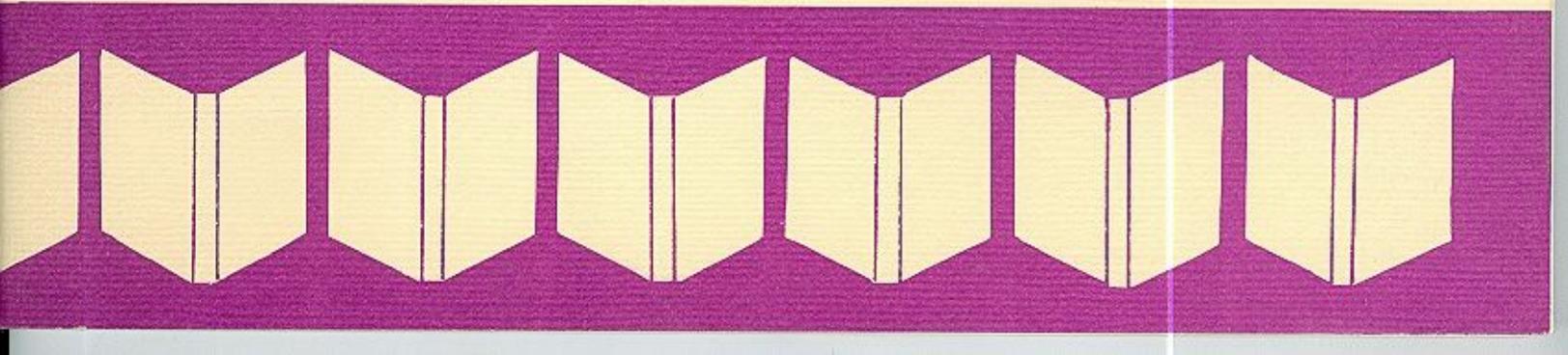


spring
1975

educational considerations

published at kansas state university college of education



editorial viewpoint:

education and federal legislation

I am gratified by this opportunity to communicate with the readers of *Educational Considerations*. Education is a subject that is very close to my heart. I have dealt with it in many ways—as a student myself, a parent, the wife of a university administrator, and now as a member of the United States House of Representatives.

I believe that every individual has a right to the level of education that develops and utilizes the maximum capacities he or she possesses. This right should not be denied or infringed upon because of any conditions which differentiate among individuals: economic factors, physical, emotional or psychological handicaps, sex, race, age, creed or vocation. The ultimate goal of an educational system must be to assure that each person has access to and receives those educational services which best meet his or her personal needs.

All levels of government have a role to play in providing those services. Elementary and secondary education is the primary responsibility of local and state government, with the federal government playing an important supportive role. The federal government occupies the major role in higher education.

This year Congress will again examine the relationship of the federal government to higher education. The Higher Education Act of 1965, which was last amended in 1972, is scheduled to expire later this year. The House Education and Labor Committee will review this legislation in two steps. It will first consider the student assistance programs—college work-study, basic and supplemental opportunity grants, the guaranteed and direct student loan programs. Then it will consider the act's other programs—community services, developing institutions, extension programs, library programs—to name a few.

In addition to evaluating changes in the law, the Committee will exercise its oversight responsibility and examine closely the administration of the programs by the executive branch.

The other major education legislation to be considered by the Committee this year will be the extension of the Vocational Education Act of 1963.

Chairman Carl Perkins of the House Education and Labor Committee has already introduced several draft versions of this legislation which have been developed by groups involved in this field. Congressman Perkins wants a wide range of views presented to the Committee, so that the federal government will provide the most effective assistance possible in the overall areas of vocational, occupational and career education.

Another matter being considered by the Committee which is of interest to educators is the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA). This legislation, a successor to the Manpower Development and Training Act, was passed just two years ago and is not up for extension. However, because of the recession, and the critical need for public service employment, hearings are being held to determine whether provisions of the law can be strengthened to meet our pressing economic problems.

CETA affects educational institutions in two ways: in training persons in new skills and occupations and in providing employment under the public service jobs program.

Overshadowing all of this legislation, however, is a more basic matter facing Congress—the continued attempt by the Administration to reduce federal funding for education.

President Ford wants to reduce fiscal year 1975 spending for education by \$286 million and defer an additional \$375 million in funding. In addition, he has asked for a cut of \$360 million in fiscal 1976 spending. Altogether, these proposals mean the President wants to postpone or eliminate more than \$1 billion in federal spending for education.

I strongly oppose his plans, and I believe that a majority of his proposals will be rejected by Congress.

Federal educational programs benefit not only the persons involved but also the nation as a whole, by increasing individual productivity. We need vocational and career education to provide persons with job skills, adult basic education to give fundamental language and mathematical skills to poorly-trained persons, compensatory education to bring disadvantaged students up to our overall standards, and student assistance programs to enable qualified but financially limited students to achieve their educational goals.

These programs, and others like them, are investments in the future. They are part of an essential commitment by the federal government to our educational system—a commitment to ourselves and our children. I pledge to work to make sure that commitment is honored. I ask for your help and for your advice.

Congresswoman Martha Keys

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A survey of Kansas reading teachers found that merely meeting the State Department of Education certification requirements is not sufficient to qualify a person to teach remedial reading. Administrators need to consider such personality traits as understanding and tolerance. This study found that remedial reading teachers need an extraordinary amount of patience and optimism.

personality traits needed by remedial reading teachers

David Hurt



Elnora O. Roane



Earline M. Simms



Leo M. Schell

David Hurt is a doctoral candidate in counselor education at Kansas State University. He has worked as a counselor and a coach at high schools and junior highs. As a Ph.D. candidate at Kansas State University he has been an assistant in the Office of Admissions and Records and an assistant to Dr. James McCain, President of the University.

Reading programs for the culturally different is the specialty of Elnora O. Roane, Director of the University Reading Programs and Assistant Professor of Education at Alabama State University. Dr. Roane received her Ph.D. and M.S. degrees from Kansas State University.

An assistant professor in the College of Education at Southern University, Earline Morgan Simms is now a doctoral candidate at Kansas State University. She has taught language arts, speech, and theatre in high schools in Louisiana; coordinated student teacher programs; and taught Headstart Teachers and Adult Basic Education programs.

Leo M. Schell, professor of education in Curriculum and Instruction at Kansas State University, is director of the Reading Clinic with a particular interest in remedial reading. Dr. Schell has co-edited two books on reading and has published extensively in the major journals in the reading and language arts areas.

What kinds of personality traits are most needed by remedial reading teachers?

To discover how teachers viewed this question, nearly 200 Kansas teachers who were certified under the Kansas State Department of Education as special ("remedial") teachers of reading* were surveyed. For convenience of return, a self-addressed, stamped envelope was enclosed with each questionnaire. Eighty-five teachers responded to the question, "What special personality traits, attributes, or characteristics do you think that teachers who work with youngsters with reading problems need which are not required for typical classroom instruction?" Teachers were instructed to include only personality aspects, not professional knowledge or competencies.

Space on the questionnaire was provided for eight responses, but teachers were clearly told to list as many or as few as they wanted to.

The 85 respondents made a total of 410 statements, an average of five statements per respondent. Each response was read and categorized by three College of Education doctoral students, two of whom were majoring in reading and one in guidance and counseling.

The categories that were established and the number of responses are listed below:

Category Title	Number of Responses
1. Understanding/Acceptance	78
2. Patience	67
3. Flexibility	38
4. Supportive	32
5. Rapport/Friendly	30
6. Creative	27
7. Enthusiastic	22
8. Interest/Concern	21
9. Loving	17
10. Tactful	13
10. Happy	13
11. Trustworthy	8
12. Good Listener	6

* Kansas State Department of Education certification standards, in addition to two years of classroom teaching, require 12 semester hours of graduate course work in reading including a course in diagnosis and treatment and another in clinical practices.

The personality traits needed by remedial teachers were ranked in descending order according to the number of statements made in twelve categories.

These areas were mentioned in 272 items. Moreover, Understanding/Acceptance and Patience accounted for more than one-fourth of the total 410 statements. Each of these two categories was named nearly twice as often as any one of the next four traits.

The responses in each category were studied and statements considered profound, representative, insightful, or impressive were selected for inclusion in this article. These statements are listed below under the categories:

Category I: Understanding and Acceptance

1. "Tolerance and sensitivity of children whose economic, social and language backgrounds are less than ideal. Don't let what you discover about the child, e.g., his parents and their activities or beliefs, prejudice you—even unconsciously—against the child."
2. "Self-acceptance of personal faults and limitations."

Category II: Patience

1. "Endlessly patient in a relaxed atmosphere. Able to recognize success in minute quantities."
2. "Ability to accept failure but not defeat."

Category III: Flexibility

1. "Perhaps a person who is quiet and not so authoritative, which is needed for control of a large classroom, can work happily."
2. "Ability to plan independently for each child's reading development according to his individual need, using a wide variety of techniques and materials. A wide understanding of sequence in learning to read and of expected norms for all age and grade levels."

Category IV: Supportive

1. "Must have a bearing of confidence, humor, enthusiasm and a sense of direction regarding the child's welfare."
2. "Kindness—a touch on the shoulder, a little wink of communication will do wonders in building rapport, and in instilling confidence."

Category V: Creative

1. "Innovative spirit. Willingness to try out new ideas; attempts to create new approaches, uses new and different equipment and materials."
2. "To adapt a variety of materials to suit the needs of several grade levels."

Category VI: Rapport and Friendly

1. "Warm and affectionate—not afraid to show physical affection for the children."
2. "Secure, self-confident for (a) the teacher will not have the "security" of a basal nor often of a teacher's manual, and must not be hesitant to use unorthodox methods and materials; and (b) the teacher must make decisions and must delegate authority to children to enable them to learn responsibility and self-direction."

Category VII: Enthusiastic

1. "Personal enthusiasm for books and reading, and the ability to generate that enthusiasm in others."

Category VIII: Interest/Concern

1. "The teacher must show a genuine interest in each child, therefore she should work with a minimum of students at one time. One person cannot help more than five in a group."

Category IX: Loving

1. "Love of children and love of teaching."

Category X: Tactful

1. "Ability to relate well with all—administrators, faculty, parents, children. Ability to accept constructive criticism as well as to initiate changes. Ability to overcome or ignore personal slights."

Category X: Happy

1. "Be happy and positive, but be honest with students. A sense of humor, a serenity within and without. A happy cheerful disposition—you must learn to laugh at yourself and with children."

Category XI: Trustworthy

1. "A child should be so influenced that he can identify with the teacher."

Category XII: Good Listener

1. "To be able to listen carefully to a child's, teacher's, parent's, or administrator's problems before passing judgment."

DISCUSSION

Not only must the remedial reading teacher be a good teacher of reading who has at his command all of the necessary knowledge of the entire reading process, but he must possess those personal traits that enable him to assume the responsibility of correcting reading problems as well as working with fellow-professionals, and parents. The first five of these are discussed below.

Understanding/Acceptance. If the remedial reading teacher is to help the disabled reader, he has to understand and accept the problems of the pupils with whom he hopes to work. This, in many instances, proves to be a very awesome task because the remedial reading teacher and his pupils usually have so few experiences in common. Yet, as the teacher, he has to understand those factors that are constantly present in the daily lives of his students and how they influence not only the children's school behavior, but their learning as well. As the teacher, he has to understand why the child is always tired, sleepy, irritable, or seemingly "in another world." When he understands that the child is tired or sleepy because he shared with four others a bed designed for two, or that he works at night to supplement the family budget, and that he is possibly irritable because of the constant lack of a balanced diet, and that he often daydreams because this is his device for shutting out all of

the unpleasantness around him, then he adjusts his teaching procedures to circumvent the influences of these factors.

If the remedial reading teacher is to relate to his pupils and to do everything that he possibly can to meet their individual needs, he must do a bit of "soul-searching" and "self-analyzing," for he must recognize his own feelings and attitudes toward working with children whose bodies may be offensive, whose appearances may be less than ideal, whose actions in class may be disruptive, whose language may be non-standard, and whose entire attitude may be negative.

Patience. If success in the remedial reading program could be pre-determined by a "good recipe," patience would certainly be the one ingredient requiring the largest quantity. The remedial reading teacher must realize that the average disabled reader did not become so overnight. In many instances, his problem is an accumulation of failures to acquire specific reading competencies. Thus, the remedial teacher has to take the child where he finds him with respect to reading ability and explore a variety of teaching methods until he finds one or a combination of several that will produce results for the child. In reality then, the remedial reading teacher must "be able to accept failure (time and time again) but not defeat," and he must be able to recognize "success in minute portions."

Flexible. The remedial teacher of reading cannot be one who has developed a comfortable teaching style and is not willing to make a change, for so often many of his students have suffered a fusillade of failures, and what produces results for one of them may not do so for another. Consequently, as the teacher, he has to be a "Jack of all Trades." He should be competent in a plethora of teaching methods and techniques. One observing youngster said, "A thermos keeps things cold and it keeps things hot, and it knows when to which." Like the thermos bottle, the remedial reading teacher must be competent in not only the traditional approaches to teaching reading skills, but he must also know "when to which" programmed instruction, multi-media, both the hardware and the software approaches, or some other method in his search for the best method to be used in remedying reading problems.

Supportive. Many disabled readers have suffered so many failures and have experienced crushing feelings of inadequacies when previous teachers communicated to them their personal feelings of frustration and disgust. Hence, the teacher of remedial reading has to help such children come out of their "shell." To do this successfully, he has to get the children to understand that he and they are going to be part-

ners in the business of learning to read. He will do this through his verbal as well as his non-verbal behavior. Through his facial expressions, the tone of his voice, or that certain kind of look, he will let his students know that he supports them in their efforts. He will make a special effort to sit down and explain the task that has been assigned, and he will give freely any assistance that the child may require.

Rapport/Friendly. The teacher of remedial reading will have that certain personal touch that allows him to convey to his pupils that "I am your friend. I am here to help you, and what is more important, I want to help you." Here, too, the teacher realizes that verbal as well as non-verbal behavior is significant in communicating with children. As a result, voice, facial expressions, and all actions will be directed toward helping children develop a better self-concept, one in which they perceive themselves as human beings, with worth, and who are loved and respected by their teacher. The remedial reading teacher will not hesitate to give any one of the students a great big hug of approval, or a quick touch of approval or encouragement. The teacher develops rapport with the students by reinforcing non-verbal behavior with verbal behavior. He searches and finds some measure of success and achievement in the students' work, and he lets the students know that he is proud of them.

Comments

These eighty-five Kansas reading teachers agree that *understanding/acceptance* was the trait most needed by remedial reading teachers. They considered that tolerance, sensitivity and self-acceptance were more necessary for their success with children than for regular classroom teachers. These teachers also believe that such teachers need an extraordinary amount of patience and optimism.

This data, plus that reported by Klausner (1), clearly indicates that merely meeting State Department of Education certification requirements is insufficient to qualify a person to teach remedial reading. Administrators need to consider personality traits as well as academic qualifications when hiring remedial reading teachers. And teachers who currently teach remedial reading need to carefully assess themselves on each of the 12 categories identified by the respondents of this survey to assure they are teaching children as well as teaching reading.

References

1. Klausner, Dorothy Chenoweth, "Screening and Development of the Remedial Reading Teacher," *Journal of Reading*, 10 (May 1967), pp. 552-559.

Kansas community colleges have evolved in a short period of years from junior colleges with very limited functions to colleges that are committed to meet the educational and training needs of their communities. The new goals are being accomplished by providing comprehensive programs at a minimal cost to students.

from junior to comprehensive community college— in kansas

Floyd H. Price



Floyd Price's areas of expertise, in addition to community college education, are business education and junior high school programs. He has been a business education teacher in high schools, junior highs, and vocational-technical schools in the Wichita area. An associate professor in curriculum and instruction, Dr. Price has been at Kansas State University since 1964. He received his Ed.D. from the University of Oklahoma; an Ed.S. from George Peabody College for Teachers; an M.Ed. from Wichita State University; and a B.A. from Friends University.

Community and junior colleges have been called "peoples' colleges," "commuter colleges," "open-door colleges," "the now colleges," and "democracy's colleges" by observers trying to describe the special character of those uniquely American institutions. In Kansas they have been referred to as junior colleges and more recently as community colleges. By whatever name, they have made a substantial impact on the shape of post-secondary education in the state. And they have done so in a relatively short period of time—not quite 60 years in terms of when the first one came into being, perhaps the past 10 years if one considers the period of greatest growth and expansion.

The unifying forces contributing to the present status of the Kansas Community Junior Colleges are numerous and varied. At least four forces seem to stand out. The first of these was the establishment of the idea itself, proposed by a succession of deans and university presidents. The second force was the economic wherewithal for community junior college development in a state that was rapidly improving opportunities for education. The third force was the practical feasibility of instituting the idea, the ease with which the junior college machinery could be set in motion. The fourth force was the general public's acceptance of the idea of providing an easy access to higher education for all who could desire it and profit by it.

To have a clear picture of the historical development of the two-year institutions in Kansas, one needs to take a brief look at the historical development of the institutions nationwide.

Formal steps to establish the two-year "junior" college actually had their roots in the questioning minds of early university educators who felt that the first two years of university work were secondary in character, and differed in purpose, content, organization and methods from the goals and purpose of the American university.

Among those early educators advocating such change, history indicates that the first official projection of this idea was made by Henry P. Tappan in his inaugural address as the president of the University of Michigan in 1852. He pointed out the advisability of the transfer of the work of the secondary departments of the university to the high school. Others making similar proposals were W.W. Folwell in his inaugural address as president of the University of Minnesota in 1869, and President James of the University of Illinois, in the eighties.¹

The present day junior college came into being as a result of the efforts of William Rainey Harper, President of the University of Chicago.² Dr. Harper put the concept into action by establishing at the University of Chicago a "university college" (covering the junior and senior years) and an "academic college" (covering the freshman and sophomore years). These designations were subsequently changed to "senior" and "junior" college, and the latter term became generic, for Dr. Harper also sought to encourage the establishment of a network of public two-year post-secondary institutions, envisioning that they might be developed as an extension of the offerings of local school districts.

The public community junior college "movement" may be said to have started when Dr. Harper suggested to school authorities in nearby Joliet that they undertake to offer two years of classwork beyond high school, with the understanding that the student who successfully completed the work could be accepted by the University of Chicago in its "senior college."³ The ultimate result was the creation in 1901 of Joliet Junior College by the Joliet Township High School Board.

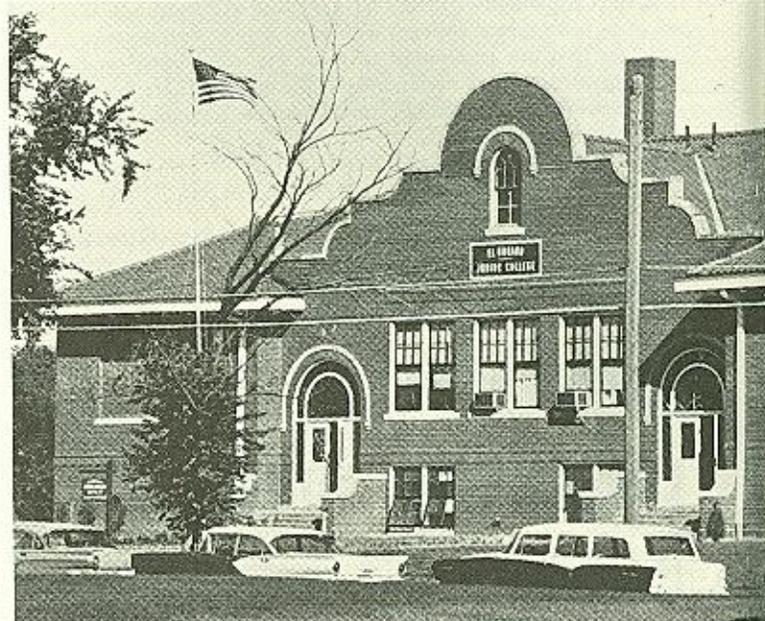
The idea of linking high school and college quickly caught on and for many years was standard. Legislation for the establishment of public two-year colleges started with laws in 1907 in California and was followed rapidly by Illinois, Minnesota, Missouri, Iowa, Kansas, Oklahoma, and Texas.

During this period of time the junior college movement was receiving its principal impetus from private two-year institutions, though they had various backgrounds, having been called academies, seminaries, or finishing schools, and some were former four-year institutions that for financial reasons chose to become two-year institutions. These private two-year schools flourished during the early part of the 1900s. As late as 1930 the private colleges outnumbered the public junior colleges 258 to 178. However, this trend has not continued, for example, the 1974 *Directory of Community and Junior Colleges*⁴ lists a total of 1,165 two-year institutions, 933 public and 232 private. This is an increase of 61 public institutions and a decrease of 7 private institutions from the 1972 listing.

The pattern of establishment and early growth of the junior college in Kansas was quite similar to that of other states. Kansas established its public junior colleges by the high-school extension method.

In 1917, the first enabling act for junior colleges was enacted.⁵ This law, with only slight modifications, remained in the statutes of the state until its repeal in 1965. The 1917 law, permissive in nature, authorized boards of education in first- and second-class cities and community high schools to extend, by a vote of the people at a general or special election, the high school's course of study to include grades thirteen and fourteen. The words "junior college" were never a part of the law, the terminology of "high school extension" soon lost its support except in matters of legal reference, and the title of junior college was commonly applied in educational reference.

The 1917 law authorized boards of education to levy a tax not to exceed two mills on the assessed valuation of the district to maintain the extension courses. This law was changed in 1933 and again in 1957.



Butler County Junior College before 1965.

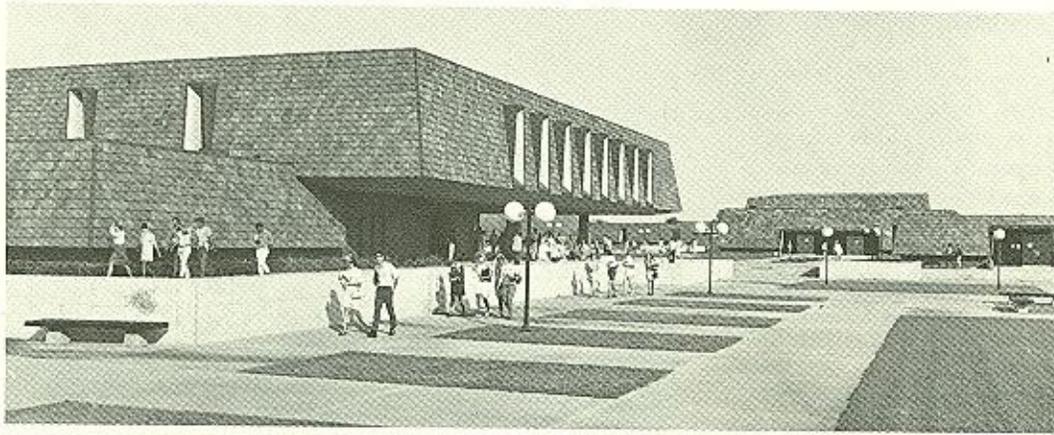
The 1917 law gave the State Board of Education the responsibility to prescribe the curriculums for the high school extension programs. The course of study in the two-year extension programs was approximately equivalent to the course of study in the first two years of accredited colleges. Thus, the early day extension programs were college parallel liberal arts programs.

There seems to be very little data which would point out definite factors which influenced the Kansas Legislature to pass the 1917 law. Some of the influence came from the residence of Holton, where Campbell College had ceased to function as a denominational college and had been succeeded by a private two-year college. The people of Fort Scott also advocated the junior college movement. Dr. William A. Black, a strong advocate of the junior college movement, later became a faculty member at Fort Scott.

Since the 1917 Legislature omitted any form of state support and made provision for a special levy, it is obvious that they expected the junior colleges to be financed by local support. They also specified that the provision for the extension of high schools was applicable to first- and second-class cities and county high school districts; thus, they were insuring a large enough tax valuation to provide financial stability.

The first attempt to obtain state aid for junior college support was made in 1926. The State Board of Education did not seem very interested and the institutions were too new to command sufficient support. From time to time after 1926, the Kansas Public Junior College Association (now the Kansas Association of Community Colleges) as well as several individuals encouraged passage of legislation to provide some form of state support. However, it was not until 1961 that the efforts of the past thirty-six years were successful in achieving the first state support for the operation of junior colleges.

The junior college idea was not popular at first and two of the first institutions, Marysville and Holton, soon closed because of low enrollments and high costs per student. Fort



The new Butler County Community College is a comprehensive community college.

Scott and Garden City, the two oldest remaining institutions, did not have an easy time. Enrollments ranged from 10 to 30 students the first few years. Another problem faced by these newly founded institutions was the unfriendly and uncooperative attitude of the four-year institutions of higher education.⁶

Kansas followed the practice of many states of having the state university accredit junior colleges. This form of accreditation provided standards and assisted students with the transferability of credit. The Faculty Senate of the University of Kansas in their May 2, 1922 meeting, accepted the recommendation of the Advanced Standing and Examination Committee that the acceptance of credit be approved.⁷

The standards set up by the State Board of Education for the approval of the establishment of a high school extension course as provided in the 1917 law and the procedure used in accreditation by the University of Kansas were very similar.

The State Board of Education revised the standards several times during the period from 1917 to 1954. In 1954 a major revision to update the standards was completed. Very little was done until the mid 50s to work toward North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools Accreditation, the main reason being that the expense of the North Central inspection was almost prohibitive. Also the colleges were getting along with the accreditation plan they had with the University of Kansas and the standards required by the State Department of Education.

Dr. R.H. Hughes, a long time supporter of the two-year colleges in Kansas should be given special recognition for his efforts and guidance in the 1965 legislation which replaced the provisions of the antiquated 1917 law. By the action taken in 1965, Kansas had taken a big step toward regaining some of the prestige it formerly had as a leader in the junior college movement.

The first state plan for community junior colleges developed by the newly organized advisory council (as prescribed by the 1965 law) was submitted and approved by the state superintendent of public instruction on March 11, 1966. The main responsibilities of the community junior colleges as stated in the plan were to take the institution to the student and to provide comprehensive, diversified programs of studies which include not only academic or general education, but vocational-technical and adult education programs for the people of their service area.

The state plan set forth the procedure for the establishment of new institutions. The process required a comprehensive study to determine the need for the proposed institution. The need was to some extent determined by the answer to the following questions.

1. Are potential students available in the area?
2. Is there an adequate financial base to operate the institution?
3. Is there evidence that existing post-secondary educational institutions are not meeting the total educational needs of the community?

The community junior colleges in Kansas were not established to compete with other post-secondary institutions, but to complement them and the total higher educational system in the state. Since 1965 three new community junior colleges have opened that were established under the procedures as outlined in the new law and set forth in the state plan. All community junior colleges which were organized prior to 1965 are now completely separate from high school extension, having elected their own boards of trustees who in turn have hired presidents. All of the nineteen community colleges now in existence in Kansas have expanded their taxing district to include one county except two which share equally one county. Kansas now has eighteen counties served by a community college and one county with two institutions.

The local districts and the state have jointly accepted the responsibility of providing funds for the cost of operation of the junior colleges. The provision of funds for repairs and improvements of old buildings and construction of new campuses has not been a joint responsibility. The local districts with the assistance from the federal government have provided the total cost of building programs. Through this plan 15 of the 19 colleges have completely new campuses and the remaining four have new and remodeled buildings. The facilities of the Kansas institutions are excellent.

Since 1965 a number of Legislative accomplishments have occurred. These legislative acts have dealt with increased state assistance: by increasing the operating mill levies; by changing the voting election laws; by revising procedures for election of boards of trustees; by improving out-of-district

tuition provisions; and by legislating minimum and maximum tuition to be charged.

The operational revenues for community junior colleges are obtained from four major sources. These include local ad valorem tax, state aid, out-district tuition, and student tuition. A fifth source but very small for operational expense comes from federal aid. For the 1974-75 academic year the percentages from each source in relation to the total are approximately 38 percent state aid (including out-district tuition), student tuition 20 percent, federal aid 2 percent, with the remaining 40 percent being provided by local property tax.

Kansas junior colleges have, since their inception, not been as liberal arts oriented as junior colleges in many states; therefore, they have to some degree from the beginning accepted the responsibility of offering comprehensive programs. Even though these colleges provided not only the liberal arts curriculum, and some vocational-technical programs, we have seen a great increase in the emphasis on terminal curriculums since the early 1930s. There are several reasons for the expansion of occupational programs in the junior colleges. The leadership of state agencies for vocational education, set up under the Smith-Hughes and related federal legislation, was especially effective in this state. Widespread unemployment during the depression of 1929-1937 encouraged the spread of occupational education, in fact, Pratt Community College was established as a result of the realization that specific training beyond high school would give an applicant an advantage in the job market. Kansas was able to take advantage of the fact that the Vocational Education Act of 1963 recognized the junior colleges by removing the restrictions of courses of "less than college grade" that had appeared in earlier legislation. Kansas community junior colleges still have not become as involved in occupational education as those institutions in states that do not have vocational-technical schools. With 14 vocational-technical schools in the state the community colleges have tried not to duplicate programs offered in the vocational-technical schools. Kansas does not have any public community colleges that offer only academic curricula.

Since the Kansas colleges all practice an "open-door" policy some students need some type of remedial study. They require help in learning to express themselves, in basic mathematics, in reading, and simply in understanding how to study and learn. The community colleges in Kansas, like those throughout the nation, have innovated in remarkable ways to help students. The learning skills centers and special programs established have removed much of the stigma of "remedial work" to the point that students seek out the help without being referred by a teacher.

As early as 1936 Kansas junior colleges were offering such vocational programs as: machine shop, auto mechanics, carpentry, office practice, printing, costume design, salesmanship to name a few.

From the early 1950s to the present, the Kansas community junior colleges have offered more than seventy-five different vocational-technical programs. However, all of the nineteen community colleges do not comply with what the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education calls "comprehensive."

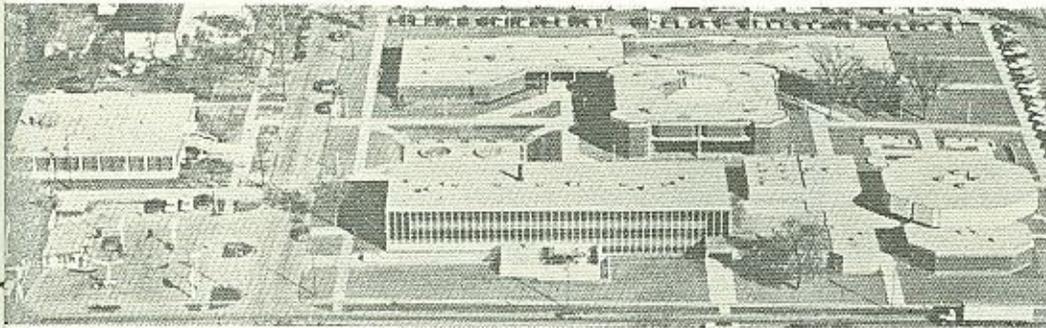


Coffeyville Junior College was located in an old high school building.

Because of small enrollments and lack of finances it is not possible for some of the colleges to be comprehensive. This does not mean that many of the institutions do not offer a smorgasbord of courses, ranging from the traditional liberal arts to such strictly vocational subjects as computer management, secretarial science, dental technology, data processing, automotive repair, and welding.

If one looks at the qualifications of the faculty members in terms of academic degrees the Kansas community colleges rank quite well with the national averages. Between five and eight percent of the faculty members have doctorates; another 70 percent hold a master's; about ten per cent have a bachelor's; the rest less than a B.A. degree. Most of those in the latter two categories are vocational teachers, whose professional skills count for more than their academic credentials. With fewer job openings on four-year campuses and more Ph.D.s being graduated to fill them, the percentage of faculty holding a doctorate can be expected to increase—probably to 10 per cent or more by 1980.

Few, if any, famous research scholars are found on community college campuses throughout the country and this is true for Kansas. The faculty members spend their time in the classroom, many teaching from 15 to 18 contact hours per week. The emphasis on the community college campus is on what happens with students, not on what happens in the laboratory. For that reason, there is no pressure to "publish or



Coffeyville Community College offers a comprehensive program from its new campus.

perish" in order to have an increase in salary or receive a promotion.

Kansas community colleges like most institutions also rely on part-time faculty members. Some are "moonlighters" from local high schools or from neighboring four-year schools; some hold full-time jobs in the community. There are many advantages in using part-time staff. For example the curriculum can be broadened by bringing in specialists to teach one or two classes but there is not a need or money to hire such a person full time. Some institutions use part-time faculty members as a way to save money. Hiring a local lawyer to teach a business law course, or hiring a local CPA to teach an accounting course is an excellent form of public relations for the college.

If one visits the campuses of Kansas he would observe that many of the buildings have been designed with the idea in mind to keep class size small. This has been one of the selling points for community colleges, class size being smaller than four-year schools. Generally community colleges have been bolder than four-year colleges in employing technology to help students on an individual basis. The new campuses were designed to use such teaching techniques as the "audio-tutorial" method in biology; computer-assisted English and mathematics instruction and typing and shorthand courses are completely on tapes.

The days when a junior college consisted of a few dingy rooms on the third floor or in the basement of the local high school are a far cry from the ultramodern campuses that exist in Kansas community colleges today.

Most of the colleges have elaborate plants of their own, with fully equipped science labs, libraries, classroom buildings, study facilities, auditoriums, student unions, and some institutions now have their own dormitories. The community colleges get more mileage out of their buildings than most four-year institutions. To meet the needs of students many courses are taught in the evening, community groups are encouraged to use the campus facilities like the auditoriums, and gymnasiums, free or for a minimum charge.

Even with the increased cost of tuition, students can attend a Kansas community college far cheaper than attending a four-year school. The 1973 legislature increased the minimum tuition from \$5 per credit hour to \$8 per credit hour and the maximum that could be charged from \$10 to \$13 per credit hour. The cost of an education is still much less because a large number of the students live at home.

After many years of struggling for acceptance, community colleges in Kansas are now recognized and accepted as a vital and necessary part of the educational system of the state. The question of transfer of credit to senior colleges and

universities appears to be resolved in a mutually satisfactory way.

Probably the two most important issues facing the community college movement in Kansas are finances and the reorganization of post-secondary education. In order to broaden the tax base for community colleges and area vocational-technical schools and to prevent unnecessary duplication, a number of plans and proposals have been submitted from various committees. At this time there does not appear to be one acceptable plan. However, the 1975 legislature will probably take some action. Some of the proposals have been to place the 19 community junior colleges under the state board of regents with the existing 6 state four-year institutions; another plan is to divide the state into 20 districts with a community college or vocational-technical school in each district. Another plan is to divide the state into 10 districts.

At this point it is imperative that a determination of the roles of the post-secondary educational institutions, simplifying, if possible, the financial and administrative structure, and eliminating duplication at both the state and local level, be resolved.

The Kansas community college has in a short period of years evolved from a junior college with very limited functions and purposes into colleges that are committed to meet the present and future educational and training needs of the citizens in their communities and the state. The new goals are being accomplished by providing comprehensive programs at a minimal cost to students. These institutions have not only set out to respond to change but to influence the directions that change may take.

Kansas Community Colleges—They mean many things to many people.

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The goal of the Center for Extended Services is to provide assistance to local school personnel in their own environment. Services provided by the Center include educational facilities evaluation, curriculum planning, administration improvement, and grant proposal preparation.

center for extended services: a land grant concept

Eddy J. Van Meter



Dr. Eddy J. Van Meter, in addition to serving as Director of the Center for Extended Services, is associate professor of Educational Administration and Foundations within the College of Education at Kansas State University. Prior to joining the faculty at Kansas State University, Dr. Van Meter was coordinator for a school principalship training program in New Mexico and was a research associate with the ERIC Clearinghouse on Rural Education and Small Schools. Dr. Van Meter received his undergraduate degree from the University of New Mexico, and received both the Master's Degree and Doctorate in Educational Administration and Management Psychology from New Mexico State University. Dr. Van Meter's academic areas of interest include organization behavior and educational organization development as well as program and project management and evaluation.

The Center for Extended Services within the College of Education at Kansas State University is operated as a coordinating unit for the College, specifically responsible for the promotion and delivery of educational support services throughout the state. Providing such services—in the form of consulting and contracted work with local school districts and through the publication of reports and studies which are addressed to the practical concerns of Kansas school personnel—is a responsibility very much in keeping with the land-grant university concept and mission. To gain a clear understanding of the Center and how it fits within the total organizational structure of the College, it is perhaps necessary to look beyond the stated purpose of the Center and examine the actual kinds of activities in which the Center is engaged.

It should be noted at the outset that the KSU College of Education is organizationally comprised of three major departments: Curriculum and Instruction, Administration and Foundations, and Adult and Occupational Education. Such a departmental division of emphasis is typical within a major university where the total College faculty may include anywhere from 60 or 70 to several hundred members. These departments, each operating as a part of the College, in effect focus on separate teaching and research activities and areas of professional training interest. In addition, each department works separately in providing support services to local schools. There are times, however, when service-related programs and projects do not fit neatly under the auspices of a single department. Under such circumstances, it may be necessary to have faculty members from several departments working on a single project. The Center for Extended Services is organized in part to be responsive to the need for such comprehensive projects.

The Center for Extended Services operates from an office located on the KSU campus. This office has support staff and the necessary equipment and materials needed to develop and produce project reports. The Center draws upon the expertise of faculty members within the College to actually conduct projects which have been contracted. The director of the Center for Extended Services serves as a coordinator for projects, as an individual who can maintain liaison with appropriate school district personnel, as the individual primarily responsible for the financial overseeing of project expenditures, and as the individual who assists with the preparation of both written reports and required verbal reports which might be provided to school personnel or boards of education as a part of a total project.

Services provided through the Center are divided into several general categories. One of the major activities of the Center has been to work with school systems on educational facility evaluation and improvement studies. With reference to this kind of project, a procedure that is usually followed is for a school district to request that the Center make a determination about existing facilities, usually looking toward the possibility of building a new facility which, in turn, often requires the initiation of a voter referendum. A facility study will, therefore, usually include a thorough examination of buildings, a review of building sites that are currently owned by the district, a determination of new sites which might be needed, and a determination of student population characteristics and future trends which provide an indication of building needs. The Center, on request, will also work with a designated architect in the preliminary development of sketches and space needs and will also represent or assist in representing the school district before the State Board of Education.

A second service provided by the Center is to conduct educational needs assessments which provide direction for curriculum planning. In conducting such a needs assessment, the Center typically will develop survey instruments that are specific to the school district or will use needs assessment instruments and materials that are already available. An additional part of an educational needs assessment contract will often include a systematic program of interaction between the Center staff and professional staff and citizen advisory groups within the district. As is the case with facility evaluation and improvement studies, a final written report is prepared and submitted to the local board of education at the conclusion of a project.

Another service activity of the Center is to work with a school system on the development and initiation of a program leading to administrative and management improvement within the district. This kind of contracted service usually entails a thorough review of administrative and management practice in the district followed by a suggested series of improvements and, when needed, a program of in-service training for administrative personnel. Again, a report is prepared and submitted to the district as a part of the administrative improvement contracted service.

The Center for Extended Services also makes available to school districts information concerning speakers for professional meetings and for other local speaking engagements. This kind of service is done simply as a courtesy to districts and is not a contracted service. The procedure usually followed for speaking engagements is for the local district to work out a consulting fee directly with the individual who might be identified through the Center

speaker referral. Speakers may or may not be members of the KSU faculty.

The Center also works with local school systems on the preparation of proposals for state, federal, and private foundation grants. This service usually is provided on a day-by-day consulting basis. The service typically involves the provision of technical writing assistance, a review of the proposal prior to submission by a KSU faculty member with particular expertise in the area under consideration, and where appropriate, assistance in interacting with granting agencies.

The Center also prepares and distributes to school personnel throughout the state periodic monographs and reports which are addressed to educational concerns and emerging topics of interests. These reports are distributed as a means of providing local school personnel with current information which is being compiled and prepared on the university campus as part of the on-going commitment to research and new knowledge which is a vital responsibility of the university.

Topics of educational interest which are currently being researched and which will be developed into monographs for distribution in the near future include effectively dealing with declining enrollment, issues relating to school consolidation, and procedures for developing administrative teams which are multi-district in composition.

It might be noted that the Center for Extended Services, as the name would imply, has been established not as a profit-making organization but rather as a unit of the College of Education which can provide services directly to school personnel at their on-site location in an effective and efficient manner. Contracts which are made with local school systems, therefore, are based on an estimate of actual expenditure needed to accomplish whatever project is being pursued. The kinds of costs that are typically incurred by the Center include consulting fee, materials and supplies, secretarial support expenses, travel and communication expenses, and printing costs.

It is anticipated in the future that the Center for Extended Services will perhaps become more actively involved in the development and coordination of on-site, in-service programs for teaching and administrative personnel. Such coordination, it is anticipated, will be done jointly with departments within the College. In addition, it is anticipated that while the state of Kansas will continue to be regarded as the major service area for the Center, there will be some expansion of effort in surrounding states. Such expanded efforts are particularly anticipated in reference to educational facility studies primarily as a result of the expertise available to the Center in conducting such studies.

A noted humanist at Kansas State University sees a challenge for higher education in service to the elderly and Indians on reservations. He suggests challenging the innate creativity of these people who have, for one reason or another, been cut off from the fabric of society.

the community college: elderly, indians, and education

Joel Climenhaga



A writer of poetry, drama, fiction, prose as well as an actor and director, Joel Climenhaga has an unusual viewpoint for an educator. Currently an associate professor of speech at Kansas State University, Climenhaga has taught writing and drama in high schools and colleges in Pennsylvania, Ohio, North Carolina, Georgia, and Missouri. He serves as adviser to secondary education majors in theatre and speech.

I

Traditionally, community colleges have followed an "open door" policy in admissions. Although this has caused some criticism in certain academic circles, the advantages of such policy to the community-at-large have far outweighed any negative attributes. An untold number of people who never would have achieved educational fulfillment otherwise have been able to do so because of the long-standing tradition followed by community colleges of granting entrance to any graduate of any high school. In other instances, people who have not graduated from high school have been able to pursue an education at a community college because of the fact that they were more than eighteen years of age.

In the opinion of this writer, this is an excellent practice. Education should not be limited in a democratic society. Every man should be allowed to work toward as high an intellectual level of achievement and understanding as possible without regard to past failure or lack of education. The "open door" policy gives opportunity for such to occur.

Nevertheless, there are segments of society which cannot now look forward to much else than intellectual stagnation and subsequent emotional frustration and paralysis. Two such segments are the elderly and the Indians living on reservations. It is true that these two groups are considered by many people, with various programs being devised to meet their needs. Most often, however, the consideration given to old people and Indians on reservations is on much too superficial a level. We devise hobbies and games for them or make it possible to practice crafts, but we do not give serious consideration to the furthering of their education. (This may be caused by the fact that most people somehow envision education as something which is terminal in nature, rather than a continuing process.) What is proposed here is that truly serious consideration be given to the furthering of education for the elderly and Indians on reservations. The comments in this essay are only germinal in nature. Hopefully, someone else will take what is written here in the abstract and apply the concepts in strictly concrete terms. Considering all the problems of financing education, the best place for such a concrete application to occur is within the community college system.

II

My grandfather was born in 1850, dying at the age of ninety-one. He lived his entire life out on the farm where he was born, in Stevensville, Ontario, Canada, a little village twelve miles from Niagara Falls. During the last ten years of his life he was completely blind. All of his life he had worked

hard on his farm. Additionally, he had been exceptionally active mentally. As well as helping initiate the foreign-mission work of his denomination, he had been its treasurer in Canada. After becoming blind there was nothing he could do. Although it was a slow process, saddening to behold, his brain eventually failed him from simple lack of use. When he died at the age of ninety-one he was not even conscious of the fact that he had ever been alive.

On the other hand, my father was blind also during the last eight years of his life. But my father remained alert and completely perceptive intellectually until the very moment he died. The week before he died he attended the second marriage of his eldest son. The morning of the day he died he had written a letter to one of his daughters. What had helped keep my father intellectually alert was the fact that he had learned to touch-type *after he had become blind*. During his last years he wrote many letters to many people. Also, my father had access to books read on phonograph records. He said he believed he had read more books by listening to them after he had become blind than he had actually read during the fifty years before. My father died at the age of eighty-six.

I've often wondered what would have happened if my grandfather had had something he could have done which would have kept him intellectually active during the final ten years of his life? I doubt that he would have gotten into such a state that he would not have been even conscious of the fact that he had ever been alive!

How many other old people are there who are not being challenged intellectually? Perhaps even more important to society, how much "brain power" for mankind in general is being lost because old people are not being challenged enough, are not being given opportunity enough to continue the learning process? There is, after all, a tremendous amount of wisdom on deposit in the minds of old people, from which not even the interest is being drawn by society now. There would be enormous benefit to society itself were there some program initiated which would give old people a continuing goal toward which to work. Think for a moment of the benefit which came to society because of the activity of such men as George Bernard Shaw, Bertrand Russell, and Albert Einstein; more importantly, think of how much each of these men did *after the age of seventy!* I cannot believe any of these men were innately any more intelligent than my grandfather. My grandfather was a very shrewd and inventive man—and there was a lot of brain power went to waste because there was nothing to challenge him during the final ten years of his life.

There have been some motions in the direction of what is being considered here. Certain private universities and at least one state university have instituted programs of study intended specifically for old people. No degrees are involved, which is a lack in the programs. Regardless of the contrary opinion held by many young people today, a degree still remains the prime symbol of education (or, to put it another way, the prime symbol of something completed, a goal achieved) as far as the public is concerned. Also, these programs remain quite limited in the number of people they can reach because of the expense involved. Normal tuition prevails, making such programs too often beyond the financial reach of anyone other than the retired rich. Certain

community centers throughout the country have instituted activity programs for senior citizens. Unfortunately, most often these programs are on the level of the pursuit of some hobby, similar in nature to the shuffleboard contests sponsored by condominiums for the aged, not working toward some specific meaningful goal. Many churches, particularly in the cities, from time to time will have programs for their older members. But these also tend to suffer from the same lack of motivational factor.

It might seem that colleges and universities would be a logical place for some sort of educational program designed specifically for old people to be implemented. However, as has been pointed out, the tuition cost of the average college or university is too much for most older people to pay. It needs to be remembered that most people past the age of sixty-five live on pensions or Social Security payments. What they get is as a matter of statistical fact barely enough to keep meeting the ordinary costs of living. Moreover, many people past the age of sixty-five do not have a high-school education (or, if they do have that much, they do not feel themselves intellectually equipped to meet the "demands" of a college or university program). Community colleges, on the other hand, because of their "open door" policy of admission, do not evoke the "fear" in the minds of entrants that colleges and universities do. Also, community colleges do not have the heavier tuition costs of the four-year and graduate schools. Therefore, what better place is there for the initiation of a goal program for the elderly than the community college? The community colleges now have the distinction of being the most democratically-oriented institutions of higher learning in this country, and are the best equipped to serve the needs of this segment of society.

My proposal, then, is for the community college system to initiate a program for which the only admission requirement is that *the student be sixty years of age or more!* Have within the program courses of study in all the disciplines, but with the greatest emphasis on the humanities and fine arts. Make the total program of a reasonable length, taking into consideration the age of the student—say, two years at a minimum (to follow the current chronological concept of the community college), then progressing to three and four years. Offer degrees upon completion of the programs—a degree the chief distinction of which would be that *only an elderly person can earn it*. Call these degrees what you will. BAW (Bachelor of Age and Wisdom); MAW (Master of Age and Wisdom); DAW (Doctor of Age and Wisdom). If the academicians in the so-called "institutions of higher learning" protest too loudly the conferring of a "Bachelor" or "Master" or "Doctor" degree by a community college, change the name of the degree to something else. In any event, though, *highly publicize the fact the program is for old people only!* As to grades in such a program, such pressure ought to be totally removed. The only requirement in the program—at least, for the conferral of a degree—should be its completion. Perhaps the most important thing in such a program ought to be that its administrators should never be afraid to include among its teachers people over the age of sixty-five!

As Lord Buckley said about Jesus Christ, "You lay it down, Nazz, we'll pick it up!" I've laid it down; it's my hope that

some far-sighted community college administration and faculty will pick it up. I am confident this idea will work. If it were to do nothing else, were such a program as this ever brought into being it would create tremendous excitement.

III

Twenty-five years ago I attended a community college in California. Even before that, in 1939 and 1940, I had gone to a private denominational school which was at that time a combination of an academy and two-year college. I had been only an average high school student. When the time came to go to college, I did not have much interest in it. I soon dropped out, not going back for more than seven years. In the interval, I had worked in a variety of jobs and had been in the Army. When I once again had the interest in going to college, I neither had the money nor the academic record for admission to the state university. But the community college accepted me. From that time on, my educational career properly prospered. In various achievement and aptitude tests I always had received high scores; I had the necessary so-called intellectual equipment to be a student of university caliber, as my subsequent record has indicated. At the beginning, however, and at certain crossroads in my life, I did not have the correct psychological maturity and motivation to pursue successfully the requirements of a college education. When the time came that I did have the proper motivation, it was only a community college which would admit me. I doubt that I would have ever become a university professor if a community college had not given me a chance.

Thinking in parallel terms, how much deeper is an ethnic lack of psychological motivation than that which is sometimes found in an individual? Consider the Indians on reservations. These people have for generations been kept "retarded"—not allowed to be either their cultural selves or to be part of the larger society. Relegated to the role of "tourist attractions," they have not been able to follow even the faintest of glimmerings toward intellectual fulfillment. Now, an entire culture cannot be cut off from the rest of the fabric of society without society itself suffering, too. Today, finally, some opportunities are being presented to Indians on reservations, particularly on the level of advancement of vocational skills. Nevertheless, options for the average Indian on a reservation remain tragically few.

To know how to deal properly with the situation of the Indian on the reservation it must be understood that the Indian's "backwardness" is more than just a simple lack of "book-learning." More importantly, it is a denial of the creative surge in the heart of the Indian. The innate creativity which is in all humans is not allowed to come forth in them, caught as they are within the restrictive influences and controls of their environment. What would happen if someone were truly to encourage them in the belief that they are as "good" and "bright" as everyone else? Suppose, for a moment, that there were in existence a program which went directly to the Indians on reservations and taught them to write, to speak. I don't mean by this to teach them grammar and syntax and spelling and platform manner. All that is form; all that is a matter of "book-learning." What I am suggesting is a program which teaches them to write, to speak, a program which teaches them that what they write

and say is artistically and humanistically and sociologically significant, regardless of the grammar, the syntax, the spelling, the phrasing, the stuttering, the manner. (Let's accept the concepts of Noam Chomsky concerning innate linguistic capability as valid.) Were such a program to exist, society would see a flowering of the Indian consciousness far greater than has yet been dreamed by even the Indians themselves. It is not enough to tell the Indian to come in off his reservation and go to school. That has been done by some. Education should go to the reservation and there set about the task.

Again, because of admission policies and attitudes concerning academic purpose, community colleges are the most completely equipped to do this sort of thing. It is interesting to note the number of community colleges—particularly in the Western states—which are in quite close proximity to Indian reservations. Also, an unusually large number of community colleges now have widespread "extension center" programs as part of their regular curricular offerings. Although extension centers are largely focused on vocational instruction, there would be little, if any, problem in expanding such extension programs to include going to the reservations. Here again, administrators of such a program, as well as faculty members involved, should never be afraid to include on the staff Indians themselves! Also, it should not be grades as such, which would be important in such a program; instead, it should be the lighting of the creative spark.

IV

There are my two brief proposals. Undoubtedly, there are many other proposals of similar nature for other segments of society which can be visualized. Education in a democratic society should be for all the people — old and young, skilled or not, regardless of race, color, or creed.

If we think along these lines, as educators, we will be immensely helping society. Our founding fathers thought in terms of the inalienable right of every citizen to "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." That concept can be paraphrased to secure the right of every citizen to "life, liberty, and the pursuit of intellectual and creative fulfillment." Community colleges can and should be in the vanguard of the development of such programs.

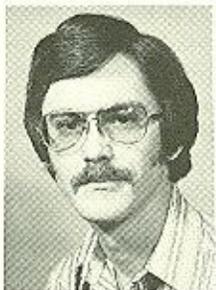
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This review of issues in educational psychology looks at areas of innovation as well as areas of stagnation. The authors challenge researchers to find meaningful information which has utility in the development and improvement of teaching.

trends and issues in educational psychology

James S. Taylor



Larry D. Pound



Robert C. Newhouse



James Taylor is a doctoral candidate in the Department of Administration and Foundations at Kansas State University. His areas of interest are learning theory and applications, measurement and evaluation, and research methods. He is also an instructor of educational psychology at K-State. Previously he was a teacher and counselor in public schools in Missouri. He received his bachelor's and master's degrees from Missouri State University at Maryville.

Instructional improvement and learning theory are of interest to Larry Pound, a doctoral candidate in Curriculum and Instruction at Kansas State University. He is currently a staff member of the KSU Secondary Teacher Education Program, a CBTE program for science, social science, and math students. His degrees include an M.S. from Kansas State University in experimental psychology and a B.A. from Ottawa University, Ottawa, Kansas. He has taught in Kansas public schools and served as assistant director of a Community Action Program in eastern Kansas.

Dr. Newhouse is an assistant professor of Educational Psychology at Kansas State University. His former work was done at Western Michigan University, and at the University of Oregon where he obtained his doctorate. He is currently involved with teacher preparation, approaches to cultural awareness and research methodology.

The intent of this article is not to provide a synopsis of the vast field of educational psychology. Rather, it is hoped this article will inform the reader, stimulate interest, and serve as a catalyst that raises as many questions as it answers. The attempt is to discuss critically, rather than define, some of the major thrusts which have surfaced in recent years. The history of educational psychology has been one of rapid growth and self-improvement. It is this progressive trend which must be maintained if the field is to continue in its present direction. As educational psychology expands and becomes more complex, new and more difficult issues arise which must be dealt with by professionals in the field. Principles of psychology which education adopted only a few years ago have become outdated. The false security of traditional points of view must give way to innovative advances. First, a cursory review of the major areas within the field will be discussed. The important area of learning will then be expanded and dealt with in more detail from the theoretical and, more importantly, a practical standpoint. Finally, some critical suggestions will be provided in an effort to point educational psychologists away from the time-honored customs of general psychology and toward more relevant areas of educational concern and importance.

Mental Hygiene

With the uncertainty of our times, psychological adjustment and mental hygiene have become critical issues within the educational environment. It should be a major responsibility of educators to assist students in their efforts to achieve and maintain psychological well-being. To facilitate this process it is essential educators know and understand the principles of mental hygiene. Sound mental health within the school community contributes greatly to the quality of the instructional program. Psychological adjustment in teachers as well as students enhances the teaching-learning process and enables both to better understand themselves.

The typical child is insatiably curious. However, this does not always remain the case. Too often a few years of formal education turns learning into a painfully unpleasant experience. The children lose their natural inquisitiveness. A label is then created that brands the student as lazy and irresponsible. As if the violation of established psychological principles is not enough, these comments are noted on the students' permanent records. Perhaps teachers have failed to ask themselves some honest questions. Does teaching promote interest and curiosity? Is the learning required of the

students relevant to their needs? Do the students feel a sense of satisfaction or a rush of relief after completing a learning activity? Too often the educational experiences of students seem meaningless and fraught with continual frustration and failure.

When an instructional program fails to meet the needs of the students, disciplinary problems logically ensue. The most common repercussion is punitive action by the teacher. Punishment takes several forms. A firm foundation on the psychological principles of behavioral control is required to recognize those infrequent instances when it is effective. A teacher would be more effective by encouraging desirable behaviors through the use of reinforcements. Most importantly, teachers must realize that they are adult models which the students emulate, and that behavioral self-control is imperative if acceptable student behavior is to be anticipated.

Quite simply, mentally healthy teachers foster mentally healthy students. The prerequisites to this are knowledge of one's self, human behavior, and the principles of mental hygiene. One way to become informed is through the findings of educational and psychological research. It is the responsibility of educators to understand and promote these principles in the classroom.

Measurement and Evaluation

From the teaching-learning process it is possible to obtain vast quantities of observable evidence of pupil maturation, development, and learning. These data are secured through the process of measurement. Once obtained, the data must be meaningfully interpreted. This constitutes a form of evaluation. Together, measurement and evaluation are a vital area within the field of educational psychology. Through measurement and evaluation it is possible to determine the extent to which pupils are achieving specified educational objectives. Assessment then, must revolve around monitoring behavioral changes in students. If testing programs are not established, intuition becomes a major guide to evaluation. Without demonstrable evidence available through evaluation, there is little objective information from which to make meaningful decisions. Indirectly, pupil evaluation serves as a means of teacher self-evaluation. The greatest deterrent to the student's progress is ineffective teaching methods. Instruments which measure pupil strengths and weaknesses will reflect parallel aspects of teacher effectiveness.

There is a wide continuum of attitudes with respect to the efficacy of establishing a testing program. An increasing number of educators are placing confidence in the value of measurement instruments. These educators understand a test's uses, interpretation, and limitations. The increased refinement of these instruments has made the use of tests more worthwhile and informative. Interpretation of test results is a responsibility all competent teachers should assume. In a compromising sense, it is necessary to realize that no test is perfect. There are errors of measurement inherent in all testing instruments. However, with skillful administration and interpretation the results can be a valuable diagnostic aid.

One purpose of education is to produce academic progress

in students. To determine and improve upon the relative merits of the overall instructional process, formal evaluation of the behaviors of pupils must take place. It is hoped that the efforts of educational psychologists to advance measurement and evaluation will inspire teachers, counselors, and administrators to gain a working knowledge of the area.

Readiness

Another primary area of educational psychology is readiness. Readiness refers to the time when learning can be accomplished with maximum efficiency. The concept had its origins in motor learning. It pertains to the time when physiological development has reached an optimal level for the learning of a given motor task, such as walking. It is now assumed by many that the same concept can be applied to cognitive learning. The familiar operation levels of Piaget (1961) are examples of readiness at the cognitive level.

Readiness seems to be primarily dependent upon two factors, 1) maturation, and 2) experience. Before learning can occur, it appears that a certain amount of maturation must be achieved. Evidence relating to motor skills indicates that practice of a task is ineffective if a minimal developmental state has not been reached (Piaget, 1961). Once the necessary developmental level has been reached, however, practice is effective. There is also evidence (Piaget, 1961) that learning delayed too long after the onset of readiness is less effective than learning at the proper time. This evidence further indicates that if experience and practice are delayed for an extended period, at least some skills can never be fully developed.

As readiness is so important, a key issue in education should be the appraisal of readiness for various tasks and levels in a systematic and comprehensive manner. This should involve planning of learning activities relative to the readiness of the student. If the learning activity is too early or too late it is ineffective, hence timing becomes a critical factor for educators to consider.

Intelligence

The main focus of formal educational assessment has been on intelligence testing. Since Binet (1909) made the first crude determinations of "intelligence," there has been a great deal of emphasis on attempting to assess the "native ability" of individuals for both research and educational purposes. Intelligence has been viewed as a global phenomenon, divisible into a number of factors; e.g., the "G" factor (Spearman, 1927), or as an incredibly complex structure; e.g., Guilford's (1954) "Structure of Intellect." Many years have gone into assessing intelligence and attempting to come to some understanding of the concept. With the advent of intelligence testing in educational settings, there arose a host of educational evils. In many cases, an I.Q. has come to represent a student to teachers and counselors. Groupings of students based primarily upon I.Q. are not uncommon. Improper interpretation of the results of an I.Q. test is very common. Frequently, teachers and others classify irrevocably on the basis of an I.Q. score. Those who are truly knowledgeable about testing recognize that at best an I.Q. score is only an approximation of intellectual ability. Since

the I.Q. test is, in essence, only an achievement test, those with limited experiential backgrounds are severely handicapped in taking them. As the tests are culturally biased, almost all except the white middle class student is at a disadvantage. The test that truly assesses intellectual potential is a myth perpetrated by ignorance. The educational heritage of classifying students on the basis of I.Q. and the free dissemination of I.Q. scores to teachers is a disservice to the student and the educational institution. Yet, removing this assessment technique would seem to place the educator in a relatively weak position for making decisions about the needs and abilities of students. A logical solution is to begin efforts to assess readiness for a given learning task and plan on the basis of that readiness. Experiential programs can be implemented to make up deficiencies in given areas, thereby allowing the students to be realistically classified according to their skills and background.

Learning

A fifth and extremely significant area of educational psychology is learning. Because of its scope, it is appropriate to first discuss the two major philosophical camps of learning, their resultant theoretical stances, and their practical significance to the educator.

Since educational psychology is an outgrowth of the more general discipline of psychology, many of the same philosophical and theoretical divisions are present in both. The two major divisions are represented by the humanistic and the behavioristic approaches to learning.

A key difference in these approaches lies in the way man is perceived as responding to his environment. To the behaviorist, responding to the environment is the product of two factors: 1) the stimulus situation at the time, and 2) the reinforcement history of the organism. If the reinforcement history of the organism and the stimulus complex in which the organism is currently embedded are known, prediction of behavior is possible. To control behavior, one needs to control contingencies. To ensure that learning occurs, reinforcement should be arranged so that desired behaviors are encouraged and undesired behaviors go unrewarded.

To the humanist, this view of man is too mechanistic and limited in scope. The humanist perceives man as a growing, flowering creature. To achieve maximal growth, it is necessary to understand the nature of man and to structure the environment so as to allow the developmental processes to proceed. Self-actualization and learning are the results of properly guided experiences and circumstances. The innate tendency for growth in man and his interaction with the environment provide the bases for all learning and development. Man reacts to his world as he perceives it to be, not, as the behaviorist would say, in accordance with the dictates of the stimulus situation. Man's experiences are organized and patterned. It is this organizing and patterning that provides meaning. To correctly understand behavior, the complex of experience must be understood. In a given stimulus situation, the reaction of an individual is in relationship to his experience and not in reaction to the stimulus itself. The stimulus interacts with the organization of experiences, thus providing the basis for reaction.

Learning is the same as the development of all responses to

the environment. Learning requires the incorporation of ideas and experiences into some organized structure. This structuring may be accomplished in several ways. For example, Bruner (1966) is a strong advocate of learning by discovery. This approach has the student guiding his own learning. He learns through his experiences. In this way, learning (in an educational sense) is accomplished in basically the same way that learning occurs in everyday life. New information and experiences are incorporated into the experiential complex.

Another point of view is represented by Ausubel (1968). He criticizes the discovery learning approach, claiming that it is a very time-consuming and nonadvantageous method. He proposed the use of "advanced organizers" to prepare the student to incorporate new ideas into his conceptual framework. In both cases, however, the key to learning is to establish some organization of individual data bits into a conceptual framework. According to Wertheimer (1959) this is where the behavioristic approaches fall down. These techniques teach bits and pieces, failing to supply the conceptual framework necessary for understanding. The organization of concepts is the key to learning. The structuring of learning is more than simply getting the student to memorize bits of information. It involves incorporating this information into existing schemata. This may be accomplished in a number of ways. Each individual learns best in his own way, so the same type of learning situation is not effective for all. Part of the task of the educator is to guide the learner in forming perceptions into meaningful relationships, potentially requiring an individualized program.

To the behaviorist, man is a product of an environment that shapes him through selective reinforcement. The behaviors that are reinforced are those that are likely to be repeated. The control of behavior can be arranged by controlling reinforcement contingencies. Any type of abstract, philosophical rationale for behavior is unnecessary and probably misleading. The only scientific approach to learning and behavior is through objectively verifiable fact. There may be "mentalistic" processes that operate during learning and behavior, but they are subjective and not amenable to empirical verification.

Based upon research findings, Skinner (1953) introduced a teaching technique known as programmed learning. Acquisition can be assured by following a number of sequential steps. First, it is necessary to actively involve the learner. This is accomplished in programmed learning by requiring the learner to write out his answers (as opposed to a more passive procedure such as selecting one of a given set of alternatives). Second, modified forms of the same item are given repeatedly. This performs the function that drill once assumed in education. Third, the item is varied slightly from presentation to presentation so that the learner sees it in different contexts. Fourth, the learning occurs in small steps that virtually guarantee the learner will be correct in his responses. The advantage in this approach is that there is little failure experienced by the learner and he is less likely to form incorrect associations. Fifth, immediate feedback is given to the learner. When the learner is correct, Skinner (1953) assumes that knowledge of results is reinforcing. Not

only is reinforcement immediate, but it is frequent. Skinner perceives this as one of the strong points of programmed learning. According to Skinner (1953), the classroom teacher is simply incapable of providing the tremendous number of reinforcements necessary for each student in his/her class. The teaching machine assumes that responsibility for the teacher. Finally, complex learning is made up of a step-by-step build-up from simpler items. To learn this type of material, one starts at an elementary level and builds to a more and more difficult one.

In summary, it can be seen that human learning, to the behaviorist, is similar in nature to the learning of infrahuman organisms. The principles observed in the laboratory can be directly applied to education. It is unnecessary and undesirable to postulate complex cognitive processes to account for human learning. The obvious strength of such an approach is its reliance on observable and quantifiable behaviors.

In a theoretical sense, then, a clear distinction exists between humanism and behaviorism. From the teacher's standpoint the operational interpretation of these theories becomes less well defined. The transition from textbook to classroom blurs the difference between these approaches.

As any teacher can attest, no single theory can serve to answer all of the complex questions inherent in the learning process. It therefore becomes the responsibility of educational psychology to translate these many theoretical principles into operations which can be employed by teachers. Research in educational psychology confirms what the effective teacher already knows: the best learning principle to use in a given situation is the one that works most satisfactorily, regardless of theoretical origin. When faced with the realities of the classroom, one must replace his allegiance to a particular theory with the realization that the complex nature of learning can only be dealt with effectively through an eclectic approach.

Education is not limited to cognitive-field theory and discovery learning, or to reinforcement theory and programmed learning. All can be highly effective. More importantly, there exists a continuum of approaches between these extremes. The teacher must be capable of adapting. One cannot be truly effective if limited to one or two methods of teaching. The more flexible the repertoire of instructional approaches, the more compatible the teaching will be with the needs of the students. This freedom of movement involves more than being able to change completely from the strict interpretation of one approach to that of another. An eclectic teacher is, in a sense, using his/her own theory; one which changes fluidly with the demands of the situation.

Many highly effective teaching methods can be classified as descendants of both humanism and behaviorism. Across theories, some seemingly opposing constructs have considerable similarity when applied. For example, the importance of past experiences in determining present behavior is universally recognized. To the reinforcement theorist, past experiences involve the conditioning of the organism by his external environment. This acquisition of conditioned behaviors constitutes the person's reinforcement history. To the cognitive-field theorist, experiences are acquired as a

result of a purposive, self-directed person interacting meaningfully with his environment. The thrust of the former theory is toward the dominant role of the environment, while the emphasis of the latter theory focuses upon the person. What one admits as evidence of learning, the other clearly rejects; e.g., Skinner would totally reject the assumption that internalized needs and values played any meaningful role in the learning process. Although these theories differ in the paths they choose to follow in explaining learning, in the final analysis they are addressing themselves to essentially the same developmental process. It is these more important underlying common denominators which must be brought to the attention of classroom teachers. Whether a student is self-motivated or encouraged through external reinforcement, the result is active involvement in the learning process. The teacher's task is to be able to recognize and implement the proper strategy for each student in a given situation. The point is simply that learning becomes more efficient and effective for the teacher who has a working knowledge of many theoretical points of view. Clearly, this necessitates a broad understanding of the principles of learning. If this knowledge is to have utility, educational psychology must act as the liaison which translates the conceptual abstractions of theory into the meaningful operations needed by the teacher.

An example of an eclectic program is the currently popular performance/competency-based education movement. In a philosophical sense, P/CBE is more closely allied to the humanistic school, but as an educational practice, it draws from both humanism and behaviorism.

From the humanistic school of thought, several ideas have been incorporated into P/CBE. For one, the students are actively involved in planning and organizing the direction of their learning experiences. Alternative modes of learning are available to students. This is an attempt to insure at least one learning route that each student can use effectively. In addition, a high degree of teacher/student interaction is encouraged. This facilitates affective development and provides a positive learning situation.

From the behavioristic school of thought, P/CBE has also drawn several guiding principles. First, an attempt is made to provide feedback to the student more quickly than in a traditional program. A high degree of positive reinforcement is used to maintain student interest and effort. The learning approach in P/CBE is virtually non-failure, since a student can keep attempting a unit of study until he successfully completes it. Successful completion of a unit is based upon a criterion referencing system, not upon competition within the group. Finally, the teacher's expectations are made clear to the student via behavioral objectives.

Although P/CBE has not met with universal approval, it does appear to be an effective approach to the teaching-learning situation. In large part that success is due to the willingness of those involved to draw from both humanism and behaviorism in establishing their program. With further assistance from educational psychologists, P/CBE should be able in the future to more fully define and explicate the philosophical and theoretical underpinnings which constitute its foundation.

Educational psychology must become involved in efforts

to foster a clearer understanding of the overall value of eclecticism. This, however, is not enough. Educational psychology must also develop specific methods of study which result in educationally relevant information that is not subject to risky generalizations. It would, however, be remiss to exclude mention of the fact that education as a whole must also take strides to conduct research which maintains adequate standards of internal validity. The artificial sterility of laboratory studies and the vague misinterpretations of field inquiries must be integrated in order to gain maximum benefits. The goal of educational research is to find meaningful information which has utility in furthering the development of teaching. The means must accommodate the goal.

It is hoped that this discussion has touched upon some of the advances in educational psychology as well as its areas of stagnation. Trends within the field are proving to be highly productive, but the issues which remain unresolved reflect the need for further growth and realignment of thought. If educational psychology is to become a well-grounded entity

within the field of education, it must become its own source of knowledge. The benefits of psychology, in general, are innumerable, but to effectively deal with educational issues, educational psychology must stand alone.

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commentary:

managers must lead

"As goes the superintendent, so goes the school." There is a good deal of truth in this adage; yet critics of the superintendency argue that teachers control the direction of education through their power position at the bargaining table, while others believe it's the board of education which effects school direction through its policy-making function. Still others are convinced that parents—taxpayers—control education by virtue of their ultimate power over the school board through the ballot box. True enough, perhaps on all three dimensions. Yet the fact remains that it is the superintendent of schools who *must* provide instructional leadership if teachers are to be effective in negotiations; it is the superintendent who *must* recommend policy for board of education adoption; and it is the superintendent who *must* be the principal interpreter of the schools to the taxpaying public. Simply stated, the superintendent is a manager, and MANAGERS MUST LEAD.

The singular question then becomes one of how best to train a superintendent of schools to become an effective manager of education. I believe it is incumbent upon universities throughout Kansas and throughout America to teach potential school administrators the techniques of managerial leadership in education.

Where does it begin? First, with a solid philosophical and historical base. It is a poor educational executive indeed who doesn't understand the history and great philosophies of the operation he or she is required to manage. Secondly, the administrator trainee simply must possess a thorough knowledge of the everyday activities of expertly coordinating the functions of a school system—facilities, law, personnel, finance, public relations and human engineering. Thirdly, the educational manager is required by the very nature of his or her responsibility to be abundantly aware of the theoretical framework shrouding school administration and the techniques for initiating and managing change in education. Finally, experience is a requirement, experience in managing small tasks which leads to skill in managing large tasks, the education of America's greatest resource—its people.

G. Kent Stewart, *Educational Administration*, Kansas State University

The Center for Environmental Teaching at Kansas State University provides a link between the public schools and university resources in the area of environmental study.

center for environmental teaching: a service to schools

Robert James



Science environmental education is the primary concern of Bob James, associate professor in Curriculum and Instruction at Kansas State University. He has taught science in high schools in Missouri and Iowa. He received his Ph.D. from the University of Iowa; his M.A. from the University of Northern Iowa and his B.S. from Northwest Missouri State University.

Institutions of higher education across the country are struggling to find a role to assist in the solution of problems related to the environment. A broad spectrum of attempts have been made varying from the institution of a College of Ecology; the establishment of an undergraduate environmental science program, with or without teacher certification; the organization of a cadre of undergraduate student activists; to the formation of some type of curriculum materials center. Unfortunately, most of these efforts lack a direct contact with one of the objects of their efforts, that is, the public. The College of Education at Kansas State University has inaugurated the Center for Environmental Teaching (CET) in an effort to provide for a direct link between the public schools and the University community. CET focuses on the implementation of a variety of environmental education programs in the public schools.

The relationship between the university community and the K-12 schools has available to it a wide variety of resources. These include student-organized activist and interest groups, environmental education curriculum materials, the basic support necessary to conduct inservice and community education, a tremendous spectrum of resource people, and library facilities which can provide a rich foundation in basic science as well as serve as a loan agency for materials to be tested. Two local agencies on the Kansas State University campus and in the Manhattan community (the Manhattan Advisory Council on Environmental Education) have worked diligently to compile a list of these resources. The amount of resources available free of charge is surprising.

A basic aspect of the establishment of such a center is the development of guidelines not only for the direction of the center but for assisting the schools in developing their own programs. The guidelines regarding curriculum implementation of the KSU Center for Environmental Teaching are as follows:

1. Environmental Education in the K-12 schools should not be an additional course, unit, or period, to be added to an already cramped public school curriculum. It should be thought of as a basic integrating thread linking all content areas and relating those content areas to each other.
2. Although ecology as a discipline provides basic understanding of the interactive nature of biological environments, environmental education should not be thought of as ecology per se.

3. Environmental education curriculum developments in the public schools must recognize the basic resource limits characteristic of the public school budgets and curriculum. Therefore, programs which are adopted can best be implemented when their budgetary demands are small.
4. Effective environmental education programs must take into account all that is known about the nature of curriculum change, teaching and learning theories, the basic underlying concepts of environmental science, and the inherent threads which can link the discipline. This will require a serious effort of inservice training for practicing teachers and appropriate background for preservice teachers.
5. Any program in environmental education should be aimed at an awareness on the part of each student that his environment does not exist apart from him. In short, "You Are an Environment."¹
6. Environmental education in any local school district should be community-centered, i.e. built around community resources, personnel and problems.
7. It is suggested that local environmental education advisory boards be established to support school programs. They should be made up of community and school personnel willing to help the school program. The school program should be thought of as part of the community education effort.²
8. Public school administrators and supervisors, school boards—in short school decision makers—must be informed on the needs of their community for an environmental education program.
9. Environmental education should be justified on the basis of the needs of society to solve the environmental problems which confront man.

In its effort to encourage the implementation of effective environmental education programs the KSU Center for Environmental Teaching has developed, and continues to seek to develop, a broad spectrum of activities to enrich this relationship. Each quarter the Center publishes a newsletter—the CET News. This newsletter is the primary channel of communication between CET and teachers and administrators. Regular items include, "Environmental Issues in the State of Kansas," a commentary on current items of interest to environmentally aware citizens; interviews with KSU staff and faculty who have demonstrated a potential to have a message of interest to the public schools and who can provide some kind of resource to those schools; a section on news items of events and opportunities for learning, whether conferences, teachers' meetings, camps, or whatever; and a section on "Tips to Teachers on Environmental Education Teaching Techniques." An effort is made to garner ideas from the teachers themselves. In addition, a regular section is given over to publishing additions to the KSU Environmental Education Curriculum Materials Center.

Another activity carried out by CET is an annual environmental education conference. This meeting, first initiated in 1972, provides, in a one-day format, an open and direct forum between KSU personnel, resource people around the state, and K-12 teachers and administrators. A

broad spectrum of activities and topics are covered in a one-day meeting. The primary objective of these sessions is awareness of environmental problems and of potential roles of the schools in developing programs aimed at helping to resolve our environmental difficulties. In addition to resource personnel from the University, public school personnel with a particular interest, talent, or teaching technique are invited to participate. Regional and National leaders are invited to speak. Local community agencies such as governmental conservation agencies, Extension Departments, League of Women Voters, and others are encouraged to make presentations, prepare displays, etc. A second basic objective of these conferences is to familiarize teachers and administrators with the resources available to them in the local community. In general, speakers are asked to donate their services. This reduces considerably the potential to draw "big names" but at the same time impresses school districts that programs can be developed around local resources and local personnel.

Another important phase of CET function is the assimilation, evaluation and dissemination of previously prepared curriculum materials. The KSU-CET is particularly fortunate to have a vital relationship with the Farrell Library Environmental Education Curriculum Materials Center. They handle procurement and dissemination and make these materials available to us and to the schools for their use.

Another major function of CET is its commitment to research in the area of environmental education. During the 1973-74 school year, Dr. Jerry Jinks, Associate Professor of Environmental Education, Eastern Montana State College, Billings, Montana, developed an interdisciplinary Model of Environmental Education.³

During the 1974-75 academic year the CET Director, Dr. Robert K. James and Mr. George Potts are directing a major research project in an attempt to determine the status and needs of environmental education in the state of Kansas. This research is made possible through a small grant from the KSU bureau of research.

Ideas we hope to implement in the future include: significant flexibility in establishing inservice programs of short or long duration in local school settings; consultants' service coordinated through the Center for Environmental Teaching; a board of directors made up of a variety of university personnel and public school people; the seeking of funds from outside agencies in order to carry on more effectively the program of the Center for Environmental Teaching; and the preparation and dissemination of materials developed in connection with CET.

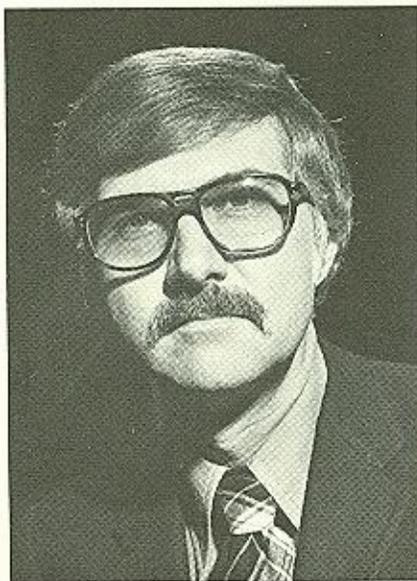
FOOTNOTES

1. Noel McClinnis, *You Are An Environment*. (Evanston, Ill.: The Center for Curriculum Design, 1972)
2. D. Bennett, "The Environmental Education Committee." (Yarmouth, Maine: Maine Environmental Education Project, 1972)
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Student-centered teaching techniques were used with a group of English teachers to develop interaction. The objective was to make the teaching and learning of English more palatable, more fun, and more exciting.

teaching english humanely: an experiment in interaction in english teacher preparation

Richard G. Hause



Creativity in education, educational sociology, and English methods are the specialties of Richard Hause, associate professor in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction at Kansas State University. He has also been a high school English teacher, counselor, curriculum coordinator, and supervisor of personnel in the Bakersfield, California, school district. He received his Ed.D. from the University of Colorado and his M.A. and B.A. from the University of Northern Colorado.

An anonymous writer theorized: "More people suffer from hardening of the attitudes than from hardening of the arteries. Their minds are made up, their opinions are fixed." Such is the case of many English teachers and some of them have not been teaching very long! I am a professor of English education and am very concerned with the needed competencies of English teachers. It was with this concern in mind that I established a summer workshop at Kansas State University for teachers of English. English teachers from kindergarten through higher education were invited to enroll in a three-week workshop from 8 to 12 every morning. There were two elementary teachers; several high school teachers from small rural, large suburban, and urban schools; and two teachers in higher education. The enrollment was purposely held at or below fifteen. The course description that appeared in the catalog read: "The changing scene in the teaching of English: trends, materials, and ideas in literature, composition, and grammar that have emerged from recent research and discovery."

My major objective was to encourage these teachers to interact with me, interact with each other, and subsequently interact with their fellow teachers and students in such a way that the teaching and learning of English could become more palatable, more fun, more exciting. If this major objective could be attained, more worthwhile, creative thinking and learning could take place.

My methods for attaining this objective were not new nor were they unorthodox. They were different in that they were student-centered or in this situation English-teacher-centered. Every attempt was made to get the participants acquainted with each other without the stickiness of sensitivity groups; every participant was made to feel a real sense of his or her own importance to the group and to the teaching of English; every member of the workshop worked with a smaller group but was also afforded an opportunity to "be selfish; do your own thing!"

The first activity the first day was to learn each person's name and pronounce it correctly. The participants sat in a circle and one person gave his name clearly and distinctly. Each participant in turn gave his own name and the names of all who had given names before him. In this manner the first and last names of fifteen or more people were learned by everyone in less than ten minutes. After the names of all were clear, the members were encouraged to call each other by first names as often as possible inside and outside the workshop. In the next activity each member was asked to tell

something about himself that no one would ever guess from just looking. This was not used to force them to reveal personal data but rather to give the rest of the group something to attach to the names they had just learned. Practically speaking, a classroom teacher can gain much information from this source. It would help a teacher to know for instance that one of her pupils was the oldest (or youngest, middle) child of nine or that one of her pupils had traveled extensively as the child of a career Army man. (It gave me additional insight into my "students" when one stated that she drove racing cars for her husband and another wrote love stories for slick magazines!)

Because the participants were acquainted from the start, the first discussion was much more lively; we talked in conversational tones; we talked freely about the teaching of English and the major problems faced in English classrooms. They identified some of their reasons for enrolling in the course. The majority of them felt insecure about teaching some phase of English, ranging from grammar to literature to composition to reasoning and thinking. As the "conversation" continued they began to identify with others in the group with similar problems. As these groups began to form they were encouraged to break off from the large group in order to continue their discussion in more depth. At the end of the second day five groups had been identified. The five groups concerned themselves with the major areas identified by Lazarus and Knudsen in *Selected Objectives for the Teaching of English, Grade Seven Through Twelve*: reading, listening, reasoning, speaking, and writing. It was decided by the participants that each group would meet every morning for the first part of the session; they would delineate their task; they would do research in the library using especially the NCTE/ERIC materials; they would determine a course of action for relating their findings to the rest of the participants; and they would make a presentation to the class that was totally different from any class presentation they had ever presented or had ever seen presented. Creative thinking and endeavor were encouraged.

As the workshop continued, the participants became more responsive to the student-centered teaching methods. The instructor served as a catalyst and at times as an arbiter as the group work continued. The groups met each morning for an hour and one-half and then all of the participants took a coffee break. The coffee shop was about four blocks from the meeting room and all the teachers walked over together. The conversations from the small groups continued during the coffee break. There were times of argument; there were times of agreement; there were times of enlightenment. The coffee breaks often took thirty to forty minutes, but these were times spent in sharing ideas and learning from each other. After the break, we met in a large group for activities related to the teaching of English. During one session, each person told what books he was reading (not all of them related to the teaching of English). Each person told of the books he would like to read; I jotted down the names of the books mentioned and passed out a mimeographed copy to them the following day. In one good session the participants told what character they would like to play in a movie, a play, or a television production. This activity gave added insight into the real character of the persons within the group. An additional

device to encourage interactions was for the group to determine what role or roles they felt each person ought to play. Through this activity, we enhanced interaction and inadvertently discussed the plays, movies, and television productions they preferred, taught, studied, or enjoyed.

Not all of the activities were oral. One session was concerned with writing and listening. I played some current rock music and asked them to write their impressions. These writings were included in the diaries they kept during the workshop. At the end of each week, I read the diaries and wrote notes to each participant concerning the writing, not the content. The diaries were yet another attempt to get English teachers involved in the things they asked their students to do but seldom did themselves. (A majority of the participants admitted that they had not done any writing for pleasure or profit during the past school year!) The writing activities spun off into a lively discussion of current music and its appropriate place in the teaching of English. One teacher asked plaintively, "How can you teach something you don't understand?" Another teacher replied, "The same way your kids learn something they don't understand; you've got to listen carefully and put the idea together. You've also got to want to listen and put the ideas together. Don't do this in the classroom unless you've convinced yourself that it's important. The kids will spot you as a phony right away!" A lengthy discussion of today's kids and their interests followed. Some of the participants and the instructor had teenagers at home and added credibility to comments being made.

Games were discussed and/or played in connection with the reasoning dimension of the workshop. The participants found that many games were adaptable to the English classroom. Student interaction was the major objective in the use of games. In one game, two students left the room; the remainder of the students decided on a local, national, or international figure they would attempt to describe in order for the couple to guess the personage. The couple returned to the room and attempted to learn the identity by asking questions such as: "If this person were a flower, what flower would he be?" Or "If this person were a piece of furniture, what piece would he be?" The idea of the game is to set up situations so that the participants think in ever widening perspectives of the descriptions of people. There are commercial games that aid in student-teacher interactions. One favorite among young people is Star Power. This game uses social groups to enhance creative thinking.

Another session on reasoning dealt with the physical conditions of the classroom and what could be done to set moods and atmospheres for desired effects in the room. The group noted the wealth of posters available and actually constructed some of their own, incorporating collages in their work. The use of music in the classroom was evaluated. One group set up an experiment for the other participants in which they "bombarded the senses" with some ideas gained from reading Marshall MacLuhan's books. They darkened the stage area of the auditorium. Each student was given a small piece of candy to suck; then he was walked through an area where incense was burning; rock music was playing; color slides were flashing on a screen; great splashes of color were

Continued on page 36

Dr. Clark asks what are the essential attributes of the teaching-learning situation. His model identifies the factors and, even more importantly, illustrates the relationship between the two concepts.

modeling relationships in instruction

Earl D. Clark



After teaching in the Detroit public schools for ten years, Earl Clark took his Ed.D. at Wayne State University, majoring in teacher education and curriculum development. His continued interest in the synthesis of these two areas has led him to write and research in the areas of teacher education curriculum and student teaching. Dr. Clark has taught as an instructor at Wayne State University and has been on the faculty of the University of Missouri — St. Louis, Dakota State College, and is presently an associate professor in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction at Kansas State University where he teaches courses with a curriculum emphasis in language arts for elementary school teachers at the graduate and undergraduate level.

While working on my master's degree in education I became intrigued with an apparently simple educational concept. Without knowing it at the time, more than ten years ago, I had begun a quest into one way to explain some basic concepts in competency/performance education.

I became interested in the meaning of the concept, "The Teaching-Learning Situation." But even more astonishing, the hyphen itself became the focus of my questioning and study. My questions concerned the relationships of teaching and learning implied by the hyphen. I asked practicing teachers in my graduate classes and in my own school in what ways teaching was related to or connected with learning.

It was rather amazing the types of answers I received; the answers varied from "get lost, I am too busy teaching to waste my time with such silly questions about teaching," to lunch-time long arguments in which my lunch bunch released their teaching tensions yelling at each other about aspects of teaching. It was surprising how many arguments a week I could get going without becoming too much of a bore.

These arguments on the connection of teaching and learning were helpful and gave me many leads in my epistemological quest but answers were rather vague and in wooly-mouthed jargon. At the time, I acted like a graduate-student-in-training ought to act. I wanted specific answers on how teaching and learning were related. Teaching is to make "kids learn," or "teaching is learning," did not seem a sophisticated explanation for someone making their living at a professional level.

The discovery that reasonable definitions (like K.B. Henderson's "Teaching consists of behavior intended to result in the acquiring of knowledge by students.") were a good start but were really a very low level of knowledge and were difficult to translate into practice, led me to consider the value of conceptualization; the consideration of conceptualization was really the result of realizing that the use of words in definitions is an attempt to name the essential attributes of concepts. And a conceptual approach gives more freedom to an individual to manipulate factors in a situation because no value structure is implied in establishing attributes of a concept.

I began to see that in looking at the teaching-learning situation I had to get at the generic, essential attributes or factors that made up the two concepts, teaching and learning. In the context of the massive sponsored research on teaching, this seemed rather presumptuous. I now realize

that encouraging graduate students in education to seek solutions to basic, generic problems is not only an end-in-itself, it is also a means because analyses skills developed and the "spin off" studies that are related to basic concepts are numerable and profitable.

Concept of Method

To conceptualize a relationship, I learned I had to have a more generic concept than either teaching or learning. To show that they were related or show the existence of no relationship, the concepts needed to be looked at and modeled using the same ground rules for both concepts. I hit upon the concept of method, not methodologies that were examples of method, but the generic concept itself.

Method, as a concept, as loosely as it used in education circles, refers to four basic attributes of intelligently attempting to reach a goal. Note that if any educational enterprise is intelligent, it can be analyzed and talked about by using the generic attributes of method. If it can not be put into orderly form using the concept of method, then it can not be an intelligent process. My understanding of the basic concept of method was one of the "spin off" competencies added during my inquiry into the teaching-learning concept.

The first attribute in method is the establishing of an objective. All intellect acts (we prefer "intellect" because it would include all forms of methodic functioning i.e. cognitive, affective and psycho-motor processes) are cases of going toward a pre-set end-in-view. There can be accidental adding of knowledge to a person's store of intellect, but we can't say that it was methodic. It may be good but not methodically acquired.

To be methodic one must reflect on future events or results. In other words, for teachers to plan methodically for the learning activities of their students, they must have a clearly delineated objective, and teacher and student acts must be related to the objective. This basic concept in competency/performance education is a psychological principle that has been written about for decades. Thus, to consider objectives, to consider acts and to consider that there must be a relationship between acts and ends is to have considered three aspects of method.

To engage in acts in order to realize an end-in-view without some sort of content is really impossible. In the same manner, it is rather difficult to discuss content without putting it in a context of some useful purpose.

A teacher can unmethodically guide students toward a goal. To be methodic the teacher must consider the connection between the acts, content and end-in-view. These are the four, not three, attributes of the concept of method.

Modeling

Without knowing it at the time I was establishing the basis for understanding the competency/performance approach to designing learning programs. At about the same time I found that representing the attributes of a concept pictorially or model form was not only easy, it was sometimes fun because it facilitated understanding. I created a very simple analog model of method which I have used to create a model of teaching and learning.

Note that the analog model pictures a connection between acts, content and ends-in-view. This would apply to a lesson

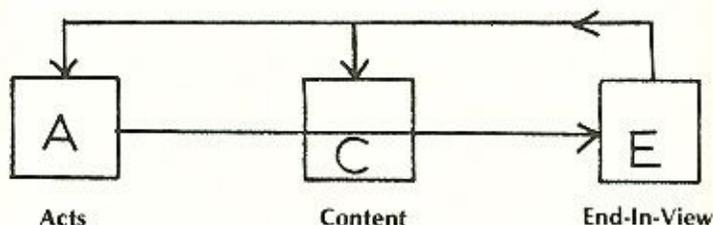


Figure 1. Analog Model of Concept of Method.

plan or an entire learning program. Note too, that the end-in-view feeds back to both acts and content for purposes of adjustment while making progress toward the end.

Connections of Teaching and Learning

We can translate the concept of method into a large model that helps explain why aspects of competency/performance philosophy make good pedagogical sense.

In a quest to find the connections between teaching and learning I developed a model of instruction which pictures the connections for which I was looking. The attributes of method can be translated into attributes of teaching and learning if we make one basic assumption; teaching and learning are methodic processes. If we accept this assumption, we can say that teaching can be conceptualized as teaching acts, teaching content, and teaching ends-in-view. Learning can be conceptualized as learning acts, learning content and learning ends-in-view. These simple conceptualizations reveal no startling new information to hardly anybody. They become helpful when we start connecting the concepts to form a larger model as pictured in Fig. 2.

"What is the purpose of teaching?" became my next lunch-room bomb. (It is true that teachers will get away from talking about kids at lunch if given a favorable psychological context). The transmission of knowledge answer came up but was rejected for psychological reasons because of the very nature of coming to know. Language can be transferred but not the concepts that the language represents. These types of discussions caused a great deal of cognitive dissonance in some teachers but we agreed that "teaching," as a specific, pedagogical term could only refer to language behavior and later we changed this to symbolic acts to include verbal and non-verbal acts.

Learning is an individual affair and can only be done by the person doing the learning. We agreed that the purpose of teaching was to encourage students to become involved in learning activities or student acts. This is one relationship between teaching and learning. The end of teaching is identical with the beginning of learning. In putting together a concept model of the connections of teaching and learning, the attributes of teaching ends and learning or students acts would have to go into the same slot. (Fig. 2) My first connection in modeling the relationships of teaching and learning required teachers to be designers of learning programs, not transmitters of knowledge. This role is basic to competency/performance education programs.

The second connection came from another question which is quite an old one. What is the difference between teaching and talking? This is an interesting pedagogical problem which

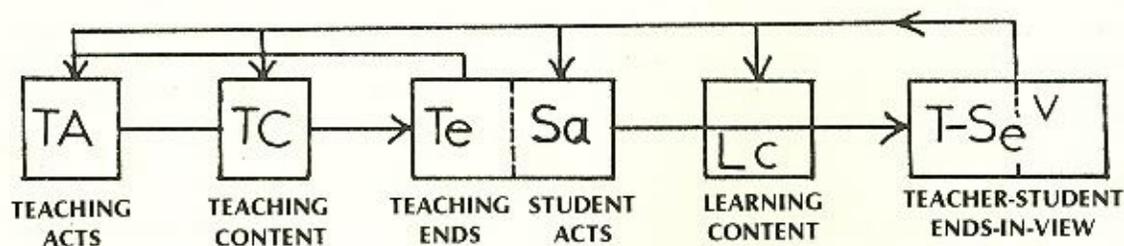


Figure 2. Attributes of Teaching and Learning and Suggested Relationships.

can be related to the competency/performance philosophy. To fully understand the answer and how it relates to competency/performance we must carry through and construct the concept model of the relationship of teaching and learning.

We can only delineate between talking and talking as teaching when the person as teacher has established an objective with the receiver of teaching acts. In other words there must be a teacher-student end-in-view. This synthesizes teaching and learning into one methodic whole which we call instruction. Consider these points:

1. There is an explicit understanding on the teacher's part as to the end-in-view. This structures his teaching acts, teaching content and sets up the nature of the student acts. Random conversation is not teaching. Neither is talking to a group about an area without having a pre-determined end-in-view shared with the group.
2. In keeping with the nature of methodic or intelligent learning acts, the student can not engage intelligently in learning activities unless there has been established a pre-determined end-in-view. This is good pedagogy and good learning theory.
3. What has come increasingly apparent to me is a growing sophistication on the part of the teachers and students concerning the value, relative to contemporary culture, of the knowledge or objectives being learned into today's curriculum. For this reason there must be greater decision making on the part of teachers in developing sequences of

objectives as to whether they can communicate the worth or value of the objectives they encourage their students to seek. For this reason, in another version of the model presented, I have translated the teacher-student end-in-view into T-Se^v. This symbolizes the concept that the commonly held ends-in-view of a curriculum must have an exponent of value.

These are the two major areas of intersection of teaching and learning and they are an integral part of the emphasis in a competency/performance education philosophy. Teachers are encouraged to plan learning activities and allow student freedom to learn effectively. Also modeled is the connection between teaching and learning which makes the student and teacher one methodic working unit by establishing a common, communicated end-in-view. Of course, what I really ended up with was more than a model of the intersections of teaching and learning. With the addition of two aspects emphasized by my teacher, the late Ole Sand, in his curriculum courses, that of *assessment* in a non-value judgement context at the beginning of instruction and *evaluation* to see how close students came to realizing the end-in-view, I had created a simple analog model of the essential components to consider when thinking of the total classroom instructional situation. Without knowing it, the model was the beginning of my ability to understand many aspects of competency/performance education. Competency/performance education is not new; professional educators have been working on it for a long time.

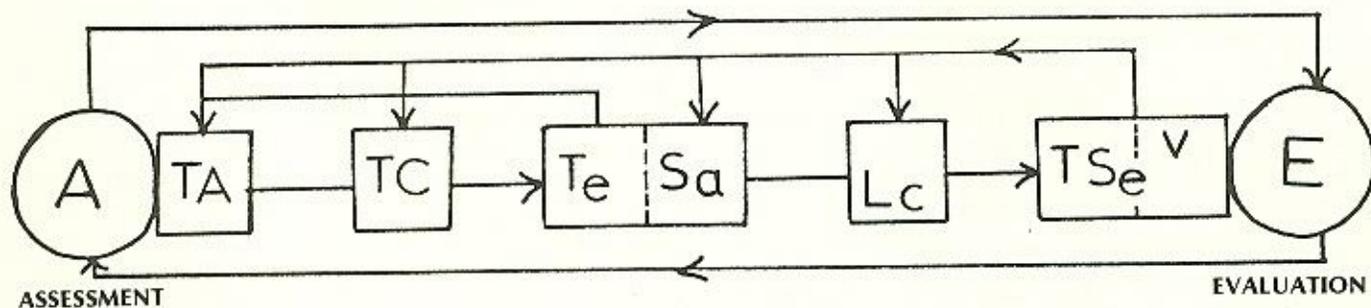


Figure 3. Analog Model of Components of Classroom Instructional Situations To Be Considered in Explaining Competency/Performance Education.

ANALYSIS CATEGORIES IN A CONCEPT OF INSTRUCTION

1. ASSESSMENT (A) Reference is made to measurement and diagnostic activities data which will be the basis for establishing learning objectives (teacher-student end-in-view) and selected pedagogical means (student acts and learning content) for making progress toward and/or realizing the instructional objectives. No value judgements relative to students' potential development are imputed in the assessment process.

2. TEACHING ACTS (TA) Reference is made to lingual and non-lingual symbolism that serves as communication to influence students in realizing teacher-student ends-in-view. Teaching as a discrete concept is subsumed within the concept of instruction.

TA-T Theoretical (Lingual)

TA-Q Qualitative (Non-lingual)

Teacher Acts (Tr-a) Reference is made to acts of teachers that are outside of instructional context where a transaction between teacher and student exists. Teacher acts would be activities that are related to influencing the realization of ends-in-view by the student but which remain outside of instruction, i.e., correction of student work, program planning, building of instructional materials, counseling with students.

Teacher behavior (Tr-b) Reference is made to those activities by a teacher that are detrimental to realization of ends-in-view by students. Classification would include activities during instruction.

3. TEACHING CONTENT (TC) Reference is made to types of knowledge as the content, in some modality, to be added to student's intellect. Knowledge is result of student acting upon content to some degree. Teaching content is the semantic element in the symbolic, syntactical structure of the teaching act.

TC-p pedagogical knowledge

TC-Q Reference is made to knowledge that is encoded by people but is non-lingual; it is knowledge of the world that is used by people but which can not be put into language or theoretical modality. Such knowledge must be expressed in performances other than lingual. This is qualitative knowledge. Three broad sectors of qualitative knowledge may be categorized.

TC-Qs qualitative senses

TC-Qa qualitative affective

TC-Qpm qualitative psychomotor

TC-T Reference is to conceptual knowledge that can be symbolized by language. Language is used as a cuing device to meanings that have been encoded as concepts by people.

TC-Tal Reference is made to oral modality of language, the theoretical auditory linguistic.

TC-Tvl Reference is made to the written modality of language, the Theoretical visual linguistic.

Tc-mm Reference is made to material manifestation of content used as a vehicle for presentation, i.e., visuals, models, film.

4. TEACHING PURPOSE (TP) Reference is made to a mental construct on the part of the teacher; to an intention that is identical with acts of students. The purpose of teaching, as a communication act, is to influence students to become involved in student acts or learning acts.

5. STUDENT ACTS (Sa) Reference is made to acts by students in which they are acting on learning content to realize an end-in-view. Acts may be mental operations or overt behavioral performances. Teaching purpose is identical not equal to student acts in that teaching purpose is a mental image of what is manifest in student overt performance.

6. LEARNING CONTENT (LC) Reference is made to types of knowledge as outlined in teaching content category. Learning content is not necessarily equal to teaching content.

Lc-mm Reference is made to material modality of subject matter used in the learning act.

7. TEACHER-STUDENT END-IN-VIEW WITH EXPONENT OF VALUE (T-Se^v) Reference is made to a commonly established end-in-view between teacher and student which is an increment to the intellect of the student. Pedagogical ends-in-view are assigned degrees of value resulting in motivational drive relative to end-in-view.

8. EVALUATION (E) Reference is made to measurement activities in which there is an establishment of the present development of student relative to predetermined end-in-view. A value judgement may be made as to worth of output energy reflected by distance between present development and predetermined end-in-view.

book review

STEPHEN J. TONSOR. *Tradition and Reform in Education*. La Salle, Illinois: Open Court Publishing Company, 1974. 250 pp. \$8.95.

"But beyond this my son, be warned: the writing of many books is endless, and excessive devotion to books is wearying to the body." (Eccl. 12:12, N.A.S.B.) To educators who have attempted to keep abreast of the plethora of books related to educational reform written over the past decade the advice of the wise Solomon needs no divine sanction, it is a self-evident truth! Ivan Illich argues that the schools must be disestablished. Robert M. Hutchins demurs and says that the schools must stay. Schools have virtually no impact on student performance according to Christopher Jencks. Joel Spring suggests that schools have a significant impact on students in that they serve as instruments of rigid social control. The title of Stephen J. Tonsor's book, **Tradition and Reform in Education**, suggests another addition to the platitudinous statements concerning the need to reform the American educational enterprise. However, titles can be misleading and such is the case with Tonsor's work. His book is actually a collection of twenty-three timely and stimulating essays which focus on three broad topics: Images of Society, The Crisis in Education, and Christian Education.

It is one of the chief virtues of Tonsor's book that it illuminates the landscape of American social and cultural history and allows the reader to see that social, cultural, and technological changes reflect themselves in the quest for educational change. The school is seen as the society in microcosm. Hence the disorder in our educational enterprise reflects the perplexity present in our society.

Surveying the contours of contemporary society, Tonsor identifies anti-rationalism and attempts to throw off the burden of the past as primary contributors to the current cultural malaise. The extent to which irrationality, or "mindlessness" as Charles Silberman called it, has permeated American society can be demonstrated by the fact that the citadel of rationality, the university, has been unable to withstand the pressures of unreason and violence. Noting the liabilities of a society which has embraced irrationalism and severed itself from its roots, Tonsor correctly stresses the need to revivify "the symbols which the past has created and the experience which engendered those symbols." (p. 86)

Pointing to the increasing uniformity of the American educational enterprise, Tonsor argues that the needs of education can best be met in the private sector. He feels that government's role in education should be limited to disburs-

ing tax revenue and maintaining standards. By adopting the use of the voucher system on the elementary and secondary levels and the payment of full cost tuition assisted by a federal student loan program for post-secondary education, Tonsor feels that public education will be forced into competition with private education. This would enable parents to choose the elementary or secondary school their children would attend and thus encourage freedom and pluralism, two values which are being vitiated by excessive involvement in education on the part of the national government. Tonsor also argues convincingly that such a policy would reintroduce diversity in higher education and encourage both realism and seriousness on the part of the student.

Without doubt, some of Tonsor's most pertinent commentary concerns the spirit of liberal education. Eschewing the temptation to discuss liberal education in terms of course content, he calls for a restoration of liberal education based on metaphysical questions. Assuming correctly that there is a growing hunger in today's society for the life of the spirit, Tonsor asserts that liberal education must deal with the great ontological questions: "Who am I?", "What am I?" and "Where am I going?" He posits that an education which ignores these questions is unsound.

Tonsor concludes his book with a series of essays on Christian education. Arguing that Christian education is not an anachronism, he challenges Christian educational institutions to respond to the most crucial need of contemporary society, the need for spiritual rejuvenation. However, before this need can be met, the church-related colleges must reclaim the identity they lost in trying to imitate the secular universities. To accomplish this, Christian educational institutions must provide for a sense of community with God, temper mankind's skills with Christian purpose, and minister to spiritual needs.

Tradition and Reform in Education is a significant contribution to the social foundations of education and American cultural history. Though some of Tonsor's proposals run counter to prevailing orthodoxy, educators should find these provocative essays worthy of consideration and reflection. Lacking the polemical tone of many current criticisms of education, the book is written in a graceful yet scholarly style. Tonsor's ideas are clearly reasoned and cogently presented. Although several of the essays are somewhat repetitious, the book is amply stocked with fresh insights into perennial problems and should be perused by all who are interested in the American educational enterprise.

by James C. Carper

Teachers have to be able to answer *why* a child is having learning problems before they can decide *how* they can help. Project HELP, an in-service teacher training program, was designed to aid teachers in their search for the reason why children have learning problems.

a paradigm of learning: what teachers should know about students

Larry Martin



Larry L. Martin is the coordinator of the special education component of the Department of Administration and Foundations at Kansas State University. He taught six years in the public schools, was a visiting lecturer at Purdue University, taught in the field of learning disabilities for two years at Western State College in Gunnison, Colorado, and has been at KSU for two years. He received his bachelor's, master's, and Ph.D. in special education from Purdue University.

You are a fourth grade teacher. In your class Bob can't read; Sally has no friends; Jim performs well in school one day and poorly the next; Susan is very creative and gifted but seems frustrated with school; and Tom never attends to his work.

Bob, Sally, Jim, Susan, and Tom all have problems in some phase of school performance. You want to help these five students. You want to help Bob learn how to read; Sally make friends; Jim even out his performance; Susan like school and utilize her talents; and Tom attend to his work. The first question that pops into your mind is, "How can I help them?" You make plans and try to carry them out. With one or two you *might* experience some success. With the others, nothing seems to work. You might even say, "I have tried everything and nothing seems to help."

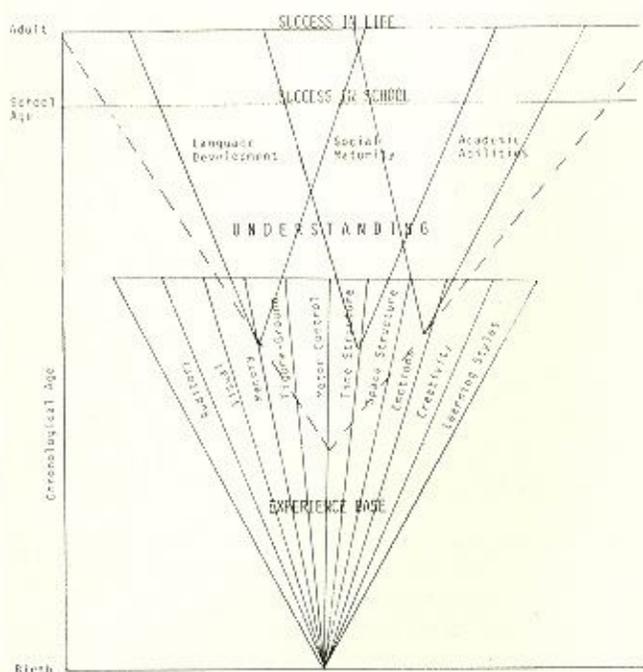
Every teacher can identify to some degree with the above statements. Every teacher whether in kindergarten or high school has had similar experiences. In an effort to aid classroom teachers in their efforts to help children with learning problems, project HELP* was created. It was designed to aid, through in-service training, regular classroom teachers in identifying and effectively educating children with learning problems.

Project HELP starts by forcing teachers to ask one additional short question: "Why?" (*Why* can't Bob read; *why* doesn't Sally have friends; *why* does Jim have uneven performance; *why* is gifted Susan frustrated with school; and *why* can't Tom attend to his work?) The answers to these questions are not readily available to most teachers. The reason for this is not because of lack of teaching experience, but rather, this because of a lack of training in actually looking for the "whys."

The 250-page HELP learning packet is designed to instruct the teacher in understanding the possible "whys" behind learning problems. The Paradigm of Learning (see Figure 1) is a graphic representation of the rationale upon which project

* *HELP for Teachers in Educating Exceptional Children in the Classroom* Project HELP is a pilot in-service package designed to help regular classroom teachers. Through the use of a 250-page learning packet, 18 hours of in-service training, and problem-solving assignments, the regular classroom teacher learns to identify and educate exceptional children in the classroom. The Project Staff includes Dr. Larry Martin, Dr. C. Kent Garhart, Mrs. Lois Cox, and Mrs. Myrliss Hershey.

Figure 1
Paradigm of Learning



HELP is based. By looking at the paradigm, one can see that the end goal of learning is success in school and life. By experience and instruction, one achieves these successes by first developing the underlying "processes" (large inverted triangle at bottom) and then the three "school-life related areas of language development, social maturity, and academic abilities" (3 smaller inverted triangles at top). When a child has mastered this level, he has developed "understanding" (the largest inverted triangle). A child must reach this final level of understanding before success in school and life can be achieved.

When a child is not achieving in one or more of the three school-life related areas, we as teachers must try to find out why. Utilizing standardized tests, checklists, and teacher-made tests, it is fairly easy to pinpoint what a student can and cannot do in these areas. Once these weak areas are identified, the usual strategy is to launch an academic remediation program to strengthen the weaknesses. Unfortunately, all too often, this strategy is unsuccessful when used alone. It is unsuccessful because we did not ask *why* he is having these difficulties.

At this point you must go one step lower in the paradigm to begin to see the *whys* of many learning problems. By the time most children reach school they have developed a highly sophisticated base for formal school learning. This base is developed through experience. Usually, the better and more diverse the pre-school experience, the more developed this base becomes. The base is composed of ten processes. These processes are called process abilities. When a child has problems in one or more of these abilities, he is said to have process deficits. Many times a child has trouble in school because the underlying processes for success in school have

not been developed. These processes then become the *whys* of faulty school performance.

Let's take a brief look at these process deficits and how they are related to learning and success in school and life.

Auditory

Auditory deficits can be divided into the two major headings of acuity and perception. Auditory acuity refers to the auditory input system, that is, can the child actually hear the sounds in his environment or does he have a hearing problem.

On the other hand, auditory perception refers to central processing abilities, the ability to deal with sounds after they reach the central nervous system. Here, the child attaches meaning to the sounds that he hears. He discriminates among all the sounds he hears and attaches meaning to them by utilizing his past, learned knowledge of sounds, words, and meaning.

If a child has an auditory deficit, he will have trouble understanding any directions given verbally, following class discussions, and with language development. Because of this he is also likely to have some social problems.

Visual

Visual deficits are divided into the two major headings of acuity and perception. Visual acuity refers to the basic ability of the student to see stimuli. In other words, can the student see that which he is expected to see.

Visual form perception is the ability of the student to visually differentiate the forms and/or symbols in his environment. As such it is involved in nearly every action a student may take, i.e. dressing, walking, recognizing objects or people, reading, writing, etc.

This ability to see and to differentiate forms greatly affects his overall school performance and his success in school and life.

Memory

Memory deficits occur in the major areas of long and short term, auditory, visual, and tactual-kinesthetic memories. In general, short term memory refers to the ability to remember things accurately over a short period of time such as directions for assignments, words to a poem or song, questions asked by the teacher, and class discussions. All motor movement is also learned and must be remembered for efficient performance and movement. Long term memory deals with the same kinds of things, but refers to retaining the information over a long period of time.

The whole area of memory deficits is one of the biggest "headaches" for teachers. Things like the following happen:

1. You teach it—he's got it perfectly. You review it—it's *like* a new subject to him.
2. On weekly tests, performance is okay—on unit or semester tests, performance is terrible.
3. The student knows it now, forgets it tomorrow, and remembers it later in an off-and-on fashion.

Auditory memory deals with the ability, or lack of it, to remember things that one has learned with the ears.

Visual memory deals with the ability to remember things that one has learned with the eyes.

In order for a child to have effective fine and gross motor movements, he must be able to remember what it feels like to make learned movements. If a child cannot remember these things he will probably have awkward and clumsy movements, and poor handwriting.

Memory deficits, depending upon which areas they occur in, can greatly affect success in school and life.

Figure-ground

Figure-ground deficits can be divided into the two major headings of auditory figure-ground and visual figure-ground. Both refer to the ability of a child to pick out and pay attention to specific verbal or visual stimuli (figure) from the myriad of verbal and visual stimuli present within each learning situation (ground).

A child with figure-ground problems will be easily distracted and will have problems following class discussions or doing the tasks of reading, writing, or arithmetic.

Motor Control

Motor development can be divided into two major areas of gross motor development and fine motor development. It is essential that a child develops both if he is to succeed in school. The gross motor abilities are essential for the development of all movement, game, and sports skills. If a child cannot attain these gross motor skills, his peer acceptance is greatly reduced. Many theorists, in addition, feel that higher levels of learning are based upon the effective learning of basic motor movements. Some theorists also believe that gross motor development is a precursor to the development of laterality, directionality, rhythm, sequence, space structure, and time structure.

Time Structure

Time structure deficits within school age children generally manifest themselves in one or a combination of the following three areas; rhythm, sequence, and/or time (clock minutes). In this context rhythm refers to the ability of the student to maintain a sustained unit of measure, beat, over a given unit of time. Sequence skills reflect upon the student's ability to reproduce a given sequence of stimuli received auditorily, visually, and/or physically. Time skills, per se, pertain to the student's skill in reflecting with relative accuracy how long it takes or would take to do something or to have done something.

Space Structure

Generally space structure deficits may be thought of as occupying two arenas, internal and/or external. Internalized spatial structure would refer to a person's recognition of the fact that he has two sides to his body, separated by a

theoretical midline. Externalized spatial relationships are more observable phenomena relative to a person's skill or ability to know where he is in relation to other people, places, or things. In the classroom we would see skill in this area demonstrated as the child deals with concepts such as up, down, forward, back, various paper-pencil tasks, artwork, writing (especially numerals), and the broad spectrum of movement within and without the classroom, school, block, or city.

Emotions

The emotional development of a person begins at birth and continues to grow and change throughout one's lifetime. It is essential teachers try to nurture and maintain a feeling of self-worth and a positive self-image within each child. Success is the key to good emotional development. A deficit in this area can permeate all areas that lead to success in school and life.

Creativity

It is believed that everyone is creative in some way. The challenge is to raise and teach children in such a way as to nurture creativity. The development of creativity enhances a person's problem-solving abilities which, in turn, increases the chances for success in school and life.

Learning Styles

Different people learn in different ways. Some learn better visually and others auditorily. Some learn better independently and others in small groups or by discussion. One must learn what the learning styles of a student are and use them to help the child learn more efficiently.

The above descriptions of process deficits and how they are related to school performance should help teachers begin to see some of the "whys" behind failure to succeed in school. It is certain that not all the reasons for failure in school and life have been covered or discovered. Deficits in the above processes do account for some of the reasons why Bob can't read; Sally has no friends; Jim has uneven performance; gifted Susan doesn't like school; and Tom doesn't attend to his work. Only after teachers ask the right question (why?) and get the answer, can they begin to help children overcome learning problems.

Project HELP is designed to help teachers arrive at the answers behind why a child has problems learning and how they can work on each of these problems that arise in the classroom. The how part of project HELP covers subjects like: remediation of process deficits, effective use of teacher time and space, individualizing instruction, and effectively handling behavior.

The field-based master's program is an innovative approach to graduate study in education. The program has received positive responses from all involved. One reason is that the faculty were careful not to wrap an old program in new paper and fancy ribbon.

taking the university to the classroom teacher: field-based graduate programs

Gerald Douglass Bailey



Dr. Bailey, an assistant professor of Curriculum and Instruction at Kansas State University since 1972, is particularly interested and active in competency/performance-based education, inquiry behaviors and techniques, and teacher-student interactions. He earned his bachelor's, master's, and Ed.D. degrees at the University of Nebraska at Lincoln. Since 1966 he also has taught in two Lincoln secondary schools, co-directed a Nebraska TTT inservice staff development project for University of Nebraska staff members, been coordinator for a University of Nebraska-Midwestern Regional Education Laboratory inservice staff development project for Lincoln public schools, and been consultant and instructor for the Kansas State University Teacher Corps project.

Events of the past decade have made educators keenly aware of societal expectations and demands for improved educational practices in America. One of the more significant outcomes generated from this widespread interest in education has been the close examination of graduate programs in higher education. Searing commentaries about unimaginative and unresponsive graduate programs are common to the current literature. Resultant change, innovation and reform in these graduate programs have not been observed with similar frequency. At Kansas State University, an experimental graduate program leading to a Master of Science Degree in Education has been in operation since the Summer of 1973. While evaluation is still in preliminary stages, the data point to the following: (1) participants have an extremely positive attitude toward their graduate work, and (2) participants believe that the experimental graduate program has more advantages than the "traditional or standard" graduate program.

More than a year and a half ago, Kansas State University and the Topeka Public Schools entered into a cooperative agreement to bring a new kind of graduate program to the classroom teacher.¹ The new program offered classroom teachers an opportunity to obtain a Master of Science Degree in the College of Education at Kansas State University. Unlike other graduate programs, (1) this program is specifically designed for classroom teachers who desire to improve their teaching effectiveness and/or who desire to become instructional leaders and (2) the major portion of the program is field-based (conducted in the Topeka Public School District).² During a brief orientation, Topeka school administrators were asked to discuss the experimental graduate program with their teachers and interested personnel were invited to make written application. After an initial screening process, approximately 25 elementary, junior high and senior high school teachers were selected to participate in the program.

Program Characteristics

The new program was called the Experimental Field-Based Master's Degree Program and was created as an option to the existing Master's degree program at Kansas State University. The following characteristics distinguished the program:

Off-Campus/On-Campus Instruction. The major thrust of the program was field-based. Over two-thirds of the program was offered on location in Topeka, Kansas while one-third or less of the program was offered on-campus at Kansas State

University in Manhattan, Kansas. Any teacher could take 3 to 6 hours per semester during the field-based phase and 3 to 9 hours could be obtained during the on-campus phase.

Program Completion. Participants were encouraged to participate in the program as a total group. However, the designated time for completing the program varies from two to four years depending on how quickly a candidate desires to finish the degree. A minimum of 30 credit hours is required to complete the program. Any elementary, junior high or senior high school teacher who held a Bachelor's degree in education and who was teaching in the Topeka Public Schools was deemed eligible for enrollment in the program.

Course Offerings. In addition to regularly offered courses in the existing Master's program, a wide array of courses was specifically designed for the program. A partial listing of these courses included: Competency-Based Education, Open Education, Curriculum Development, Media Production, Action Research, Creativity, and Humanizing Education. In almost all courses there is a special emphasis on development of new instructional materials by the teachers for classroom utilization.

Course Time Configurations. Field-based courses have offered a wide range of configurations for class meeting time. Certain classes have met for 16 weeks (2-3 class hours) while other courses will meet for 8 weeks (5-6 class hours). During summer sessions, participants may take courses which are offered on a four-day week schedule and have opportunities to engage in eight-week courses as well as courses varying from one to four weeks in length.

Leadership Training. A select few of the participants will receive additional training in specific program components. It is expected that this training will allow these participants to conduct mini-training sessions for interested teachers in their respective schools.

Program Orientation. One of the most exciting components of the program has been the Program Orientation Workshop conducted in the Summer of 1973. Ample opportunity was given to participants to socialize and specially designed exercises were conducted to promote group camaraderie. A block of time was used to relate long- and short-range goals of the Experimental Field-Based Master's Degree Program. Participants were asked to establish their own academic goals and objectives. During this time, the Program Director described various courses which were geared to participants' needs.

Cooperative Decision Making. The latter stages of the Program Orientation Workshop gave participants an opportunity to make decisions about their academic aspirations and plan a course of action which would help meet those needs. Participants were given an opportunity to discuss courses offered at Kansas State University and even suggest new courses which would be appropriate to their specific demands. The second stage of the cooperative decision making process included a "prioritizing exercise" which was used to sequence the courses in the program. The third stage included independent activities in which participants were counseled on an individual basis about specific courses that fit their needs and particular subject matter interests. The final exercise involved establishing a Program of Study which was then submitted to the Graduate School.

Strengths and Limitations

Participants, public school officials and university personnel agree that substantial progress has been made in a relatively short period of time. Evaluation efforts, however, reveal both strengths and limitations in the experimental graduate program. Formative evaluation measures indicate the following strengths:

1. Students in the program appear to be highly task-oriented and motivated. Meaning and value are associated with graduate courses since they are related to immediate and topical academic needs.
2. A substantial amount of convenience is afforded the classroom teacher by offering courses within the local school district. Much less time is consumed in commuting to and from the university and their time is spent in more productive activities.
3. Participants have been allowed to make suggestions in planning their graduate program. This cooperative decision making process has contributed to a healthy work attitude.
4. The emphasis placed on the development of new classroom instructional materials has contributed to a high degree of participant incentive.
5. Participant involvement in the program as a total group has promoted group solidarity. Participants seem to enjoy the opportunity of engaging in long-term friendships with other teachers from different schools.

While a number of strengths have been identified, certain limitations have become readily apparent:

1. The experimental graduation program has been met with skepticism and reservation by some university faculty. These faculty members question the necessity of carrying their courses off campus. A broadened commitment by the faculty will be absolutely necessary if field-based graduate programs are to continue and expand.
2. The current energy crisis portends continued difficulties in scheduling off-campus courses. Limited fuel allocations to the university could adversely affect future expansion of field-based programs.
3. Certain courses carried off campus require written materials, media-related supplies and library resources. Financial provisions for these items will be needed if the program is to operate at maximum efficiency.
4. Correspondence and counseling with the twenty-five participants has been assumed by the Program Director. The amount of time needed to deal with participants' needs has been severely underestimated. Additional staff and public school liaison personnel will be necessary to meet the demands of the participants.
5. In the past, the responsibility of the program has rested heavily on the shoulders of a small number of interested faculty members. Governance of the program in the future will need to be placed under the direction of a committee or board of directors to ensure program effectiveness and continuity.

Future Directions

The Experimental Field-Based Master's Degree Program has
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The most significant changes in the College of Education have occurred in the area of graduate study. New graduate programs in late afternoon and evening, as well as eight off-campus locations, have extended the program to serve the teachers of Kansas. In addition K-State is cooperating with a consortium of southern and midwestern colleges to strengthen programs and faculty for developing institutions. Graduate study in education is just one more example of the land-grant philosophy which brings the resources of the university to the people it serves.

graduate study in education at kansas state university

J. Harvey Littrell



Dr. J. Harvey Littrell joined the Kansas State University faculty in 1954 after a varied teaching career in public schools and other colleges. Dr. Littrell has been very active as a consultant and speaker in the areas of curriculum development and reading in secondary school subjects. Presently he holds the rank of Professor in the Department of Curriculum and Instruction and is the Coordinator of Graduate Studies.

Both tradition and innovation have characterized graduate study in the College of Education at Kansas State University. However, in recent years greater emphasis has been placed upon innovation. It is believed that a discussion of these innovations will be of interest to former students at Kansas State University, students contemplating further graduate study, and faculty members in institutions who are developing graduate programs. The innovations or major changes have been in three areas: administrative organization, students, and educational programs.

Organizational Changes

For students enrolled at Kansas State University prior to 1965, the greatest organizational change has been the development of a College of Education with three departments. Former students probably still think of us as the Department of Education in the College of Arts and Sciences. The College has had three Deans since its inception, the present one being Dr. Samuel Keys. Because of the growth of the College, an Associate Dean, Jordan Utsey, was appointed in 1974. The three departments and their heads are as follows: Adult and Occupational Education, Dr. Robert Meisner; Administration and Foundations, Dr. Alfred Wilson; and Curriculum and Instruction, Dr. Norbert Maertens.

At the present time the College grants the Master's degree in Agricultural Education, Home Economics Education, and Education and the Doctor of Philosophy degree in Education.

To coordinate graduate study in the three departments since the degrees are college wide, the graduate faculty of the College of Education organized an Executive Committee on Graduate Study. After three years, the graduate faculty created the position of Coordinator of Graduate Studies. The Dean of the College was supportive of this position and allocated duties he formerly performed to the position.

The present coordinator, Dr. J. Harvey Littrell, serves as the intermediary for all problems and discussions between faculty members of the College and the Dean of the Graduate School. This function eliminates various interpretations which ensued previously in the communication process when several individual faculty members communicated separately with the Graduate School personnel.

The Coordinator reviews all programs of study to insure that policies established by both the University and the College Graduate Faculties are being fulfilled. The goal is to have consistent practices by faculty members in all three departments.

The Coordinator also serves as an information source for students and faculty concerning requirements, procedures, and dates for accomplishing various aspects of the program. He coordinates and executes policy decisions made by the Graduate Faculty or its Executive Committee. The fulfillment of these many duties by the Coordinator serves to facilitate total operation of a graduate program for both students and faculty.

Student Body Changes

The student body in the Graduate Programs is changing both in numbers of students and in their personal characteristics. In 1957 the first graduate classes in Education to be held on Saturday morning or in the late afternoon were established. Prior to that date graduate work in Education had been a summer school function. With the advent of the late afternoon and Saturday classes, teachers in nearby towns were able to make progress toward their master's degrees during the school year. However, even as late as 1967, the summer enrollment in graduate work was more than double the graduate enrollments during the fall and spring semesters. For example, the enrollment figures for the 1967-68 fall, spring, and summer session were 140, 264, and 419, respectively. By the 1973-74 school year there was a significant change; the comparable enrollment figures were 636, 527, and 708. In other words, the total number of graduate students not only increased significantly, but the number enrolled during the fall and spring semesters approached the number enrolled during the summer session. This increase can be accounted for by (1) the introduction of a Ph.D. program which brought students to the campus during the year, (2) an increase in the number of courses offered during the fall and spring semesters, and (3) the number of classes offered during the year at sites away from the campus; for example, faculty this past year have taught classes in Topeka, Kansas City, Shawnee Mission, Salina, Great Bend, Wichita, Clay Center, and Abilene.

In addition to increased numbers of graduate students there have been two other major changes. More students are continuing their graduate work sooner after receiving their bachelor degrees; therefore, a younger group of graduate students are on campus than in recent years. Perhaps the greatest change in terms of student characteristics has been the increase in the number of minority students enrolled in graduate education. Doctoral programs sponsored for developing colleges, particularly the Southern black colleges and universities account for this change.

Program Changes

The Master's degree in Education has been offered at Kansas State University for over 50 years. Until about 30 years ago the major areas were Agricultural Education, Home Economics, and Administration. Since then students in both elementary and secondary school teaching have been acquiring master's degrees under programs which for many years were quite traditional. The one exception was an experiment sponsored by the Ford Foundation in the early 1960s which provided for liberal arts graduates to serve internships in the public schools combined with the professional courses required for certification.

More recently the College of Education has developed innovative programs at the master's degree level for students enrolled in Teacher Corps programs at Junction City, Clay Center, Manhattan, and Kansas City. Field-based programs for teachers in Topeka and Salina have been developed.¹ An eight-county area near Salina has been the focus for a program developed for on-the-job teachers who wish to be certified as principals and a similar program for teachers or other college graduates who wish to become counselors has been developed for Topeka. A unique full-year program at four centers has been developed jointly with the Kansas State Director of Adult Education for directors, teachers, and counselors in Adult Basic Education programs.²

In 1968 the first students were enrolled in the new Ph.D. program in Education. Foremost in the minds of the faculty as they developed this program was an attempt to design a program (or programs) which had features other than those associated with the traditional Ph.D. program. To assist in this task the College of Education and the Graduate School sponsored a special conference on designing new doctoral programs in Education.³ From ideas gained from the conference and under the leadership of Dean James McComas, the College embarked on a doctoral program. Immediate changes from the traditional Ph.D. program were (1) having a statistics-research core replace the foreign language requirement, (2) requiring a related area of study outside the major field, and (3) encouraging field-related research. More recently the departments have been encouraging the experiential aspect of graduate education with internships and practica.

A joint program with Kansas State College at Pittsburg allows students to complete part of their course requirements at that institution beyond the master's degree. Grants have also been received to aid staff members from junior colleges in the State to work toward the doctor's degree.

Beginning in 1971 Kansas State University has cooperated with eight developing institutions in the South and Midwest in designing both master's and doctoral programs focused upon staff development for these institutions.⁴ Several grants from the United States Office of Education have supported students from these institutions while they attended Kansas State University. At the end of the 1971 school year, 30 of 31 master's candidates and 6 of 8 doctoral students had completed their degrees. In 1973-74 funds were made available to support 19 doctoral candidates, and in 1974-75, 38 candidates received support. The program has been of benefit not only to the colleges in the consortium and the individual candidates, but to the climate of the College of Education.

Summary

The purpose of this "history" has been to alert the readers to the progress which has been made in graduate education at Kansas State University. Former graduates will still find the main offices in Holton Hall, although we also have faculty offices for the expanded staff on three floors of Dickens Hall and the third floor of Fairchild Hall. We are proud of the changes in our administrative organization, students, and program and we look forward to being able to make even greater progress when new and better facilities are provided.

FOOTNOTES

1. See in this issue of *Educational Considerations*: Bailey, Gerald Douglass, "Taking the University to the Classroom: Field-Based Graduate Programs."
2. Parker, Barbara, and A.B. Campbell, "A New Approach to Graduate Education in Adult Basic and GED Education," *Adult Leadership*, Dec. 1973, p. 208.
3. McComas, James D., and John P. Noonan, *Designing Doctoral Programs in Education*, The College of Education, The University of Tennessee, Publication No. 5, 1968.
4. Epps, Willie James, and Jordan Utsey, "A Staff Development Program in Education." *American Education*, U.S. Dept. HEW, Education Division, Fall, 1974.

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swirling on the walls (an overhead projector, a pyrex tray full of water, oil, and food coloring were used to gain this effect); and "things" brushed past their feet. When they left the experimental area they were asked to record their immediate reactions by speaking into the tape recorder's microphone. The reactions were played back later. The major objective of the experiment was the heightening of awareness through manipulated activation of the senses.

At the present time, the fifteen teachers in the workshop are trying out the ideas they picked up from the three weeks of interaction. I prepared an evaluation form to determine the changes that have come about in their classrooms as a direct result of their involvement in the English curriculum workshop. I have talked with many of them informally. I learned that more worthwhile creative thinking and learning *did* take place in their classrooms. The students (and the teachers) improved their abilities to read, listen, speak, write and reason. Other experiments in interaction were tried as a result of the teachers' involvement in the workshop during the summer. The teachers became more aware of individuals within the classes. The curriculum became more student-centered. English was taught humanely.

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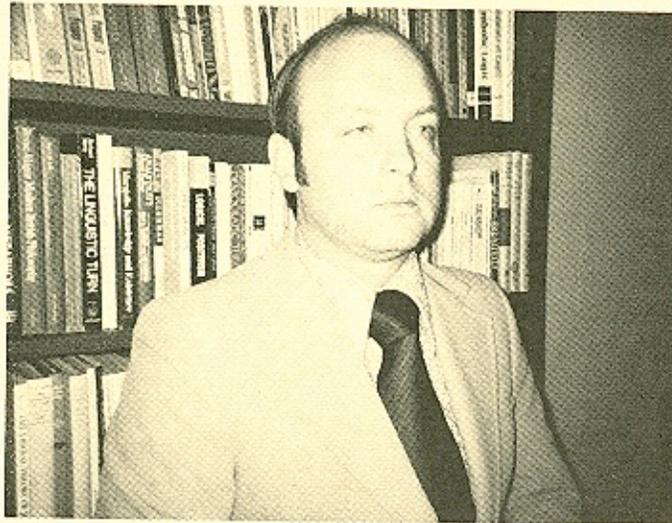
been greeted with considerable enthusiasm by participants and administrative personnel from the university and public schools. The reasons for this attitude are attributed to the following: (1) The faculty at Kansas State University have been careful not to wrap an old program in new paper and fancy ribbon. In essence, the experimental graduate program has a truly innovative substance. (2) Standards of graduate program quality have not been sacrificed by moving the program off campus. (3) The program has not been viewed a gimmick to garner greater numbers of graduate students.

Participants have been the best salespersons of the program. They have related their experiences to friends and school administrators. These activities have led Kansas State University to make plans for a Second Field-Based Master's Degree Program in Salina, Kansas.³ While field-based graduate programs warrant continued investigation and experimentation, it is clear that they have established themselves as a means to better serve the ever changing needs of a key person in the educational hierarchy—the classroom teacher.

FOOTNOTES

1. The author wishes to express his appreciation to Dean Samuel R. Keys, Dr. J. Harvey Littrell (Kansas State University), Dr. Arnold J. Moore (Youngstown State University), and Drs. Merle Bolton and Roy Browning (Topeka Public Schools). Without their support and encouragement, the cooperative effort would not have been possible.
2. Topeka, Kansas is located approximately sixty miles east of Kansas State University.
3. Salina, Kansas is located approximately seventy miles west of Kansas State University.

new member joins editorial board of review



PHILIP L. SMITH, who joins the Editorial Board of Review with this issue, is presently an assistant professor of philosophy of education at The Ohio State University. Since receiving his Ph.D. in 1971 from the University of Michigan he has pursued a number of special interests in the areas of moral philosophy and philosophical psychology. He believes these subjects to be at the heart of educational theorizing and plans to continue writing on the problems they present. Professor Smith has recently renewed his long-standing interests in educational historiography and the history of ideas. His special concerns deal with sources of progressive thought and their impact on American education. These concerns often have a practical force and Professor Smith has worked to point out their significance for the contemporary educational scene. He remains active in professional organizations and contributes where he can to their programs.