
Carnegie Items Group	1 3.917	.264	144
Holmes Items Group 2	4.016	.344	143
Both Group 3	3.691	.585	144

Note: A repeated measures one way ANOVA yielded the following results: $F_{(2,284)} = 44.295$, $p < .0001$.

Note: After Tukey (HSD) correction, statistically significant differences existed between each possible pairing of the three groups.

While these differences in means are not large, they are statistically significant. In terms of "readiness for educational reform" as measured here, respondents appear to be most in agreement with the kinds of suggestions for reform found in the Holmes Report only. They are obviously least in agreement with the kinds of reform suggestions found in both the Holmes and in the Carnegie reports.

Discussion

Respondents varied considerably in terms of the kinds of demographic variables specified in Table 4. Yet, in terms of the ways they responded to items in the instrument, they were remarkably homogeneous. It seems appropriate to assume that this homogeneity probably reflects their common concerns regarding the types of reform proposals found in the Holmes and Carnegie reports. It certainly should not be interpreted to mean that these demographic variables need not be studied further with repsect to repsonses given by members of other kinds of samples. Certainly, it is reasonable to assume that future studies may find classification factors such as age, sex, region of the country, etc. to produce statistically significant differences among respondents. Thus, these demographic variables remain as the basis for a set of reasonable hypotheses to be tested.

Respondents are not equally supportive of all kinds of suggestions for reform found in the Holmes and Carnegie reports. It is interesting to note that the lowest mean "readiness for reform" subscale scores in Table 5 are associated with topics related to change within the college/university structure rather than within K–12 school systems. It is also interesting to note that the mean "readiness for reform" score on the "All Holmes Commitments" subscale (4.14) is among the top three and is between "Agree" and "Strongly Agree" on the five-point Likert scale. Certainly, when all nine Holmes Commitments are viewed as a single entity, it is clear that these institutional representatives were generally in agreement with them.

Respondents differed to statistically different degrees in terms of the strength of their support for the nine basic commitments each Holmes institution is asked to make. The three lowest mean scores found in Table 6 are with respect to: (a) Commitment #1—phase out the undergraduate

degree; (b) Commitment #4—support differentiated staffing of K–12 teachers; and (c) Commitment #5—support development of professional teacher examinations by the Holmes Group. These data make it clear that respondents are not strongly supportive of all nine commitments their institution made when it joined the Holmes Group. These data may cause some to question the exact meaning of Holmes Group membership.

It is not surprising to find that official institutional representatives of Holmes Group institutions are, on the average, more supportive of changes called for only in the Holmes Report than only in the Carnegie Report. It *is* surprising, however, to find that the lowest mean level of support expressed by respondents was for those reform steps advocated by both reports. This may well be due to the fact that, included in such items, were all of those related to the suggestion that the undergraduate degree in teacher education be abolished.

Conclusions

Based on data reported here, it is concluded that:

1. members of the sample are representative of members of the population from which the sample was formed. Thus, results are considered generalizable to the population of 264 institutional representatives whose names appeared on the official roster of the Holmes Group inaugural meeting.

2. Members of the sample are sufficiently homogeneous in their responses to justify pooling of scores for all respondents without regard to demographic differences existing among them.

3. The data collection instrument, including each of its 10 subscales, is sufficiently reliable to justify its use in group comparisons of the Holmes Group sample with other samples.

4. Readiness for educational reform, as measured here, is uneven among Holmes Group institutional representatives when extent of agreement with the various kinds of reforms suggested is the criterion.

5. The extent to which Holmes Group institutional representatives agree with the nine commitments each Holmes Group institution has agreed to meet varies considerably. Institutional agreement to all nine commitments is not shared equally among institutional representatives.

Final Observations

The most important goal of this effort was to assemble a set of baseline data useful both in comparing Holmes Group institutional representatives with persons representing other groups/organizations and in later longitudinal followup efforts. That goal has been reached at an acceptable level. It is hoped that these baseline data will be used widely by others interested in assessing readiness for educational reform.

It is important to recognize that "readiness for reform," as measured here, pertains only to those reform suggestions found in the Holmes and/or Carnegie reports. If representatives of other groups/ organizations have low mean scores on the data collection instrument used here, this, in no way, means they are necessarily opposed to "educational reform." Rather, it simply means that they are opposed to the kinds of reform advocated by the Holmes and/or Carnegie reports.

It is equally important to note that "agreement," as measured here, is not synonomous with "readiness" for reform. Rather, it is simply one component. To agree with the value of a suggested reform is not necessarily equivalent to being willing to support its implementation.

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Human factors innate to bureaucratic organization impede effective planning . . .

Cooperative Planning: A Shaky Prospect

by Dr. George J. Crawford
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I have a friend/colleague who is compulsively curious. His curiosity surfaces in unusual forms and in unexpected (and sometimes inappropriate) ways. He and I observe a convention sometimes apparent between friends: we joke with each other in ways that involve saying the exact opposite of what we really mean. For example, one may say to the other: "That's an awfully unattractive outfit you're wearing today. It's fortunate your tie's so ugly; otherwise, everyone would notice that your suit doesn't fit."

It is important to understand that each of us tends to use this form of joke with people we especially like. This colleague/friend happened to overhear me one day when I used one of these little jokes on a new doctoral student— one whose tenure had not yet grown enough to establish comfortable familiarity with the fact that affection was a strong part of my motivation for using that form. The student left after an explanation had restored her comfort, sense of self-worth and emotional stability. At this point my friend's irrepressible curiosity showed itself.

"What *is* that form of humor?" he asked. He departed to consult his huge, well-thumbed **Oxford**, and returned quickly, his face wreathed with a triumphant smile. "That's 'joshing'!"

According to my more modest **American Heritage Dictionary**, the verb, to josh, means to tease good-humoredly, to banter. In thinking about a framework for organizing comments on things that inhibit cooperative planning, it occurred to me that I might do worse than adopt a teasing, bantering form—all done in good humor, of course—but one which is unabashedly joshing in its character. You would favor me by remembering throughout that this form is used by the perpetrator *only* when he or she believes him- or herself to be among good friends.

To a certain extent wit may be successfully employed to expose folly, vice and wrong-headed thinking. Perhaps to a lesser extent it also can be used to suggest where the thoughts which undergird concepts, theories and practical recommendations are lacking in rigor, clarity, breadth and depth. Humorists of satirical bent and unrepentant, unreconstructed cynics have served effectively to debunk myths, deflate exaggerated claims, and point out other efforts—some innocent, some premeditated—to mislead an unsuspecting audience. Given this background, then, you should not be surprised to find the variance in the subsequent discourse accounted for partially by satire, some-

what by cynicism, and generally by joshing. I *think* I am serious. Well—perhaps *half*-serious.

For the sake of infusing the argument with a certain amount of spirit, let me begin with a particularly blunt instrument, the unqualified assertion: to wit:

"Planning as an integrative force in educational administration has been sadly overlooked" (**Educational Planning**, 1987, 52). Moreover, the likelihood that this status will soon change is not great.

The unqualified assertion consists of two parts: the first is quoted from the 1987 International Society for Educational Planning conference theme. The second part was created for purposes which may be characterized, on one hand, as being not altogether malicious, but, on the other, not altogether lacking in it. I will argue that planning as an integrative or cooperative force in educational administration (and, by reference, I suspect, in virtually any other field of endeavor) is largely impossible to achieve. If the arguments offered in support of this assertion can be overturned conceptually, theoretically, or practically, I will be pleased and fulfilled, and will consider the purposes of my arguments to have been well-served, and the role of devil's advocate to have been well-played.

The arguments against integrative planning may be grounded for purposes of the discussion within three primary contexts or taxonomic categories. These categories are defined as 1) social, 2) psychological and 3) structural factors which, it will be argued, act singly and in combination in ways which, if not effectively counteracted, make the prospects of achieving an integrated approach to planning remote, difficult, or impossible. Let us examine each of these categories, along with some relevant illustrations of subtypes, in turn.

JOSH NUMBER ONE: SOCIAL FACTORS

All informed, sensitive people are aware that social groups are formed and maintained along simple lines, follow simple norms and rules, are commendably cooperative, respond favorably to mild, inexpensive incentives, and demand valid, verified solutions to problems, the characteristics of which solutions conform in all important respects to the verified aspects of the problem(s) they are designed to solve.

What does this "social josh" imply? First, society is a complex phenomenon. On a macroscopic level one has only to tick through the lexicon of such terms as East versus West, insiders versus outsiders, racist, sexist, ageist, political viability, party interest, and so forth to be reminded of the palpable fragility of the threads that bind "society." One has only to think briefly to identify multiple examples illustrating the extent to which competition has become a valued commodity in contemporary life. In fact, competition and competitiveness are more pervasive in the life of our world, irrespective of place, culture, party or other identifiable group than is possible to make malleable by the ministrations of integrative planning. Unless a quantum-type discovery is made which effectively sways humankind from a competitive posture to a stance which is cooperative, the prospects of integrative planning are dim.

Evidence abounds in the daily news of nations' unstinting efforts to remain militarily competitive. The "leveraged takeover" has become pervasive in the corporate world. Can anyone argue seriously that this constitutes evidence of beneficent philanthropy? In the local firm (read university, college, school district), one need only look at a few reports of

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recent board meetings or talk with participants in meetings of involved units to learn how assiduously information (and, therefore, the "competitive edge") is protected. Nations do not cooperate because to do so would be to lose the edge in strategic defense capability. Department heads do not cooperate with department heads. To do so would place the constituents of those cooperating in positions of comparative disadvantagement. To the extent that these characterizations ring true, to the same extent it is impossible to plan in an integrated, cooperative fashion.

As was implied in the preceding discourse on competition, incentives are seen as playing an instrumental role as constraints against integrative planning. Quite simple, unless incentives of sufficient magnitude and value are identified which have at least the *promise* of supplanting society's commitment to self-interest, self-promotion, competition and "winning," integrative planning does not have a realistic chance of succeeding. The worst-case scenario is illustrated by examples suggesting the impossibility of securing interstate agreements to control the deleterious effects of acid rain, to establish *tolerable* sites for the storage of nuclear waste, to share such vital, fragile and scarce resources as water, and so forth. I suspect that something less than a Promethean effort would be required to unearth numerous additional examples from virtually every stratum of society which illustrate the monumental difficulty accompanying most important efforts to persuade society to behave differently than it does currently. The crucial question, of course, is: Who is wise enough to devise these badly needed incentives? Without them, how is cooperative planning to succeed?

The final illustrative subtype under the "social josh" category is this (no longer joshing, of course): There is something wonderfully unique about "society" which causes it (society) to prefer simple (note that I did not say "elegant") solutions. Few of us, it seems, are immune from this inordinate but foolhardy affection.

Let us examine some illustrations from education. Where discipline has been perceived to decline to unacceptable levels, staff members have been trained in the tenets and practices of assertive discipline. Where instructional prowess has been perceived to wane, effective instruction has been trundled out and laid on. Since the principal has been proved the critical link in the effective school, myriad groups of principals have been taught instructional leadership—some more, and some less voluntarily. One may be profitably reminded of the analogous lesson taught by the Wizard (in **The Wizard of Oz**) to the Lion: "You don't need courage! You need a testimonial." The socially sensitive individual may also resonate to the meaning in the reply—apocryphal, perhaps—by the pianist, Artur Rubinstein, to a gushing fan's observation that he " ... would give my life to play the piano like that!" To which Rubinstein somewhat sourly replied, "I did." At this point it is appropriate to insert a "joshollary." A "joshollary," of course, is the functional equivalent, in the josher's narrative, or a corollary in the narrative of a normal person.

JOSHOLLARY NUMBER ONE

All complex problems have simple solutions. Evidence of this assertion is amply apparent in the pronouncements of heads of state and governmental units, the language of television commercials, defense contractors, transportation consultants, computer programmers, attorneys, physicians, and—Heaven forbid—*some* educational planners.

JOSH NUMBER TWO: PSYCHOLOGICAL FACTORS

All otherwise-normal people are so constituted psychologically that they readily accept personal incentives that are reasonable, practically attainable and readily available, insist on substantive quality in products, problem solutions, etc., i.e., they are not easily duped by the surface, superficial qualities of things; they are so canny and experienced that they will seldom, if ever, accept a thing just because it is "new," i.e., they insist on the "tried and true." (For the skeptics among you, see the recall records on automobiles of American manufacture for the last several years). *And*—they are so oriented as to *never* be fooled by a (simple) solution to a (complex) problem, the characteristics of which solution have no discernible relationships to the characteristics of the attendant problem.

How do the illustrative subtypes contained within the "psychological josh" conform to observational evidence? With regard to the first assertion (speaking seriously now), it seems that dysfunctionally large numbers of people have a psychological makeup which is satisfied *only* by incentives that are unreasonable, impractical and scarce. Illustration: A certain manufacturing division has been understaffed for some time. Product sales have declined. An opening in an instrumental position becomes available. Management recommends hiring an individual having new skills which will contribute uniquely to the division's production (and profit) recovery. The individual requires a premium salary exceeding salaries paid current employees. Current employees strongly object to differential pay for the new employee, asserting that they will withhold services if management follows through on intentions to complete the new hire as proposed.

There is evidence here of what my boyhood days on the farm led me to label the "boss pig syndrome." In an occasional litter there would be an obstreperous, bellicose pig who would be so selfish that he (almost always, in this case, he) would so busily and intently guard the feeding trough from the unwanted intrusions of his litter mates that he would, as often as not, fail largely to eat himself. In the illustration from the farm, the incentive—being "piggish"—was foiled to a considerable extent by the more cooperative efforts of the unselfish littermates. In the human world, however, the range of observable sophistication in behaving in obstructionist ways is infinitely wider than it was in the world of my boyhood pigs. In other words, a certain meanness of spirit is often found in individuals which, because of subtle, sophisticated modes of expression is impossible to detect until its counterproductive effects have become evident. For one who would plan cooperatively it is an unfortunate fact of life that the blocking behavior of people is not as ingenuous as that of pigs.

Evidence of the willingness of people to accept substandard quality in processes, standards of production and products is evident all around us. Consider the television commercial in which an unctuous huckster says: "I'm not a doctor, but I play a doctor on T.V. and I know that brand X cures ..." We are apparently blandly unconcerned that conclusions no longer need to follow logically from premises—even in the discourse of commercials. If the process did not "sell," it is likely that market research would reveal that fact.

How is it that we have come to tolerate behavior in elected officials in which actions suspiciously like the bait-and-switch tactics of the marketplace are used to turn solemn events into occasions for self-aggrandizement? (A spokesperson for the president of the United States, speaking

on behalf of the president following the untimely death of a Cabinet member commented that the deceased deserved "much of the credit" for returning the country to a state of prosperity).

Finally, in this "psycho-josh" category, we turn with poignant interest to the subtype of problem which asserts that there is something fundamentally flawed in a generation (or several generations) who will blithely not only accept inappropriately *simple* solutions to problems that remain intractable in the face of simple approaches, but who will, in fact, tolerate wholesale substitutions of problems which are permitted to stand *in place of* more fundamental flaws. Peterson (1987), for example, points out that the major components of Japan's manufacturing infrastructure have been totally replaced upwards of seven times since World War II. The effort of manufacturing industries in the United States pales by comparison, as evidenced by discouraging deficits in balance of trade. And who is to be blamed for this, you may ask? (We *must* find some*one*, or some *group* to *blame*, of course!) "Well! Harumph! We have examined the economy! We have scrutinized government policy! And we have concluded—'it,' is—the—fault—of—E-D-U-C-A-T-I-O-N!!" One may innocently inquire what other conclusions might be suggested by more robust inquiries—inquiries more intent on discovering causal factors and less concerned with political self-interest. Again, however, in light of what reality portends for the planner, how is the planner to proceed *integratively* in an environment peopled so abundantly by individuals who are so easily duped?

JOSHOLLARY NUMBER TWO

Most major business firms have gone bankrupt many times over because they insist on pandering to the sophisticated tastes and incredible powers of discernment of their patrons.

JOSHOLLARY NUMBER TWO AND ONE-HALF

Successful politicians *are* successful because of their insistence on telling the plain, unvarnished truth to constitutents, irrespective of the potentially-dire consequences for themselves of doing so.

JOSH NUMBER THREE: STRUCTURAL FACTOR

Organizational complexity is a myth. Most organizations—having more than a handful of participants—are so transparently simple in their hierarchical and functional form that even a child could cope nicely with their oversight. This assertion applies particularly to educational organizations. It follows, therefore, that planning in public school districts, colleges and universities could—if it has not already happened by the time of this reading—be reduced to child's play.

If this were not dealing with an enterprise having such serious implications and consequences it would be hilariously funny. For those among us who need comic relief it is unfortunate, indeed, that planning *does* have serious consequences and implications. It is no laughing—or joking—matter. Complexity is a fact of organizational life. Complexity—the number and similarity (or lack of it) of elements comprising the organization (Hoy and Miskel, 1987)—renders the tasks of planners and other organizational participants difficult. When one is reminded of the existence or *co*-existence of informal organization within and alongside the formally defined organization, such awareness may be sufficient to drive planners to seek other, less-hazardous lines of employment.

Educational institutions are complex. They have many related parts, some of which may be relatively transparent to the probes of planners, but many of which will be impervious to the most sophisticated analyses. When knowledge of the illustrative examples discussed under Social and Psychological Factors is added to complexity, what do the *real* prospects of cooperative planning appear to be? Taken in combination, the factors present a daunting prospect for the educational planner. Perhaps it would be more productive to restrict our efforts to short-term, within-unit, surefire planning activities. How can planners realistically hope to overcome the intransigent effects of complexity, competition, particularistic incentives and affection for simple solutions in social groups? How is the poor, misbegotten planner to cope with the diversity of incentive preference, willingness (insistence, perhaps) of individuals to accept appearance rather than substance, to reach out eagerly for something "new," and to prefer the "simple" solution? How is the final psychological factor—*individual* willingness to accept/have affection for simple solutions to be addressed? How are we ever to have a realistic hope of dealing effectively with structural complexity?

If these concerns by themselves are not sufficient to instigate a controversy, consider what Beer (1981) has suggested:

> The reward and penalty structure in management heavily disfavors innovation: it is a fact which demands fresh thinking if our institutions are to survive (from the preface).

and:

> "This is how we do it here" has become the basic slogan all over again (p. 5).

Note that in the first quotation Beer cites *innovation*—not *novelty*.

Finally, in a discussion of underground construction in New York City, we find the following comments which—if you were not already convinced—may bring you around to the reasonable conclusion that cooperative planning is a chimera:

> It doesn't matter how carefully you plan, you're still never sure what you're going to find . . . On the surface, short of a hurricane, you're not going to run into any surprises. But underground it's a surprise when there are no surprises. The records will show a sewer or an electrical conduit under a street, . . . but they won't give the specific horizontal or vertical location. A manhole tells you where a line is but not which way it goes. A lot of the time you're working by feel and intuition (Jackson, 1987, 41). . . .

> The city's restless growth and constant change explain the absence of an overall master plan for subterranean construction. "You can make master plans in a dream world," Arnold Vollmer says, "but in the real world you fight for space and put a new facility where you can." Thus the engineers who continually rearrange Manhattan's innards must work piecemeal, attacking problems as they arise (Jackson, 1987, 46).

What may be said, then, by way of attempting to provide concluding remarks for this not-so-funny attempt to josh on the critical topic of cooperative planning? It seems appropriate to comment first on the harmful outcomes realized when reality is confused with games, and *vice versa*.

A game, according to definition, is a "way of amusing oneself; diversion." Specified rules, competition, and "winning" are important criterial attributes of games. Is life a "game," truly? Is Education a "game?" Is Politics a "game?" Is there something wrong, perhaps, in a culture in which one hears a prominent *coach* speak, not of winning a competition, but of "crushing" the opponent? Is there anything to be alarmed about in the discourse of a presidential aspirant who suggests that peace will not be a part of his campaign vocabulary? Is the planning process which is vitally important to providing excellent, equitable education to the students of a nation something which is done solely for the amusement and diversion of planners?

The United States, it may be suggested, has permitted itself to be lulled too long into a kind of somnolent complacency in the face of benign assurances that things are somehow "better," when close scrutiny suggests that—in many instances—they are not. One possible explanation for this curious state of affairs is apparent in the interesting tension which exists between elected and appointed leaders' voracious commitment to tenure in office, on the one hand, and their fear, on the other, that accurate, candid specification of *real* problems may be at odds with tenure interests. Fairness requires that a similar speculative query be directed toward private sector interests and much of public education in our country. Have we become so engrossed with short-run profit, the achievement of quick-fix "effectiveness," and maintenance of "competitive edge" that we've lost sight of some of the more important, salient hallmarks of quality? One would hope not, of course. We can also hope that the more benevolent, philanthropic elements of human behavior will once again become evidently influential in the discourse and actions of all our leaders and in our collective achievements.

Through a collective act of will we may yet be able to label problems accurately, and then—only then—begin to devise cooperatively planned solutions which have some real promise of working over something other than the short term. In the meantime, if we persist in our uncooperative ways, we may take some small comfort in the words of a final josh. They come for the congratulatory introductory remarks enclosed with a timekeeping device: "(This watch) . . . incorporates the marvelous advances of space-age computer circuitry to bring you convenience, efficiency, and reliability to suit your everyday lifestyle needs." Curious, isn't it? Space-age circuitry to suit your everyday needs. Does it help you understand our problem when I tell you that I bought one? Is any further clarification added by my telling you that I had a devil of a time figuring out how to make it work?

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There are a variety of effective instructional models other than that of Madeline Hunter.

Planning Models: Two Alternatives to Hunter

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Introduction

During this current period of reform many are seeking simple solutions to the complex variables affecting qualitative improvements in education. Among the solutions is an increased emphasis on mastery learning principles which essentially have educators identify a specified set of objectives and then organize instruction and curriculum materials to teach the objectives. While mastery learning has been demonstrated to be effective (Bloom, 1984), the effects are most notable on criterion-referenced tests. Slavin (cited in "Education USA," 1987) reported that mastery learning gains have not generalized to increased performance on standardized achievement tests. Thus, while students may master specified objectives, they may be missing learning opportunities that lead to broader understanding and more general application.

Madeline Hunter developed a mastery learning model (Hunter, 1982) which has been adopted and adapted by many local school districts. On a statewide level, Texas has been developing a teacher-appraisal system based on Hunter's model. Training sessions for Texas teachers and administrators are well underway.

While Hunter's model has been enthusiastically received by some educators, the model has not proved to be the panacea of reform. For example, the Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study revealed that there were no significant differences in student achievement between students taught by teachers receiving prolonged inservice training in the Hunter model and students in classrooms led by teachers using no specific model (Stallings, 1987). Similar results from an East Coast study were reported by Donovan, Sousa and Walberg (1987). Empirical data regarding the effectiveness of the Hunter model suggests that the model's effectiveness is questionable.

Reformers interested in mastery learning as a technologically efficient way to achieve desired improvements are myopic. Reading researchers have indicated that the best reading approach isn't one specific teaching method. Rather, the best approach is a combination of several methods. Similarly, the best way to teach may not be one specific model but a combination of several models. Lee Shulman (1987) described an attempt to evaluate a lesson presented by Secretary of Education William J. Bennett about the Federalist Papers. Bennett's lesson was well presented, but it could not be evaluated using the Hunter model. Perhaps Shulman discovered what many Texas teachers have discovered through their attempts to change their teaching styles: The Hunter model was not appropriate for all teachers in all situations.

Two Alternatives

There are alternatives to mastery learning and the Hunter model. Two alternative models will be described in this section. The models are not presented as either-or options; they are alternatives to be used when appropriate and to provide educators with additional variety to meet the multidimensional needs of their students.

Teach–Practice–Apply. Cooper, Warncke, Ramstad and Shipman (1979) described an approach to teaching reading in which teachers taught a skill, provided students with opportunities to practice the skill, and then helped students apply the skill to new levels and in different contexts. The Teach–Practice–Apply (TPA) model is an attractive alternative to a mastery learning model because of the message it connotes. Rather than suggesting an efficient, teacher-directed, somewhat engineered approach to classroom instruction, the TPA model encourages teachers to provide ample time to not only accommodate existing student behaviors to new levels of sophistication, but to provide time and opportunities for students to assimilate, or strengthen, the newly learned information.

The TPA model essentially requires teachers to help students learn new information and skills during the teach portion. The teach portion may be deductive or inductive, and inductive teaching appears to be fostered more readily by the TPA model than by the Hunter model. Practice in the TPA model and Hunter model are similar. Teachers are encouraged to provide practice activities that relate specifically to the material developed in the teach portion of the lesson. They are also encouraged to actively monitor students during the practice period.

Sadly, application opportunities are non-existent in most learning settings. The TPA model addresses this deficiency by including provisions for applying the material to different situations. This enables teachers to enrich each lesson as well as involve more divergence and creativity in their teaching. The TPA model is illustrated in Figure 1.

**Figure 1
The Overlapping Nature of Teach–Practice–Apply**
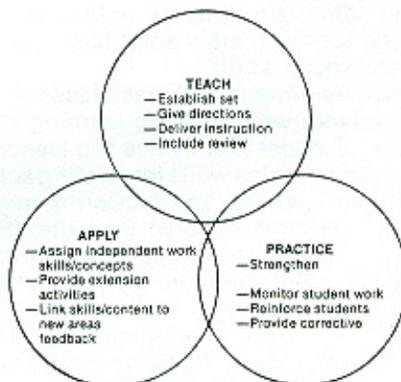
Reinhartz and VanCleaf (1986)

Reinhartz and Van Cleaf (1986) expanded application of the TPA model beyond use in reading classrooms. Their description illustrates how the model may be used in a variety of subject areas using a variety of teaching strategies. Teachers can use a variety of inductive and deductive strate-

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gies within the context of the teach, the practice or the apply portions of a lesson. For example, an inductive concept-attainment strategy or moral-dilemma strategy may be presented during the teach portion of a lesson. Discussions could follow as a Socratic type of practice for the material developed in the teach. Finally, students might develop their own concept-attainment activities or moral dilemmas as the apply activity. This type of lesson would involve students in student-centered learning while developing the specified objective of the lesson.

Van Cleaf and Reinhartz (1987) provided data indicating that college students enrolled in undergraduate social studies methods courses developed significantly more student-centered (inductive) teaching activities, identified significantly fewer instructional objectives and taught the fewer objectives significantly more thoroughly when using the TPA model. The TPA model has also been integrated into the Scott, Foresman elementary reading series. The model appears to encourage teachers to develop divergence in their professional skills rather than the convergence connoted by the way in which the Hunter model is often implemented, and, therefore, has merit as an alternative to the Hunter model.

The 4Mat System. Bernice McCarthy (1981, 1985) developed the 4Mat System as a means of helping teachers plan lessons responsive to the learning style differences of their students. Her model is premised on four learning styles described by David Kolb (1976) and the left-right hemispheric cognitive styles of students.

Kolb described learning as a combination of two dimensions: how individuals perceive information and how they process information. Each occurs along a continuum. The perceiving continuum ranges from sensing and feeling at one end to thinking about information at the other end of the continuum. The processing dimension ranges from watching and reflecting to actively doing as ways to learn. Learning style is described in terms of individual preferences and strengths relative to the perceiving and processing dimensions.

Brain dominance, or hemispheric specialization, is a relatively new way of looking at the manner in which people learn. It is hypothesized that while individuals use both hemispheres, they usually demonstrate preferences for behaviors associated with one hemisphere (Levy, 1983). The importance of learning style relative to hemispheric preference is accentuated by observations that the school curriculum is a left brain curriculum (Telzrow, 1981) and, therefore, not amenable to right-brain students, right-brain subject areas and the need for right-brain solutions to problems in our corporate and social world.

To help teachers develop and teach lessons that meet the needs of students with differing learning styles, McCarthy developed a model that cycles the lesson through each of Kolb's learning styles while integrating activities for left- and right-brain learners. The McCarthy model, illustrated in Figure 2, is more detailed than the TPA model. Complete lessons consist of cycling learners through four quadrants. Teachers begin with quadrant 1 by relating the topic of the lesson to students' personal lives and their need to learn the information . . . integrating the information with a focus on the "self." Lessons then proceed to quadrant 2 in which the concept is formed and developed, somewhat like the teach in the Hunter and TPA models. The third quadrant of the lesson provides an opportunity for practice. Practice should relate specifically to the material taught and it should include an opportunity for each student to add something personal to the practice by relating the material to their own lives. The final quadrant of McCarthy's 4Mat

model requires students to integrate the material learned and practice by applying the material to a new and more complex situation.

The McCarthy model is being tested in 22 settings and data should be published soon. While McCarthy's 4Mat model is more detailed and prescriptive than the TPA model, it has potential as a useful alternative for teachers.

The comments of a junior high math teacher who planned and delivered lessons using the McCarthy 4Mat model aptly describe the strengths and weaknesses of the model. She stated that teacher planning took longer, the use of manipulatives was required, students enjoyed the lessons and they seemed to learn the concepts better than when engaged in traditionally prepared lessons.

Figure 2
A Conceptualization of 4Mat Model*
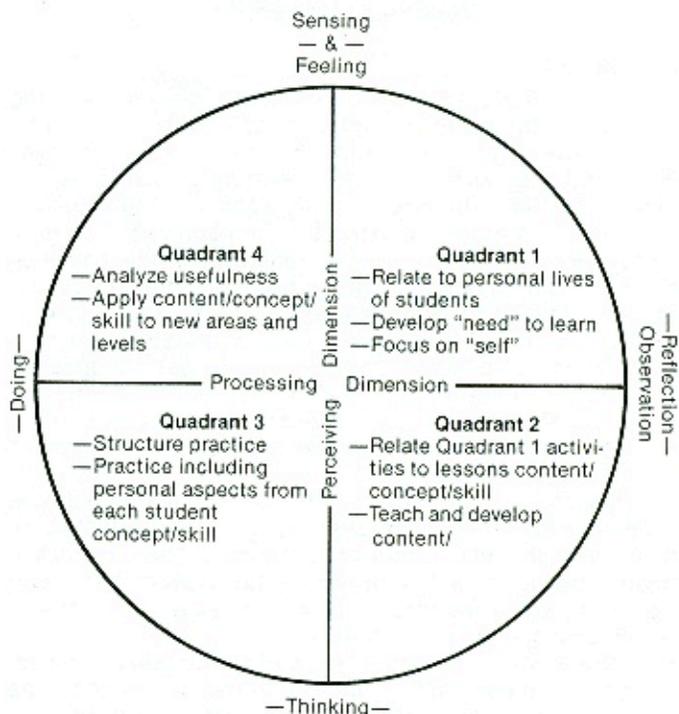
*Adapted from McCarthy (1981 & 1985) and Kolb (1976).

Sailing Ahead

A teacher leading students through the curriculum is somewhat like a sailor sailing a sailboat. The sailor uses control devices on the sailboat such as the angle of the sail, depth and angle of the keel and the direction of the rudder to respond to external variables affecting the sailboat's course. The external variables affecting the sailor's course include the wind velocity and direction, water current and height of the waves. An effective sailor is capable of planning a course and using the tools to react to the external variables.

Teachers also have tools they use to navigate their students through the curriculum and the school year. Teaching models are one of the tools that the professional teacher can use to achieve success. Limiting teachers to the use of one model is similar to limiting the sailor. The sailor cannot navigate the sailboat effectively unless the necessary devices are available. Remove the sail, the keel or the rudder and the sailboat begins floating with the wind. The boat may remain afloat, but direction and purpose are inhibited. Forc-

ing teachers to use one model may keep the classroom afloat, but may not enable teachers to maneuver students through the year and the curriculum. Sailors and teachers are alike in another respect. They often have different purposes for their actions. At times each must set a direct, fast course. At other times each may decide to take an enriching, scenic course. And there are times when there is not a specific course, they are sailing to practice certain skills or procedures. Limiting teachers to a model that connotes speed and efficiency discourages planning for other types of learning.

Teachers' planning and classroom behaviors are affected by the models they are expected to use. Forcing teachers to use one model will restrict their ability to respond to the needs of their students and the conceptually different structures of the curriculum subjects. The practice of restricting teachers to the use of the Hunter model is questionable because the model lacks empirical support. Teachers are professionals. They need more tools and a greater number of options to meet challenges in their classrooms. The TPA and 4Mat models have promise as alternatives for the professional educator.

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A look at the German *Vorbereitungsdienst* program may be instructive for American internship plans for new teachers.

American Teaching Internships and the German *Vorbereitungs-dienst*

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Following their completion of a teacher education program and the awarding of a provisional certificate, new teachers should complete an induction period or internship of at least a year's duration for which compensation is provided. **A Call for Change in Teacher Education** (1985)

The second year of the program would consist of residency in a school, with the candidate assuming substantial teaching responsibilities under the supervision of Lead Teachers. **A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century** (1986)

In response to a national call for improving teacher education, many universities will soon implement one-year teaching internships. A teaching internship may be the most significant reform in improving teacher education. However, only a few universities have experience with year-long teaching internships. Even though numerous educational publications recommend a year-long teaching internship,[1] none of these deal with the practical problems of implementing one. Consequently, American universities implementing a teaching internship might profit from an even broader perspective of experience than just American programs.

The Germans have had a teaching internship program, called a *Vorbereitungsdienst*, since at least 1918.[2] Because of a travel grant from Northeast Missouri State University for summer 1987, I was able to consult with representatives in six German states from every aspect of the german *Vorbereitungsdienst*: teaching interns, university education professors, general internship directors, content area internship directors, a cooperating teacher, school super-

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intendents, a principal, an education union official, and government officials. This report examines the operation and philosophy of the German *Vorbereitungsdienst* as it might benefit American teaching internships.

How Does the German *Vorbereitungsdienst* Operate?[3]

German teacher candidates complete university course work in two teaching subjects and in education equivalent in time and content to at least a Master of Arts degree in America. In a few German states, teacher candidates serve two four-week practicums as part of the university program in public schools, where they observe and possibly teach.

After German teacher candidates have completed their university requirements, they take a comprehensive test called the *Erste Staatsprüfung* (First State Exam), officially administered by their resident state, not the university. The test includes a thesis, written examinations in each subject area, and oral examinations in each subject area and in education. The test is evaluated by a panel consisting of a university professor and two representatives from the public school system.

The *Erste Staatsprüfung* qualifies German teacher candidates to enter the teaching profession as *Referendars* (teaching interns) for one and a half to two years of practical teacher training, depending on the state. Unlike American teaching internship programs, German universities do not participate in the *Vorbereitungsdienst*. Instead, the *Schulverwaltung* (state public school administration) is entirely responsible for the internship experience. The *Schulverwaltung* conducts its teacher training program within *Studienseminars* (teaching internship learning communities), frequently housed in a functioning school. *Studienseminars* place and supervise *Referendars* in the public schools and provide concurrent in-service seminars.

Studienseminars are managed by *Seminarleiters* (learning community directors), who are generally former principals or experienced content-area specialists. The *Seminarleiters* supervise about 50 *Referendars* and 10 content-area directors from about 10 schools. Their duties include consulting with the mentor teachers and content-area directors and observing and evaluating their *Referendars*' teaching. Some *Seminarleiters* also teach a course in didactics at the university. *Seminarleiters* are supposed to provide a global perspective and balance theory and practice for the teaching internship experience.

The other supervisors in the *Studienseminar* are *Fachleiters*, content area specialists, who provide the *Referendars* with training and supervision in their two content areas. *Fachleiters* are practicing teachers with a reduction in their teaching load so that they have time to instruct and guide *Referendars* and keep academically and pedagogically current in their fields. *Fachleiters* are selected by the school districts for their experience and expertise in their academic discipline. *Fachleiters* supervise about 15 *Referendars*. Each *Referendar* has two *Fachleiters*, one for each teaching subject.

Referendars spend about half of their time teaching and the other half, studying. Within at least two public schools during the *Vorbereitungsdienst*, *Referendars* teach classes in both their teaching areas, about a half-load or 12 class hours each week. Most of these hours are under the supervision of *Mentors* (cooperating teachers). However, after the first semester, *Referendars* in most states also have one class of their own in which they can experiment and develop their own teaching style. *Referendars* are paid for their teaching services by the schools as half-time teachers. To augment and direct the *Referendars*' practical teaching experience, *Studienseminars* provide concurrent in-

service seminars. *Seminarleiters* conduct the *Allgemeines Seminar* (general seminar) dealing with general pedagogical issues. The *Fachleiters* teach the *Fachseminars* (subject seminars) focusing on teaching methods and practical problems in the *Referendars'* two content areas.

During the last months of the *Vorbereitungsdienst, Referendars* take another teacher-qualifying test, the *Zweite Staatsprüfung* (Second State Exam). *Referendars* write a thesis analyzing some aspect of their teaching experience, demonstrate two lessons, one in each subject, one lower and one upper level, and take an oral exam in their two subject areas and in education. The *Referendars'* overall teaching evaluation is determined by a panel consisting of two *Fachleiters*, the *Seminarleiter*, a representative from the *Schulverwaltung*, and in some states, the principal of the host school and the mentor teacher.

Comparative Teacher Education Flow Charts:
USA and Germany

Germany	Responsibilities	USA
	academic subject training	
	pedagogical theory	
	practical teacher training	
	continuing teacher education	

Key:
University
Public School

What Aspects of the
German *Vorbereitungsdienst* Might Be
Useful for American Teaching Internships?

American teaching internships might profit from modeling the virtues of the German *Vorbereitungsdienst*. To ensure that teaching internship candidates have mastered their teaching areas and basic pedagogical principles, American universities might require that they pass a version of the German *Erste Staatsprüfung* before admitting them into the teaching internship. Besides departments of education, other divisions or departments might establish their own standards for admission to the teaching internship.

Whereas the *Erste Staatsprüfung* is an entrance examination into the *Vorbereitungsdienst*, the *Zweite Staatsprüfung* determines whether *Referendars* have met the requirements of the *Vorbereitungsdienst* so that they can be entrusted with a regular teaching assignment without supervision. German educators maintain that the *Zweite Staatsprüfung* sets high standards for all *Referendars* and guarantees a broad, objective, and fair evaluation. American universities might consider formalizing their teaching internship evaluation procedures in a similar fashion. A panel consisting of the university supervisor, mentor teacher, principal, and possibly someone at the district level would observe an early lesson, a mid lesson, and a late lesson. From the early lesson, the panel would provide the teaching intern with specific instructions for reinforcing strengths and remedying deficiencies. From the mid lesson, the panel would evaluate the teaching intern's progress and perhaps make further recommendations. The late lesson would constitute part of a final examination. A teaching intern would present a model lesson in two different types of classes to demonstrate pedagogical and subject matter proficiency. After these model lessons, a teaching intern would be examined by the panel on all aspects of teaching including subject matter, teaching methods, and teaching philosophy. Finally, the panel would jointly decide upon the grade and the written evaluation for the teaching intern based on the total teacher experience, a portfolio of lesson plans, and the final examination.

The German public school system takes complete charge of practical teacher education with no university participation. This model is perhaps impractical and undesirable for most American universities. However, the public schools that employ teaching interns must take more responsibility for training and evaluating teaching interns.

> . . . the key to success lies in creating a profession equal to the task—a profession of well-educated teachers prepared to assume new powers and responsibilities to redesign schools for the future. **A Nation Prepared**

In order to encourage and assist the public schools in assuming more responsibility in teaching training, American universities might consider a mentor teacher developmental program. For example, in some German states, some of the university education courses are taught by either *Seminarleiters* or *Fachleiters*, insuring that education students get a practical view of teaching. Likewise, American universities could appoint public school teachers as adjunct professors so that they could teach some of their education courses, perhaps initially as team teachers with its regular university staff. American universities could also involve mentor teachers in educational research projects to explore theoretical issues and solve practical school problems. Such cooperative research could promote better communication between the universities and the public schools. Finally, mentor teachers appointed as adjunct professors should ultimately replace university supervisors. Instead of expensive, external, and sporadic supervision, universities would gain economical, constant, on-site supervision.

> We also believe that the connections between colleges and schools should be significantly improved, because it is in the schools where practicing teachers serve the primary instructing, modeling, planning, and monitoring roles in teacher education. **A Call for Change in Teacher Education** (1985)

Most importantly, American universities could easily and dramatically improve teacher education by establishing regular in-service, on-site training programs for teaching interns modelled after the German *Studienseminar*, called teaching internship learning communities. Master teachers, district representatives, university professors, and others would provide instruction in the content areas, didactics, and community relations in a cooperative effort to better prepare future teachers. Instead of teaching six classes, teaching interns would teach only three so that they would have time to attend the teaching internship learning community and implement what they learn there into their actual lessons. In other words, teaching interns should have both the time and opportunity to integrate pedagogical theory into their teaching practice.

In addition to the advantages of on-site, in-service teacher training, the teaching internship learning community could provide teaching interns with the broadest possible educational perspective by using master teachers, school administrators, educational consultants, university professors, community leaders, and parent representatives as instructional staff. Currrently, most practical teacher education programs in the United States involve only a cooperating teacher and a university supervisor.

Indeed, we suggest assigning prospective teachers to a "teacher team," even as a prospective doctor, during residency, is assigned to a medical team. In this

way the student would have occasion to work closely with more experienced teachers skilled in different methods of instruction.

An additional activity for the fifth year of teacher education would be a series of one-day Common Learning Seminars in which students would meet outstanding arts and science scholar-teachers who would relate the knowledge of their fields to a contemporary political or social theme. The goal would be to help prospective teachers move across the disciplines, and better prepare themselves to teach the core of common learning to students in the schools. Ernest L. Boyer, **High School**, (1983)

The feasibility and desirability of teaching internship learning communities in America have already been established by the university supervisors in the Language and Literature Division at Northeast Missouri State University. With a grant from Union Electric, teaching internship learning communities have been organized in Hannibal, Unionville, Macon, Chillicothe, and Kirksville, Missouri. The results are impressive. Together with the university supervisors, the public schools in these cities have organized in-service seminars providing practical solutions to teaching problems. The students, cooperating teachers, and school administrators have valued these in-service seminars much more than the traditional sporadic classroom observations from university supervisors.

Besides serving teaching interns, schools and school districts might discover that a teaching internship learning community could also serve regular teachers. Some states presently require in-service training for beginning teachers. Ultimately, a teaching internship learning community should evolve into a teaching seminar for all teachers. Teacher training should be on-going and continuous. A teaching internship learning community would serve this end and thereby dramatically improve teacher education in America.

Teaching Internship Learning Community:
Comparative Operational Structure

Conventional Student-
Teaching Program

one cooperating
teacher

student
teacher

one
university
supervisor

*A student teacher receives input from only a cooperating teacher and an university supervisor.

Proposed Teaching Internship
Learning Community

| school district administrators | parent representatives |
| professional educational consultants |

10–15 student

teachers in an
in-service, on-
site seminar

| state educational officials | university consultants |

master
teachers from
school & district

*Teaching interns receive formal guidance and instruction from representatives and experts in every area of public education on a weekly basis.

Notes

1. Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy, **A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century** (New York: Carnegie Corporation, 1986), 69–78.

National Commission for Excellence in Teacher Education, **A Call for Change in Teacher Education**. (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1985), 16.

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2. For a history of the German teaching internship, see Hartmut W. Frech, **Studies und Berichte: Empirische Untersuchungen zur Ausbildung von Studienreferendaren**, vol. 34a (Stuttgart: Ernst Klett, 1976), 26–33.

3. This is a general summary of the German teacher education system, especially indicative of the **Gymnasium**. It does not reflect the variations from state to state nor among the different school systems.

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Although teachers may not usually be held financially liable for instances of corporal punishment they put their positions in danger.

Methods and Materials of Corporal Punishment

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As a pre-test for this minicourse, try to identify which of these methods and materials are reported in court cases in the 1800s and which are reported in modern court decisions:

1. Because a student incorrectly spelled a word and refused to try again, a teacher hit him in the head with his fist, kicked him in the face, and wore out two whips on him.
2. A teacher slapped some elementary school students in the face and isolated others in an unsupervised closet until they were discovered by another teacher.
3. A teacher severely flailed two students, resulting in black-and-blue marks on their backs and arms.
4. Ordering students to run, not walk, back from lunch and warning that the last student back to the room would get a whipping, the teacher grabbed the last student by the shoulder and violently kicked him in the back.

Items 1 and 3 are attributable to court cases in the 1800s, whereas items 2 and 4 are from cases decided during this past decade. For those of you who thought that students' rights cases only emerged in the 1960s, the court decisions from the nineteenth century may be surprising. More importantly, adages like "reading, writing, and 'rithmetic taught to the tune of a hickory stick" and "spare the rod, spoil the child," are apparently not limited in their in-school application to earlier times.

Whereas a few states, like New Jersey and California, have banned corporal punishment in the public schools, a review of modern court decisions reveals the persistence of age-old techniques and instruments as well as the introduction of some innovative methods and materials of this direct form of discipline in many areas of the country. While the wooden paddle is the timeworn implement *de rigueur*, belts, rulers, and rattan sticks also continue to be common.

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Reflecting modern educational ingenuity, other cases revealed such punishment to have been meted out with a tennis shoe and a coffee cup.

For those of you who think that paddling is a trite torture, a teacher has designed this innovative technique: in order to discipline two sixth-grade students, he required each one to paddle the other ten times on the buttocks in front of the entire class. Educators in other districts successfully offered paddling as an option, having it serve as an alternative for detention or suspension at the choice of the student.

For those of you that yearn for more modern instruments, teachers have not ignored advances in technology. A sixth-grade teacher had disciplinary problems with several male miscreants who threw objects, interrupted classmates, wouldn't remain in their seats, and recited a filthy poem. The teacher's creativity came to the fore. He purchased a cattle prod, which is a heavy-duty-battery-operated instrument used to herd livestock via electric shocks. The teacher used this instrument on the misbehaving boys on several occasions in front of the class. He branded those students who requested not to be shocked in a different way, by listing their names on a "Coward's List" on the blackboard. Another teacher, who had 48 years' experience, sprayed a disobedient female student with a "sneeze gun," a miniaturized device that, when activated, discharges a substance that causes temporary eye irritation to the person affected.

But the modern mind does not rely on advanced technology. One teacher pierced a female student's upper arm with a straight pin; perhaps this disciplinary technique was inspired by acupuncture. Another teacher struck several male students in the genitals—for not behaving properly.

Several corporal punishment cases are scenes of action rivaling professional wrestling or roller derby. Not to be outdone by Hulk Hogan one enterprising teacher used for disciplinary purposes a straight arm bar, followed by a half nelson, and then a full nelson. In another case, a 230-pound teacher told a sixth grader to stop talking during study hall. Someone remarked, "the elephant is angry." Thinking the source was the reprimanded student, the teacher grabbed him by the shoulders, shook him, and pushed him into a blackboard, causing the student to hit his head and fall to the floor. As if that weren't enough, the teacher then lifted the student by his hair and arm and proceeded to push him into a bookcase, again causing the student to hit his head and fall down. The teacher then told the class: "Look at him. He is crying like a baby." Similarly, despite repeated reprimands, a physical education teacher engaged in a string of no fewer than 20 incidents of corporally punishing children in grades 2–5, including pushing them into walls, pulling their hair and ears, lifting and carrying them by the neck, and hitting them with soccer balls all to the accompaniment of a panoply of profanity.

Of course, these court cases represent the kind of extreme conduct that has caused legal action, such as suits by parents and terminations by school boards. Nevertheless, the end is not in sight. The teachers lost in only about 40 percent of a comprehensive sample of "modern" court decisions.*

There is an important difference, however, within the overall pattern of outcomes. Although the parents' constitutional challenges, criminal complaints, and tort suits were mostly rejected, the boards' termination actions were largely upheld. Thus, the best legal avenues for limiting or prohibiting corporal punishment are legislation on the state level and enforcement at the school district level. * For the relevant citations, see Scott and Zirkel's article in West's *Education Law Reporter*, 1987, v. 36, pp. 267–71.

Undergraduate course work in school law is vital for both teachers and principals.

Educators' Negligence: What, Why, and Who's Responsible?

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J.K Footlick (Footlick, 1977) noted that, "Ordinary citizens, awakened to (their) 'rights' only recently defined, have found more occasion to tell their troubles to a judge. The mounting influence constitutes one of the great unnoticed revolutions in U.S. history: the ever-increasing willingness, even eagerness, on the part of elected officials and private citizens to let the courts settle matters that were once settled by legislatures, executives, parents, teachers—or chance." Today few educators have failed to notice the increasing role that the courts are playing in all aspects of public education.

Many social critics have noted with alarm the public's tendency to use the courts excessively with one result being that judges currently control many public institutions including school systems. Through litigation, and the failure of other forms of negotiation, the courts have been given power they did not seek, without without any guarantee that they could exercise it with wisdom or effectiveness. The continuing thrust of education case law has had an effect on the organizing, financing and conducting of public education. Many educators have discovered too late that there are legal as well as educational consequences in the smallest and seemingly most innocuous decisions. Americans no longer ignore minor infractions, inconveniences and innovations to their lives imposed by fellow citizens (Levin, 1985).

Education is affected by a variety of laws. One of these is the law of torts. A tort is a legal wrong against the person, property or reputation of another. "Tort" is a Norman word for injury or wrong. It is derived from the Latin word "tortus" meaning twisted. Underlying the concept of torts is the reasonable and prudent relationship between individuals. Although there is no one satisfactory definition of tort, it is generally thought of as an actionable wrong, exclusive of a breach of contract, which the law will recognize and set right. The three categories of torts are: the direct invasion of some legal right of the individual, e.g., invasion of privacy; the infraction of some public duty by which special damage accrues to the individual, e.g., denial of constitutional rights; the violation of some private obligation by which damage accrues to the individual, e.g., negligence. The most frequent tort action in the educational setting is negligence.

Negligence is the "failure to exercise the degree of care for the safety and well-being of others that a reasonable and prudent person would have exercised under similar circumstances" (Peterson, Rossmiller and Voltz, 1978). Four elements must exist if a valid claim of negligence is to be sustained: a duty to protect; a failure to exercise a standard of care; conduct which is certainly a proximate cause of the damage, and an actual resultant loss.

An examination of the literature and selected litigation related to the area of tort liability for negligence, i.e., duty and standard of care, proper instruction, supervision and maintenance, field trips and post-injury treatment, resulted in the following observations:

1. Educators can be found financially responsible for their professional actions if an injured student or adult proves to the court's satisfaction that some inappropriate action led to the student's or adult's injury.
2. The courts have recognized the difficulty of constantly supervising every student, and have not held educators to be the absolute ensurers of each student's safety.
3. The courts have been cognizant of the burdens placed on educators when ruling on their liability; however, these burdens have not relieved educators of the responsibility for their actions.
4. Educators have been found accountable for their failure to take into consideration the students' special needs or limitations, abilities or pre-existing medical conditions when making instructional decisions.
5. Educators have been found liable for their selection, maintenance and supervision of the use of instructional equipment when the educator's action in this regard was shown to be based on poor judgment not expected of a professional educator.
6. Educators have been upheld by the courts for their attempts to provide post-injury first aid to injured students. However, the courts have not afforded protection for educators who attempted to deliver medical therapy or treatment which exceeded or fell short of rudimentary first aid procedures.
7. The courts have not required educators to be able to diagnose serious injuries of the student when the outward appearance of the student was such that a layperson could not have anticipated serious disorders.
8. Educators on field trips have been found accountable for the same duty and standard of care expected of them within the confines of the schools and grounds.
9. Educators have not been found accountable for their instruction or supervision when the student was shown to have had adequate knowledge to complete the task assigned, or when the student exceeded the instruction or supervision knowingly assumed the risk inherent in the activity.
10. Educators have been held liable for accidents which occurred during an educator's absence from

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the classroom or activity when it could reasonably be anticipated that the educator's presence in the room or area would have prevented the accident.
11. There is a lack of research to determine the current knowledge of tort law possessed by practicing teachers and administrators.

From these observations it is clear that schools must change and adapt to new circumstances and new demands. The amount of education litigation and the outcome of court decisions indicate that many educators do not have an adequate grasp of law, and have a tendency to practice "preventive" law after the fact, i.e., management by crisis. The cost of litigation to school districts, when viewed on a national basis, is staggering now and continues to grow. The stemming of the tide of education litigation in the future will be determined by the knowledge, preparation and skills of school personnel.

As a matter of their preliminary research, the authors wondered about the degree of teacher and principal knowledge about how tort laws affecting education are applied to the daily operations and situations inherent in teaching and administration. They wondered how much teachers and administrators know about tort liability, and whether teachers and administrators had equal knowledge bases. Additionally they wondered how well each group would do when confronted with reality-based scenarios in the area of negligence.

To find answers to these questions, they designed a study to assess the knowledge possessed by selected public school teachers and principals concerning tort liability law in the specific area of negligence. A random sample of teachers and all of the principals of a large midwestern school district were selected as the respondents to the research instrument. The research instrument requested information about personal demographic data as well as responses to questions designed to assess the respondents' knowledge about tort liability law. The research instrument contained a series of 18 scenarios pertaining to tort liability law for negligence, specifically in the areas of: duty and standard of care, proper instruction, supervision and maintenance, field trips and post-injury treatment. Each scenario was an overview of an actual case which has been adjudicated. Each respondent was asked to determine if the facts presented warranted a court ruling for the plaintiff (student or parent) or for the defendant (school employee or school district).

The demographic data reported was used to formulate groups of independent variables. The mean scores on the questions concerning tort liability were used to formulate groups of dependent variables. A statistical analysis of the relationship between the independent and dependent variables was performed.

There were no significant differences in the knowledge of tort liability for negligence between groups based on gender, age, teaching or administrative experience, degrees held or graduate hours earned. However, there was a significant difference between the group that had completed course work in educational law and the group that had not. These differences were in the areas of duty and standard of care, proper supervision and proper maintenance.

The results of this study indicate that neither teachers nor principals have an adequate working knowledge of tort law. This lack of knowledge appears to be caused primarily by the lack of pre-service and in-service programs in the area of education law, not by other variables. Teachers who have had course work in education law correctly analyzed 83 percent of the scenarios, while teachers who had no course

work in education law barely exceeded 50 percent. Principals who had completed course work in education law correctly analyzed 75 percent of the scenarios, while those who had no such course work barely exceeded 50 percent.

The overall scores for all respondents place their knowledge of tort liability for negligence at 68 percent. Does this suggest that 32 percent of the time, in the selected categories of tort law examined for this study, that teachers and principals make decisions that could lead to litigation? This may not be a reasonable person inference, but in examining education litigation, the answer to this question remains one of probability beyond the scope of this study, but perhaps not beyond the realm of possibility.

In the selected category of duty and standard of care, the overall mean score for respondents was in the 56th percentile, which may demonstrate that teachers and principals do not have an adequate working grasp of their responsibilities toward children and others who frequent the school building and grounds. These responsibilities, separate from curricular aspects, encompass the entire realm of personnel physical welfare. Does this low mean score for all respondents in this category indicate that teachers and principals are unclear in their duty to exercise good judgment; their duty to instruct correct procedures, and their duty to supervise? From the results of the research instrument, the inference might well be in the affirmative, especially in light of a significant lack of understanding by teachers (mean score 1.8 of 3.0) of their overall role in the area of proper supervision.

Principals have a greater working knowledge of proper maintenance than teachers. This should be expected due to the overall responsibilities of principals and the expanded nature of their preparatory course work. However, the failure of a teacher to take appropriate steps to assist the principal in ensuring proper maintenance makes the teacher a viable candidate for litigation.

Educators are not as knowledgeable in education law as they should be—not only for the protection of the students, others and themselves, but also in light of society's current attitude toward litigation. Complacency following the education law course work may be just as dangerous as having no formal course work. Litigation for damages caused within the confines of the school or school district will continue. Educators must accept this fact and fully understand their role under the law.

The effect of courts on the teaching/learning/administrative processes of public education is an important area of concern. The avoidance of tort claims is a difficult organizational and management area. This is true, at least in part, because of the extreme "flatness" and "loose coupling" of school districts as organizations and of individual schools as organizational units. In a practical sense, everything important in schools happens at the base level of the organization and is in the hands of classroom teachers—people who exercise an extremely large amount of discretion in an absence of continuous on-line supervision. School principals fall only slightly above the base level of the organization, and work within, or quite often around, policies and procedures, which, with the exception of financial matters, are usually written in the broadest terms.

Educators need to know that no part of the public school is immune from tort action and the resultant court interaction. They should be able to form sound judgments on specific legal problems where the profession is involved, and should be able to recognize the circumstances surrounding potential litigation in order to avoid unnecessary action at law. In the examination of legal cases for this study, the authors found hundreds of cases that might have

been avoided if school personnel had known and practiced their legal responsibilities. The authors are not implying that educators should become experts in school law; however, they should be able to form sound judgments on specific legal problems. Educators cannot be expected to guarantee that children, young adults or adults in their scope of supervision will not be injured. However, there is a critical need for educators to establish professional guidelines concerning appropriate professional behavior in the areas of the instruction, supervision and protection of students. The profession must develop and provide standards against which educators accused of inappropriate actions can be reasonably judged. It is imperative the educators display such knowledge of the law that it is evident that normal foresight has been exercised and that planning, precaution and execution of one's task has been performed as a reasonable and prudent educator would have performed under similar conditions.

As a result of their research, the authors believe the following recommendations will, if implemented, better prepare teachers and principals to face the challenge of avoiding litigation and to practice their chosen profession without the constant fear inherent in today's litigious society:

1. The policies and procedures of school districts should be cross-referenced with the principles of education law and be continually updated.
2. Colleges and universities with teacher training programs should develop undergraduate professional preparation curricula that address the responsibilities of teachers for pupil injuries. An education law course should be required for all undergraduates.
3. The state agency responsible for the certification of teachers should require all teachers to demonstrate competence in the area of liability for student injuries.
4. Colleges and universities that provide graduate curricula for teachers and/or school administrators should require a minimum of three credit hours in education law if three credit hours were required at the undergraduate level. If education law was not required at the undergraduate level, a minimum of six credit hours is recommended. Competency in education law at the graduate level should be a requirement for an advanced degree or administrator certification.

Knowledge of the laws concerning tort liability and a heightened awareness of historical and ongoing litigation gives educators the foundation necessary to provide and manage a reasonably safe and secure school environment. The threat of litigation, combined with increasing insurance costs, has forced many public schools to review, and, in some cases, to eliminate programs. The doctrine of governmental immunity, protecting public schools from legal liability, has been judicially or legislatively abrogated in most states. Today the public school is given the same status and held to the same duty by the courts as an individual or corporation being sued by an injured party, and the monetary judgments that have reached millions of dollars emphasize the necessity for the educator to perform as the law requires. Thus school districts, and ultimately teachers and principals, are faced with the challenge of developing strategies that minimize their legal liability.

Educators have certain resources available in meeting society's continuous challenges to the educational enterprise; descriptions of effective schools, information about transformations in culture and society affecting education, and at least an outline of the possible contributions of social and behavioral scientists. Lacking among these resources is an understanding by educators and educational researchers of the necessity to prepare for societal intervention and judicial changes in the area of school law.

The authors' study confirmed that students, parents and others have an increasing tendency to bring the educational enterprise into litigation. Litigiousness is not simply a legal phenomenon, but rather a reflection of social change. Pre-service and in-service training should be intensified for the educational practitioner. It is imperative that educators understand the tenets of education law to protect not only themselves but also the welfare of those served by the profession.

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Please contact the authors if you wish a detailed presentation of the data or case citations.

The "quip pro quo" game with students and offspring offers the opportunity to learn and teach practical legal concepts.

It's a Free Country

by Dr. Perry A. Zirkel
Lehigh University

Big lessons in law, applicable to our role as parents and as administrators or board members, sometimes arrive in small or strange packages. These packages may take the form of "comebacks" in the continuing game of one-upmanship in families and in schools. What is your parry, for example, when your "wise guy" son/daughter or student hits you with one of the one liners listed below?

It's a Free Country

The full remark, replete with a smirk, is something like "It's a free country; I can say whatever I like." When my son first reached this stage of uppitiness, I put him back down softly but surely with the explanation that the First Amendment and the other individual rights under the Constitution to which he was apparently referring apply only against the government. Our home is not covered by the Constitution, and the head of our family government is not my son (although perhaps it is my wife). Case closed.

When my students at Lehigh University make a similar comment, albeit with more polysyllables and politeness, I more profusely and obtusely explain that the Bill of Rights apply directly to the federal government and, by the doctrine of selective incorporation, to the state government, but not at all to private universities except for the rare exception that exhibits "state action." The underlying message is the same; the invocation of "free speech" is unavailing.

When students at a public school invoke the First Amendment, even they are not free from my speech. No constitutional right is absolute; it must be balanced against the fundamental rights of others. As the Supreme Court decided in **Tinker** (1969), students' freedom of expression may be cut off where it causes substantial disruption. As the Supreme Court more recently decided in **Fraser** (1986), student speech is also subject to the values inculcation function of school authorities acting *in loco parentis*. Even in the area left undisturbed by **Tinker** and **Fraser**, the courts have consistently held that school authorities may issue and enforce reasonable regulations concerning the time, place, and manner of student expression.

Don't Touch Me

The setting is more likely the public school, and the full text is more like "Don't touch me; I'll sue you for all you're worth." Aside from the limited financial worth of most adults associated with education and their official immunity in several states, the comeback here is to explain that the courts have generally rejected constitutional challenges to corporal punishment in the public schools and that the common law consistently allows school officials, like parents, to use reasonable force for disciplinary purposes. Even the clear minority of states that by legislation or regulation prohibit corporal punishment allow certain exceptions, such as using of reasonable force to quell a disturbance or to exercise self-defense.

It Was an Accident

This statement is more frequently heard at home. The full text is something like, with the hands facing up and the head facing down, "It was an accident; I didn't mean to do it." Picture this scenario, for example. Your daughter or son is eating an ear of corn with hands dripping in butter or margarine when "Miami Vice" comes on television in the background. Hearing the drum beat of the theme, your child grabs a tall glass of milk and heads off to the den. A moment later you hear, "Oops" and the sound of a splash. You go into the den to find the contents of the glass soaking into the new couch and carpet. Now comes the all-purpose excuse, "It was an accident." This is the place to enter the explanation that in addition to the intentional torts, the law recognizes something called "negligence" which requires compensation for reasonably avoidable accidents. Follow with the reminder that if s/he had heeded your oft-repeated admonitions about washing hands or about eating more carefully or about not taking food into the den, the accident could have been reasonably avoided. End quickly with the disciplinary consequences, before s/he realizes and points out the difference between compensation and punishment.

I'll Sue You for Libel

If you regrettably reach the level of having heated words with your students or offspring, they may resort to the retort "You can't call me that; I'll sue you for libel." Within the home context, where such name calling and suit threatening are hopefully rare, you could explain the difference between "libel" (written) and "slander" (spoken) and that, in any event, courts are unlikely to interfere with such intra-family matters. In the school context, you could add that courts generally accord a qualified immunity to school officials in slander and libel cases that arise within the scope of their employment. The plaintiff must show not only harm to reputation and dissemination to at least one third party, elements which are not necessarily present in the incident at issue, but also that the school official made the offending statement with "malice." Good faith errors are protected, as are truth and opinion.

Conclusion

The "quip pro quo" game with students and offspring offers school officials the opportunity to learn and teach lessons in the law. Putting down is sometimes better than putting up, at least in relation to inaccurate invocations of legal legerdemain. But use judicious restraint; "overdue," not "overdo," is the guiding watchword. Alternatively, show your students or children this article, and tell them to thank their lucky stars that you are not a parent– or teacher–lawyer like me.

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For adequate computer software teachers and publishers must consult and work together.

Educational Software: Why are Teachers Dissatisfied

by Dr. Susan K. Roth and Dr. Bruce A. Petty
Oklahoma State University

Over the past few years every educator, parent, and student has been bombarded with the statement, "Computers can be a very powerful tool in the learning environment." Without question, computers do have capabilities to perform many diversified functions. They can assist students in writing, calculating, remediation, acquiring new skills, and simulating hazardous or impractical exercises. The list of possibilities for the computer in the educational process seems endless and this enthusiasm has carried over into the schools. Since 1982 the numbers of microcomputers in schools have grown at an astounding rate with 96 percent having at least one microcomputer (Ingersoll, Smith, & Elliot, 1983).

Although the microcomputer has gained popularity in classrooms, surveys reveal that instead of employing the microcomputer as a tool, microcomputers are used primarily to teach programming (Becker, 1983). Additional research has revealed that regular classroom teachers have developed serious concerns regarding the development of educational software currently available. Computer manufacturers, software developers, and educational publishers have entered aggressively into the development and marketing of equipment and software to support various educational applications of microcomputers (Otte, 1984). Since software publishing is in its infancy, many of those who engage in the publication of instructional materials lack requisite skills both in instruction and in the management of appropriate evaluation activities designed to have informational value for the user and to provide a basis for revision and modification of the software (Steffin, 1983). Further, software programs are frequently authored either

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by programmers who have little background in education or by educators who have little background in programming (Gold, 1984). These deficiencies have resulted in much software that is inappropriate or technically unsound (Gold, 1984).

Many of the current software packages have left teachers dissatisfied and frustrated. A 1981 survey of computer use revealed that educational software was viewed as little more than electronic flashcards and workbooks (Gold, 1984). There was a general sense among educators that software was dull, unimaginative, and of questionable pedagogical soundness (Ingersoll et al. 1983). Similarly, a 1983 survey of teachers using computers revealed that the majority were disappointed with the amount and quality of software available (National Education Association, 1983).

The literature contains repeated references to the need for good quality software and criteria for developing that software. However, few references have been made regarding what software publishers are doing to meet these educational needs. The following study was conducted to bring to light the educational criteria used by manufacturers in the development and publication of educational software and compare it to an evaluation system used by educators. In this study, the educational criteria for software evaluation were those used by members of the California Software Evaluation Consortium, which is constituted of approximately 30 member groups who routinely evaluate software.

The 132 subjects in the study were educational software manufacturers, developers, and publishers identified by the 1986 Educational Software Preview Guide (California Department of Education). Subjects were initially contacted by letter requesting the procedures and criteria used by the subjects to select educational software for publication. The data received from subjects were classified and percentages calculated based upon their compliance with the following 22 criteria (Bitter, 1986):

1. **Correctness of Content Presentation**: Is the program free from content, informational, computational, grammatical, and syntactical errors?
2. **Content Presentation**: Is the pedagogical content presented in a clear, concise, logical, and manageable fashion and in sufficient depth of instruction and/or practice so that learning will take place?
3. **Use of Technology**: Does the program make appropriate use of computer technology such that the program takes full advantage of the computer's capabilities and provides students with a learning experience that cannot be presented better in another media?
4. **Integration into Classroom Use**: Can the program be effectively and easily integrated into classroom use? Does the software lend itself to use within a classroom time frame? Are effective and appropriate teacher support materials available? Can the program be easily used by a teacher?
5. **Ease of Use**: Is the program "user friendly?"
6. **Curriculum Congruence**: Does the content directly support the curriculum?
7. **Interaction**: Is interaction effectively achieved for the target audience? Is there sufficient amount and a sufficiently high quality of interaction to promote learning?
8. **Content Sequence/Levels**: Are there multiple levels of difficulty with appropriate incremental steps between the levels so that the development sequence and the difficulty of the levels is appropriate to the target audience?

9. **Reliability:** Is the program free from programming and technical errors?
10. **User Control of Program:** Can the user (student or teacher where appropriate) control the rate, amount, and sequence of the presentation?
11. **Feedback (General):** Does the program correctly assess student input and provide appropriate and effective feedback messages?
12. **Objectives:** Are objectives clearly stated and are they met?
13. **Motivation:** Is the program motivational?
14. **Branching:** Are there branches to provide facility for individualized instruction according to the student's needs?
15. **Negative Feedback/Help:** Are corrective feedback messages or help screens provided as needed?
16. **Content Modification:** Can the content be modified by the teacher?
17. **Content Bias:** Is the content free from bias (race, gender, cultural, ethnic, stereotyping, and violence)?
18. **Teacher Documentation:** Is the documentation comprehensive, easy to understand, and well organized?
19. **User Support Materials:** Are user support materials present? Where present, are they appropriate and effective?
20. **Color, Sound, Graphics, Animation:** If these features are present, are they used effectively to enhance the program?
21. **Screen Displays:** Are screen displays effectively and appropriately formatted?
22. **Management System:** Is there a management system which provides an effective means for record keeping and/or assignment control?

Of the original 132 subjects, 91 (69 percent) of the publishers responded. Forty-one (31 percent) did not respond, either by choice or by virtue of having reportedly gone out of business between the publication of **The 1986 Educational Software Preview Guide** and the execution of this study. Of the 91 respondents, 59 responded by letter. Thirty-two responded by telephone contact. The participants in this study represented 20 different states in the United States, and Canada. The scope of responses differed greatly. Of the responses, eight (or 8.8 percent) respondents sent detailed, typeset information explicitly outlining 15 or more guidelines and the procedural and developmental process they employ when developing and selecting educational software for publication. Twelve (13.1 percent) respondents briefly outlined 4–14 or more guidelines in a letter format. Eleven (12.1 percent) respondents listed three or fewer criteria. Sixty (67 percent) respondents stated they had no formal guidelines.

Table 1
Educational Microcomputer Software Producers'
Responses to Inquiries Regarding Criteria Guidelines
Used to Select Educational Software for Publication

	No.	Percentage of Population
Software producers responding with pre-prepared, detailed information which included fifteen or more guidelines	8	8.8
Software producers responding reporting four-fourteen guidelines	12	13.1
Software producers responding reporting three or fewer guidelines	11	12.1
Software producers responding reporting that they had no formal guidelines	60	67.0

Forty (44 percent) respondents stated that although they had no formal policy or educational criteria employed in software selection, they do request that software be submitted so that it may be evaluated individually. As one publisher stated, "If we like the software and it fits into our line, we'll publish it."

Publisher responses were categorized by the researchers by criteria. Some responses applied to more than one criteria and were placed in both categories. The following percentages were found:

Correctness of Content Presentation	9.9%
Content Presentation	9.9%
Use of Technology	10.9%
Integration into Classroom Use	8.8%
Ease of Use	6.6%
Curriculum Congruence	10.9%
Interaction	5.5%
Content Sequence/Levels	5.5%
Reliability	5.5%
User Control of Program	2.2%
Feedback (General)	3.3%
Objectives	6.6%
Motivation	7.7%
Branching	3.3%
Negative Feedback/Help	3.3%
Content Modification	1.1%
Content Bias	0.0%
Teacher Documentation	4.4%
User Support Materials	3.3%
Color, Sound, Graphics, Animation	5.5%
Screen Displays	2.2%
Management System	2.2%

Overall, the great majority of educational software publishers DO NOT HAVE a formal or standard set of criteria to guide in software development or to employ in the selection of educational software for publication submitted from external sources. However, the small number of publishers employing formal or informal criteria and policies regarding the development and selection of educational software for publication do not employ the same criteria that *educators* deem important in the development of educational software.

Similarly, many manufacturers request that potential programs be submitted to them for evaluation on an individual basis. This evaluation is conducted by some publishers on the basis of that manufacturer's individual agenda.

Is it any wonder, then, that educators often feel frustrated and confused when examining or utilizing computer software in the curriculum? Clearly, it seems to be in the best interest of producers and consumers alike for educators to insist:

That publishers consult with educators and develop a standard set of criteria and procedures used to develop and select software for publication.

That review boards consisting of educators and programmers evaluate software before field testing.

That field tests with students and teachers should be conducted before products are marketed. The results

of field testing should be included with the package information.

That educators should be involved in identifying areas of future software development.

That recommendations for integration of the software into curricular areas should be included, along with lesson plans for each product.

Publishers and educators must work together, each contributing their expertise, to advance and improve the quality of educational software. Not to do so will most surely result in reduced sales for producers, a marked tentativeness on the part of educators to utilize this remarkable technology and, sadly, a disservice to our children who deserve all of our best efforts.

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Foreign language requirement for doctorate in business administration being phased out after long controversy.

The Foreign Language Requirement for Doctoral Programs in Business Administration

by Dr. Richard J. Schmidt
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Abstract

A foreign language has been a requirement for a doctorate since the degree was first granted in the United States in 1861. Since the 1940s and 1950s, the need for the language requirement has been challenged because of the ready availability of translated research materials. With the business administration disciplines, the foreign language for the doctorate has traditionally been required. A survey of the business administration doctoral programs (67 percent response rate) indicated that only six responding schools required a foreign language for graduation. Of these six schools, only two schools would not permit a mathematical or computer language substitution. The foreign language requirement for a doctorate in business administration has been effectively removed for the degree.

The Terminal Degree

The doctorate is the historical terminal degree associated with higher education in the United States. A foreign language has been associated with the degree since it was first granted at Yale in 1867. In 1872, Cornell added the knowledge of Greek to the Latin requirement for the doctorate. Educational historians have traced the perceived need for foreign languages for college instruction to the fact that American scholars went to Europe in the late 19th century for their advanced studies where a knowledge of French and German was essential. This language requirement became closely identified with the educated person including the teacher who identified himself by the title doctor. The

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primary question at that time appears to be whether the language requirement should be Latin or a modern language such as French or German. Possibly it should be two of these languages. The foreign language requirement for a research-oriented degree like the doctorate remained relatively unchallenged until the 1930s. World War II interrupted the calm. Suddenly the center of new scientific knowledge was the English-speaking world, particularly the United States. After the war, debate began about the relevance of arbitary educational requirements imposed on a generation of Americans whose lives were interrupted by wartime activities.

In the late 1940s and early 1950s, most research materials were written in English. Why continue to require a foreign language for advanced education when it really wasn't necessary? Educational reforms, however, found that a longtime attribute such as foreign language is not easily eliminated from a tradition steeped doctoral program. The language requirement was deeply rooted in tradition.

Fundamental questioning of foreign language requirement was strongest in the social sciences. If the languages were no longer functional, the argument went, they become artificial and punitive. Justification had to be more than merely the mark of a cultured person. Prior (1965) stated the situation as "The present earnest efforts to preserve the language requirement for the Ph.D. may be seen, therefore, as a relic of the idealism which characterized the work of those who were associated with the Ph.D. at its beginning and which is reflected in the present efforts to make the degree a symbol of the man of learning at its best."[1] In the 1970s, few doctoral students have been found to study foreign languages but they are formally or informally studying methodology and computer applications.[2]

Berelson (1960) gave two basic justifications for including a foreign language in a doctoral program.

1. Cultural justification—it is still the mark of an educated person.
2. Professional justification—the foreign language is still needed as a tool for research in the social and natural science disciplines.[3]

Critics responded that the availability of translations makes the language requirement anachronistic to the point that few students use the language in their dissertation or course work and the requirement should be dropped. If the language requirement is as important as the proponents say it is, say the critics, then language proficiency should be a fixed requirement for admissions because it is unfair to ask the student to pay tuition fees to a graduate school while he is gaining an elementary knowledge of a foreign language.[4]

Berelson surveyed a population of graduate deans, graduate faculty and recent recipients of doctoratal degrees. Three-quarters of each group agreed with the statement, "The foreign language requirement at the doctoral level has come to be a form without much substance in a sizable proportion of cases." The social sciences and professional fields have resolved the question by the easy remedy of generally dropping the language requirement. The natural sciences and humanities have taken a more difficult approach by requiring a higher level of language proficiency than previously required.[5]

Heiss (1970) asked a similar question to recently completed Ph.D. recipients. He found 58 percent reported that the language requirement did not contribute to their intellectual development. Only 6 percent said that it had contributed a great deal and 30 percent said it had contributed somewhat. Ninety percent said they were required to demonstrate an ability to understand one or more foreign lan-

guages, 58 percent reported they never used the language for course work, 38 percent never used it for research, and 45 percent never had to use it in outside reading assignments. Twenty-three percent seldom used the foreign language for any of these activities.[6]

Foreign Language in Business Administration

With this background in the historical development, use and misuse of the foreign language requirement for completion of the doctoral degree, the candidate for a doctorate in business administration is found in a strange predicament. Business administration is often found in a separate portion of the graduate programs in doctoral-granting institutions. They aren't strictly a social science because business administration, at least at the master's level, prides itself as a professional program. However, the doctorate is a very prestigious program at universities and is usually drawn tightly under the protective umbrella of the graduate school dean. Business administration then finds itself alongside the natural sciences, traditional social science programs, and the humanities. Because the foreign language requirement has been traditionally applied to the traditional doctoral programs, business administration doctoral candidates also are expected to satisfy the requirement if they want to receive the coveted Ph.D.

Survey Results

To determine the current status of the foreign language requirement for the doctorate in business administration, a mail survey was sent to the 79 U.S. colleges and universities who grant the Ph.D. in business administration and the 19 schools who award the D.B.A. as the terminal degree. The response rate was a respectful 67 percent of both the Ph.D. and D.B.A. schools. While the survey covered many aspects of the doctoral programs, the foreign language portion of the questionnaire contained some interesting facts. Of the 53 responding Ph.D. schools, only five programs still require a foreign language for completion of the degree. Of these five, only one requires competency in more than one language.

When critics have voiced their concern over the value of the doctoral language requirement, often the point has been made that mathematics is a language and why can't an applied mathematical language such as statistics, a specific computational tool or a computer language be substituted for the foreign language? When this question was asked to the five program respondents, the answer was that four of the programs would permit a substitution. Two allowed a computer language to be substituted, two permitted an advanced statistical tool and one would allow either. Only one program insisted on the candidate completing the foreign language. Within the D.B.A.-granting schools, only one respondent required a foreign language but that particular program permitted no substitution for the language.

When it was asked who gave the language exam, four of the programs, including the one D.B.A. respondent with a language requirement, stated that the foreign language department on campus would be the evaluator of the candidate's foreign language ability. One respondent said that either the business administration or the foreign language department could test the candidate in the language area. One college said that both campus departments would test the candidate in the foreign language field.

What is the impact of the foreign language in the doctoral programs? The responding schools granting Ph.D.s in business administration reported 673 doctoral graduates in 1985 and the D.B.A. programs graduated 83 in 1985. These 756 graduates represent 86 percent of the 876 business administration doctorates tabulated by a recent AACSB survey.[7] The programs with a foreign language requirement graduated 146 business administration doctoral students in 1985 (142 with a Ph.D. and four with a D.B.A.) which represents 19 percent of the graduates of the responding schools.

Are the doctoral candidates permitted to substitute a computer language or statistical tool for the foreign language? As previously stated, the survey shows that only one of the Ph.D.—and one of the D.B.A.—granting schools would not allow such a substitution. These two schools had five doctoral graduates in 1985.

Summary

In summary, the foreign language requirement portion of the doctorate in business administration, whether it's the traditional Ph.D. or the professional D.B.A., has been effectively removed. The numerous authors who have pointed out the questionable value of a language requirement as administered in a doctoral program have apparently been heard and their advice acted upon.

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2. W.C. Wolf, Jr., "Have You Noticed The Changes In Doctoral Study?" **The Clearing House** (Sept., 1980), p. 41.

3. Bernard Berelson, **Graduate Education in the United States** (New York: McGraw–Hill, 1960), p. 196.

4. James Harvey, **The Student in Graduate School** (Washington, D.C.: American Association, Jan., 1972), p. 40.

5. Berelson, **Graduate Education**, p. 197.

6. Ann M. Heiss, **Challenges to Graduate Schools** (San Francisco: Jossey–Bass, 1970), p. 115.

7. American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business, **Newsline**, Vol. 16, No. 4 (St. Louis: AACSB, April, 1986), p. 7.

Many application forms still in violation of non-discrimination standards. Revision is necessary . . .

AA/EEO and School District Pre-Employment Application Violations

by Grover H. Baldwin
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Theoretical Framework

For more than a quarter century, efforts have been made to eliminate discriminatory practices in many areas of life. While progress has been made in overcoming dejure discrimination, efforts are now concerned with defacto discrimination, particularly in employment. In response to such demands, states enacted laws and policies to ensure nondiscriminatory practices. Typical are statutes in Kansas (Chapter 44, Article 10) and Missouri (Section 296).

Discrimination is defined as action and practice which has a different and negative impact on members of a subordinate group (Feagin & Feagin, 1978). Recent Executive, Legislative and Judicial actions have added to the examination of both the effect and intent to discriminate. If the intent/effect argument is a key in determining the nature of discrimination, then organizational practices need to be scrutinized. This is because both the formal and informal rules of the organization may well lead to the effect of discrimination regardless of the intent of the organization members (USCRC, 1981).

The measurement of intent and overall use of affirmative action plans was to be voluntary. The primary purpose was to spur employers and unions to self-evaluation of their employment practices and to eliminate discrimination (Albemarle Paper Co. v. Moody, 422 US 405, 1975).

With these conditions ;in society, AA/EEO evaluations need to move to the pre-employment application area. This is needed to determine if conventional screening practices that use subjective criteria are potentially suspect, as they may lead to the *effect*, if not the *intent*, of the organization to discriminate. As the intent of pre-employment activities is to obtain information about the applicant so that the best person can be hired, and since employers, including school districts, are to comply with AA/EEO guidelines, the application form must contain only those permissible inquiries of the candidate (Horton & Corcoran, 1984; McCarthy, 1983; Sassen, 1976).

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The purpose of this study was to determine the degree to which pre-employment inquiries by school district personnel were violative of AA/EEO guidelines. Specifically, the study sought to determine if there was a significant difference between the number of violations and the size and home state of school districts. If significant, the results would call into question the intent, and the effect, of the use of these applications as being potentially discriminatory.

Methods/Data Source

The 851 school districts in Kansas and Missouri were contacted and asked to send a copy of their application form for teachers. The applications were gathered for the 1985 hiring year to permit the examination of the effect of 20 years of nondiscrimination legislation on employment practices.

As school district size was a factor to be considered, each school district in the two states was categorized into one of five classes based on pupil enrollment.

Table 1
School District Classification

School District Class	School District Size
Class 1	0–399
Class 2	400–999
Class 3	1,000–1,799
Class 4	1,800–9,999
Class 5	Above 10,000

Using a non-reactive research technique, the applications were reviewed using AA/EEO guidelines for permissible and impermissible inquiries. The document used as a source was the Pre-Employment Inquiries worksheet produced by the Kansas Department of Personnel. Specifically, applications were reviewed on the following 18 items: marital status, family status, age, handicaps, sex, race/color, birthplace, military record, photograph, citizenship, ancestry/national origin, conviction/arrest record, relatives, emergency information, credit rating, references, education (as to type of institutions), and a miscellaneous category. Upon receipt of the data, five categories were eliminated from consideration as no violations were found. These included ancestry/national origin, emergency information, references, credit rating, and education. After categorizing the violations, the data were compared using chi-square analysis for both overall state differences and differences by school district size. Prior to the analysis, significance was established at the .05 level.

The response rate was 60 percent (185 of 304) of the school districts in Kansas and 38 percent (210 of 547) of the school districts in Missouri, yielding an overall response rate of 46.4 percent. Of the data from the 395 school districts, usable data from 374 was obtained. The remaining 19 school districts indicated that they did not use the application process, but chose to let the candidate submit a letter of application and a resume.

Results

Data analysis indicated that violations do in fact exist on school district pre-employment applications. This holds true for different school district classifications, as well as between the states.

First, the results indicated first that a maximum number of eight violations existed in school district pre-employment inquiries. From a total possible number of violations of 6,732, the responding school districts yielded 1,182 violations or 17.26 percent of the total possible. Com-

paring total number of violations by state and class, we find the following results.

Table 2
School District Violations by State and Class

	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3	Class 4	Class 5	Total
Kansas	136	310	4	66	3	519
Missouri	162	205	90	149	37	643

A chi-square analysis yielded a value of 151.852, which was significant beyond .001. In analyzing the data, care must be taken in considering the small frequency count in classes 3 and 5 from the state of Kansas. However, there were significant frequency differences in classes 2, 3 and 5 and in both Kansas and Missouri, and in class 4 for Kansas, that led to the significance.

Further comparison of the overall numbers of violations by school district class between Kansas and Missouri finds that class 1 yielded a raw chi-square value (16.716) and level of significance (.0332). Intrastate analysis of Kansas yielded a chi-square value of 144.872, with 28 degrees of freedom ($p < .05$). Intrastate analysis of Missouri yielded a chi-square value of 132.647, with 28 degrees of freedom ($p < .01$).

A second finding was that the extent of the violations covers all major aspects of the nondiscriminatory provisions of federal and state legislation, court decisions, and guidelines established to reduce such discrimination. An item by item analysis of the seven violated categories yields the following information.

Item #1—Marital Status

In this category, questions pertinent to the marital status of the individual were considered to be a violation. Specific violations included direct questions regarding married, divorced, single, widowed, etc., and informal questions such as (Circle One: Mr., Mrs., or Ms.).

Table 3
Frequency Count for Marital Status Violations

	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3	Class 4	Class 5	Total
Kansas	24	54	0	11	0	89
Missouri	26	34	14	16	2	92

The overall chi-square value was 21.50756 with a significance level at .0003. Specifically the cell for class 3 effected the results with a chi-square value beyond significance, with Kansas school districts yielding a value of 6.68 ($p < .01$) and Missouri districts yielding a value of 6.65 ($p < .01$).

Item #2—Family Status

In this category, family status, questions were asked about the number of children at home, time needed away from the job by the prospective employee to take care of family matters, and the like.

Table 4
Frequency Count for Family Status Violations

	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3	Class 4	Class 5	Total
Kansas	22	40	0	5	0	67
Missouri	26	32	13	16	2	89

The overall chi-square value was 19.26469 with a level of significance of .0007.

Item #3—Age

Violations in this category were determined to be present when applications asked either the direct questions (as some did) as to the age of the applicant, or when they asked the date of birth.

Table 5
Frequency Count for Age Violations

	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3	Class 4	Class 5	Total
Kansas	24	59	1	12	0	96
Missouri	32	48	23	34	8	145

The overall chi-square value was 32.33617 with a level of significance beyond the .0001 level. Four cells contributed to the significant difference. Kansas class 2 and 3 with significance at .02 and .01 respectively, and Missouri class 2 and 3 with significance for both at .05 created the differences when compared to the total.

Item #4—Handicaps

While this area is one of prominence since the passage of 94–142, violations continue to occur because of the general nature of the questions asked by school districts. Most of the violations fail to make any attempt (a) to find out the specific handicap involved and/or (b) to link the handicapping condition to job performance.

Table 6
Frequency Count for Handicap Violations

	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3	Class 4	Class 5	Total
Kansas	24	45	0	9	0	78
Missouri	21	17	4	10	2	54

The overall chi-square value for this item was 15.03105, with a significance level of .0046.

Item #5—Birthplace/Nationality

This item seems strange in that it would not seem to be important. By itself it probably is not, however, as it gives clues to national origin it becomes a questionable practice on the part of school districts and a violation of AA/EEO.

Table 7
Frequency Count for Birthplace/Nationality Violations

	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3	Class 4	Class 5	Total
Kansas	10	26	0	4	0	40
Missouri	11	10	2	5	3	31

The overall chi-square value for this item was 11.31074, with a level of significance of .0233.

Item #6—Military Record

In this category school districts can legitimately ask questions of the individual's military record as it pertains to training received in the military pertinent to the specific tasks of the position for which the applicant is applying. No general questions, including type of discharge, are viable within the AA/EEO guidelines.

Table 8
Frequency Count Violations for Military Record

	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3	Class 4	Class 5	Total
Kansas	13	26	1	4	1	45
Missouri	4	7	5	10	3	29

The overall chi-square value for item #6 was 19.38916 with a level of significance of .0007.

Item #7—Conviction/Arrest Record

In this category, school districts asked questions that made no distinction between arrests or convictions, nor did they distinguish between misdemeanors and felonies. Therefore, while a small category, in terms of overall violations, it is still an important consideration as there were violations of AA/EEO guidelines.

Table 9
Frequency Count for Convictions/Arrest Record Violations

	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3	Class 4	Class 5	Total
Kansas	6	16	1	4	0	27
Missouri	4	6	3	15	7	35

The chi-square for the overall analysis was 18.59114 with a significance level of .0009. Internal cellular analysis yielded Kansas class 2 as distinctive with a significance level of more than .05 ($X2 = 4.30$).

Conclusions and Implications

Overall, the data analysis demonstrates a disregard for the AA/EEO guidelines promulgated to avoid discrimination in the hiring of personnel. With 1,182 violations noted among the respondents, it is clear that while the data does not show their intent to discriminate nor does it provide demonstrable proof of effect, with the gathering of illicit information the potential to discriminate is present.

Areas of specific violations continue to be demonstrated in the 18 AA/EEO areas examined. Significance was found both between and within states in the areas of marital status, family status, age, handicap condition, birthplace/nationality, military record, and conviction/arrest record. To find such numbers of violations, and the significant differences both between and within states, are indications of the disregard for AA/EEO guidelines and the low level of knowledge and sophistication with which school districts approach this issue. Also, of the 11 areas where no significant differences were found, the fact that violations were present raises questions about the intent of school district administrative actions and the effects on their hiring policy.

While the findings cannot establish the intent or effect, they do call into question the formal and informal rules/norms used by school district personnel in their screening practices. Specifically, classes 1, 2, and 4 appear to be heavy violators of the guidelines. The high level of violations in classes 1 and 3 may be a direct result of their size and location within the states and the general practice of hiring locally without concern for individuals beyond the local school district boundaries. However, class 4 violations are a different matter. In a number of these districts there is an individual who oversees the hiring process and who should be cognizant of the guidelines to ensure compliance.

Lack of knowledge, or assuming a posture of least resistance, are also possible explanations for the violations. Many of the districts who utilize the application process do so with applications that come from three specific school supply vendors, or who use these vendors' applications to develop their own. Where these vendors' products were used, it was apparent that no attempt had been make to keep current with applicable AA/EEO guidelines. Where districts had modeled their applications on the vendors, similar results were apparent.

The implications for school district hiring personnel are many. First, they need to become acquainted with the legal requirements and guidelines regarding AA/EEO. Second, they need to establish policies and procedures that fulfill the intent, and effect, of the AA/EEO legislation and court decisions. Third, the school management personnel need to restructure their application procedures to ensure compliance with the guidelines, either through newly designed applications or through the use of letters of application and resumes solicited from the applicant. Last, the findings indicate that state department of education personnel, and state officials from AA/EEO and personnel offices, should be concerned with the level of sophistication and compliance with the guidelines by school district personnel. This concern should lead to both in-service/professional development of school district management personnel and an additional part to the audit process of the school districts to ensure compliance with state regulations.

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