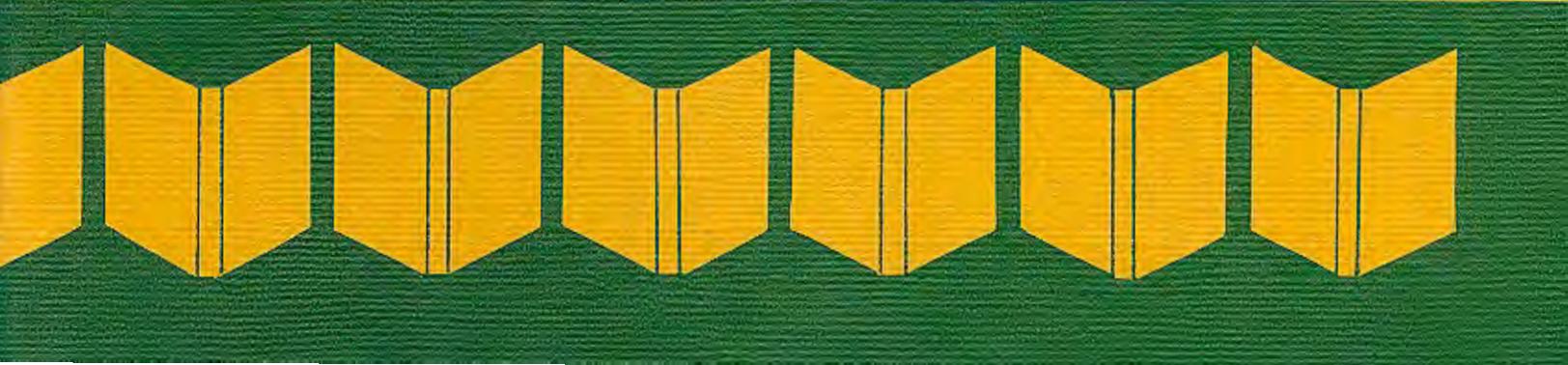


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Viewpoint

Moving into the 1980s

The beginning of a new decade always presents the opportunity to reassess the past and to anticipate the future. For professional educators this could be either a depressing or an exhilarating experience depending on individual perceptions of the events that shaped education in the 10 years just past.

In retrospect, public schools came of age during the 1970s. Social issues were confronted directly in the schools as the politics of confrontation of the 1960s continued to challenge the goals, practices and expectations of public education. The courts and federal legislation had a pervasive impact on the governance of education.

If any one theme or dominant notion can be ascertained from the plethora of events influencing the public schools during the 1970s, it would have to be the continued quest for equal educational opportunity. This quest has been manifested in decisions of the courts, federal legislation and regulations and state education mandates. While we may disagree with definitions of or the veracity of the idea of equal educational opportunity, it has become a dominant theme in American public education.

The *Tinker* legacy that neither students nor teachers shed their constitutional rights at the schoolhouse gate served to establish new legal relationships among students, teachers, administrators and school boards. Due process became the guiding principle and served to make school officials more responsible for their disciplinary decisions. In succeeding cases the United States Supreme Court clarified and extended due process protections for students and teachers and provided remedies when it was denied.

As the 1970s began and ended many schools districts were grappling with desegregation issues. Busing was a super-charged, emotional issue with children caught in the political battles. The focus of court challenges had shifted from the South to other regions of the country as *de facto* segregation was confronted. The promise of *Brown* awaits fulfillment in a society where housing patterns frustrate the dream.

At the midpoint of the decade, P.L. 94-142 was enacted to specify and guarantee the education rights of handicapped children. Mainstreaming, due process, individual education programs and financing became new challenges. In concert with Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, P.L. 94-142 holds the potential for major reorganization and operation of the education enterprise.

Title IX and affirmative action established the place of women in all aspects of public education. Athletics, curriculum and employment practices have been altered to bring women into the mainstream of school life. These changes will continue to be made throughout the educational system to provide new possibilities and opportunities for women.

Certainly, there are many other aspects of public education which deserve mention as significant influences in the past decade. Collective bargaining and strikes, accountability, malpractice, discipline, decline in public confidence, financial woes, competency testing, school finance and many others are possibilities.

But, on the whole, most of these issues do not seem to have had the fundamental or pervasive impact on public education as those previously cited. This is not to deny the importance of such issues but does not suggest that there were several watershed events that set the tone for the 1970s as a decade characterized by the continued quest for equal educational opportunity.

In anticipation of the decade of the '80s, I am concerned that the quest for and commitment to equal educational opportunity will be sidetracked and the gains reversed rather than consolidated. Energy, defense and inflation will be critical issues demanding rational solutions. Certainly the resolution of these critical national problems will extract a high price from all of us. I am concerned that some leaders simply will ignore other social issues which must be confronted.

I have no quarrel with those wishing to rethink what we are about as a society, or for that matter, what the role of public schools should be. After all, this represents the best of the democratic tradition in the United States. I submit, however, that we as educators cannot and must not remove ourselves from the debate and process of setting social priorities. Our social agenda must include a continued quest for the illusive goal of equal educational opportunity.

We have an important and challenging task in the 1980s to insure that the voice of professional educators is heard. We no longer can afford the fragmentation that has characterized public education. In the issue of social priorities, the voice of students, teachers, administrators, local and state boards and others must be one.

William E. Sparkman
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Structural barriers provide obstacles to change in special education.

Mainstreaming the organization

By Donald L. Robson

Modern bureaucratic organizations, once in operation, seem to take on a life of their own. Though administrators flatter themselves with such labels as manager, supervisor, leader, or director, in reality the organization controls the actions of the administrator at least as often as he controls and directs the organization. One of its greatest strengths as a mechanism for organizational goal attainment is the stability and regularity of the bureaucratic structure. It is this characteristic, this very stability, which at the same time is so frequently criticized. The bureaucracy, it is said, is inflexible and unyielding. Change, it is said, is difficult to accomplish. And so it is. Frequently we see the need for altering our processes or our goals to accommodate new conditions. Often we would impose our new perspective on an existing organizational structure only to find resistance, even refusal. Instinctively we blame the system for its failure to accommodate new ideas and adapt to new directions. In a sense, the system (bureaucracy) is at fault.

Special education, a bureaucratically-organized enterprise, has declared a fundamental alteration in its goals. Instead of serving the function of educating all handicapped youngsters within a parallel system, the goal now is the maintenance of all handicapped students within the "mainstream" of regular education. If this goal is to be realized, however, more will be required than simply adopting new slogans or assigning new values to old

goals. Fundamental changes in the structure of the delivery system will be required. Educators must understand clearly what is to be accomplished and what must be done to accomplish it before their best efforts have any chance of enduring the natural bureaucratic aversion to the uncertainty of change.

The bureaucratic structure, designed to accomplish certain specific goals, is the major obstacle to ready change. In a greater sense, however, the problem lies in our inability to recognize the variables which must be altered if our desired change is to endure. It is not enough to proclaim a change in our goals from this date forth. Nor is it enough to simply adopt a new method or procedure for accomplishing a specified task. Redesigning our physical plants will not suffice, nor will improving the morale of employees insure the success of desired changes. Such alterations are simply tinkering. The long-term endurance of any of these innovations within the educational organization is a matter of derision. Our "bandwagoning" techniques for adopting change are legend. The innovations which will endure within the bureaucracy, however, are those which involve changes in the structure of the organization itself.

The Existing Structure

It is difficult for general educators to know how to react to the new urging of advocates and special educators for "mainstreaming." Their natural aversion to pressure groups and to the increasing incursion of the federal government into their business causes a reflex suspicion, even resistance. This is particularly true since only a few years ago special educators and advocates made impressive progress in the establishment of programs for the handicapped. These gains were made with the logic that exceptional youngsters had needs which demanded special facilities and specially trained teachers. As a result, special financial arrangements needed to be made and an entire organizational structure grew up around the need to deliver special education to youngsters who were not or could not be served adequately by the "regular" system. Special educators made frequent appearances before boards of education, citizen and administrative groups to justify the need for ever increasing financial support of programs and services based on the accepted model of specialization of function. That is, the case was made to parents of prospective students and to boards of education that a better job of meeting the special needs of these children could be done by specializing services. Thus a separate delivery system was created with its own students, personnel, facilities, administrative structure, financing, even its own Washington Bureau. Today, just as this separate delivery system approaches its maximum expansion, the rationale has changed, and this change threatens the very foundation of the structure so recently built.

This essay will examine some social and theoretical antecedents to our current general and special education thinking. In addition, it will attempt to state concerns of both general and special education administrators in relation to the perceived effects of the proposed change.

Changing the Rules of the Game

Though our rhetoric has proclaimed it, educational opportunity in America never has been universalistic in 1970s terms. That is, when viewed from our present perspective, the provision of free public education has been

exclusionary in its fundamental nature. While it seems, from listening to advocates of various excluded groups, that their people have been conspired against, singled out and marked for discrimination, it is the contention of this observer that the problem is systemic rather than conspiratorial.

From its earliest beginnings, formal education has been a privilege of those who could afford it. Only in this century, and largely in this country, has the concept of universal education even approached reality. The process, however, has been one of slowly including groups of individuals not previously served, rather than terminating existing services to individuals. Further, such inclusion has come about through the confrontations and struggles of the group not served, rather than as a result of any social justice goals of the group in power. It is significant that this process of gradual inclusion has not come about as a result of changes in the service delivery system. Rather, fundamental views of our educational responsibility have been altered by changing social forces related to a changing view of the needs of society.

During its formative period, there was a rather wide gap between this nation's philosophical adherence to individual rights and its need for organizational and institutional stability. The greater good was deemed to be national prosperity which could be evidenced by the success of the capitalistic system. Group values and organizational interests were reflected in our laws and public policies. Similarly, during periods of war or national stress such as the great depression, the rights of individuals have been subjugated in favor of group needs and interests. The traditionalist conservative view continues to stress the individual's responsibility to the group rather than the group's responsibility to the individual. It was the failure of Lyndon Johnson and Richard Nixon to convince Americans that they must subjugate their individual rights in favor of the national interest that led to our eventual withdrawal from Vietnam.

The repression of dissent, the need for secrecy, the inaccessibility to the decision-making process were not accepted as legitimate responses to a concerned populace. The struggle between individual rights and individual responsibilities gradually shifted in favor of the former. More recently, educators who argue that the efficiency and effectiveness of the system depend upon the exclusion of some individuals have seen their arguments fall on deaf legal ears. (See for example the PARC and Mills cases.)

The federal government, once almost totally absent from the educational scene, has assumed responsibility for the protection of individual rights of citizens vis-a-vis educational institutions. This social justice goal often is in conflict with cost effectiveness or organizational efficiency. Callahan (1962) has pointed out the social influences which have enforced these values on educators. 'Specialization in the context of effectiveness and efficiency makes sense to administrators. Their concerns for these fundamental organizational demands should not be disregarded or taken lightly even in relation to so noble a cause. This is particularly so since current demands for accountability are directly translatable into these two terms. Taxpayers in revolt demand both efficiency and effectiveness.'

Structural Barriers to Change

Social values, then, have gradually and subtly shifted,

and these shifts have created new pressures on our education delivery systems. While we might wish it were otherwise, the system is slow to adjust to these new demands. There are a number of factors which account for this seeming reluctance. One of the most obvious factors is the problem of "sunk costs." The heavy investment by any organization in the physical plant, expensive equipment, or operation acts as a natural barrier to significant adaptation or radical change. There is a normal reluctance on the part of administrators, operating under rationality norms, to readily abandon heavy investments in facilities, equipment, or operations. Having accepted the argument for such a structure, general education administrators have been reluctant to assume responsibilities presently allocated to special educators. There has been a heavy psychological, as well as fiscal, investment in the development of the current special education delivery system. Many battles were fought and won to achieve the present structure. Battles took place in courtrooms, classrooms, and legislative back rooms until ultimately, every state in the union had some form of mandatory special education. While the concept of mainstreaming does not operationally abrogate these gains, philosophically it is, in a sense antithetical to the assumptions upon which "special" education was established.

The division of responsibility, so characteristic of the bureaucratic form of organization, creates still another barrier to ready change. The responsibilities of the various components of the educational delivery mechanism gradually have been identified as individual populations have been identified. Small empires have emerged and special interest groups have grown into large national organizations. Beginning with Associations for Retarded Children (ARCs), the network has proliferated to include all special categories of handicapped, both children and adults. The existence and activity of such interest groups support the continuance of categorical specialization. One result is the reluctance, even the inability, of the delivery system to amalgamate these divisions and to incorporate them into the structure of general education. Ironically, then, the very existence of the groups which call for mainstreaming acts in a way to deter the widespread adoption of the concept. It will be necessary to find a way to reconcile what seem to be antithetical notions; separate special programs for exceptional needs students and educating all students in the most normal setting possible.

The structure of the organization has a pervasive influence on its policy. In terms of special education, the dissolution of categorical designations and the provision of a continuum of services to all children is, in fact, inhibited by the existing organizational structure. State departments of special education distribute state and federal dollars to local education agencies on the basis of the number of categorically identified individuals. Further, the need for financial support is contingent upon the specification of various populations according to traditional labels. As long as financing is inextricably tied to categorical labels, so too will the policy and structure of the delivery system be ordered.

Theorists recognize the fundamental organizational need for certainty. Thompson (1960) points out, however, that in organizations where "... knowledge of cause/ effect relationships is known to be incomplete, organizations under rationality norms evaluate component units in terms of organizational rationality."² The educational en-

terprise operates on a clearly imperfect technological base. That is, no universal truths guide all practitioners in the delivery of their services to clients. Educational sub-components, then, tend to be judged, not in terms of absolute empirical standards, but rather, in terms of the unit's ability to meet expectations of other units with which it is interdependent. General education, not designed to be universally functional, judges special education in terms of its ability to deal with special populations of clients. The concept of mainstreaming, if carried to its logical conclusion, could thus render the special education sub-component impotent in the eyes of general educators.

Similarly, the imperfect nature of the technological base in education is related to the problem of imprecise measurement faced by educators. Increasingly, teachers, already uncertain of the efficacy of their methods, are being threatened with the spectre of accountability. This term itself is not defined clearly and often engenders free-floating anxiety among teachers and administrators alike. The addition of "hard to teach" handicapped youngsters with special problems requiring special skills and methods, in the light of such a possibility, should be understood easily as a source of concern. A clear, concise and exact meaning must be attached to the concept of mainstreaming. The vagaries of diverse interpretations must be removed so that the concept may be operationalized, evaluated and modified for specific individuals and populations. Failure to recognize this inherent technological limitation of the educational delivery system causes a gap between public expectations and professional capabilities. Special programs, methods, personnel and organizations were necessitated by the inability of the existing system to effectively serve handicapped populations. Rather than redesign or modify the existing system, a separate sub-unit was created to deal with the special problems presented. Meanwhile, the general education system continued as before. Teacher training, administrative structure and methodological practice all remained largely unchanged. What, then, has changed to enable handicapped youngsters to be served adequately in the regular education structure? The widespread reaction of anxiety among general educators would seem to indicate that there have been no fundamental operational changes. Mainstreaming, then, represents a change in what is expected from the delivery system rather than a change in any capability by that system. This is the origin of much of the reaction among general educators, particularly those held most accountable, the administrators.

Finally, the creation and maintenance of a separate delivery system for handicapped individuals has resulted in a certain amount of competition, inevitable among sub-components of the same organization. There has been the need to siphon off a share of financial resources to support special education, a much higher per unit cost operation. This factor has been the subject of increased criticism as funds have become increasingly scarce. It should be noted that this factor may have as much to do with the current demand for mainstreaming as any other influence, especially when considered in light of some of the efficacy studies which show little return for the special education dollar. More important from the perspective of the general education administrator, has been the emphasis among special educators of their separate status. During times when general education has lost

revenues and clients, special education has continued to spend a seemingly inexhaustible supply of money. In districts forced to cut professional staff and operate with inadequate supplies and equipment, special education programs continued to carpet classrooms, acquire sophisticated equipment and add new teachers. Such independence from the common plight of general education has been a very real factor both among teachers and administrators in creating barriers to the acceptance of the mainstreaming movement.

Even prosperity in the face of general education's poverty might have been overcome, however, had it not been for one tragic condition. In order to justify such great per unit costs for special education it was necessary to show a disparity in the needs of these youngsters. Programs thus funded were not, by law, to include youngsters not specifically identified (via the medical model) as so handicapped. Financial arrangements continue to reimburse on a categorical or program basis for a specified identifiable, uniquely handicapped population of youngsters. Mainstreaming, it would seem, is by law a one-way street. The full continuum of services exists to serve youngsters specifically identified as handicapped, but is not totally available to those not so identified. Teachers of the mentally retarded who take "non-retarded" youngsters into their classroom for reading instruction technically are in violation of the law. Certainly, the structure does not encourage this "reverse integration."

Summary

As a social justice concept, full participation in all aspects of society by all members of society is a noble and worthy goal. As a legal mandate to educators, however, it may not be a practical or reasonable expectation without recognition of such system variables which inhibit or work against full implementation. While it may be that adherence to new social expectations eventually will bring about such changes, there are many barriers which operate to make these modifications slow in coming and painful in the process. Among the factors discussed herein have been the natural traditionalism and conservatism of educators which cause a resistance to change and several organizational factors which inhibit change or cause a negative reaction to it. Among such organizational characteristics are sunk costs, specialization of function, the influence of structure on policy, the incomplete technology of education, the high per unit cost, and the relative independence of special education from the common plight of other sub-units. While such factors individually and collectively do not preclude the successful integration of handicapped youngsters, they do provide formidable obstacles to the ready adoption of such a philosophy among general educators. The extent to which these, and other concerns, are dealt with by those who anticipate such changes will determine the degree of success in reaching the mainstreaming goal.

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Evaluation of instruction is a complicated activity.

Measuring teacher effectiveness

By Dorothy R. Bleyer

The Undergraduate Teaching and Curriculum Committee at Southern Illinois University appointed by the vice president for academic affairs was charged to develop guidelines to be used by the various schools and colleges within the university in formulating procedures for evaluating instruction within the academic units. As a member of the committee, the writer prepared this article which reviews and summarizes recent literature on the evaluation of teaching effectiveness at the tertiary level.

The purpose of this endeavor is not to investigate whether such evaluation should occur. For indeed, it is axiomatic to state that evaluation of instruction always takes place. Teachers constantly are evaluated by students, administrators, colleagues, and the public. It is rather the purpose of this article to provide information which will assist administrators and ad hoc committees for review and evaluation in answering the following questions.

- 1) Shall the evaluation of instruction be systematized by the development of evaluative methodology?
- 2) Who shall be the evaluators?
- 3) What criteria shall be used for measuring teaching effectiveness?
- 4) How shall the information be collected and processed?
- 5) How shall the results of evaluation be used?

Teacher evaluation has been with us for as long as teaching has occurred; however, the methods of evaluation and the emphases placed upon it have changed with social and economic factors throughout different periods of our history. Some writers place the search for a valid index of teaching skill among Mankind's Perennial Quests, third in order after the search for the Holy Grail and the Fountain of Youth.

We are still in the **Decade of Accountability** (Austin, 1971). Watergate inquiries, new guidelines for the use of human subjects in research, "Nader's Raiders," cost accounting in the schools, environmentalist groups—these and more reflect the growing concern over the degree to which individuals and institutions should be held responsible for the consequences of their decisions and actions. That teachers need to be accountable is no longer in question. The present debate is over what approaches to accountability are appropriate for the assessment of teaching effectiveness.

Philosophical views of proper methods of teacher evaluation vary from the very informal, subjective, qualitative assessment of a professional (Biddle and Ellena, 1964) to the rigidly structured statistical approach which closely resembles the management-by-objectives technique used by industry (Bolton, 1973). Both of these views have substantive studies and writings to support them.

There are, however, several factors existing at the present time which seem to call for the pragmatic response of some type of formal evaluation of instruction at all levels:

1) Governmental controls

The public discontent regarding educational quality has manifested itself in some states as legislatively enacted educational assessment programs. In California, the legislature enacted a mandatory teacher-evaluation system (The Stull Act) for public schools there.

Other governmental agencies at the state and national levels, such as the Illinois Board of Higher Education, Division of Adult, Vocational and Technical Education, and HEW, which control or influence allocations of funds to educational institutions, increasingly are requiring evidence of quality performance which, in many cases, involves teaching competency.

2) Institutional policies

Internal pressures also are mandating evaluation of teaching. **The Guidelines for 1976 Promotion and Tenure Recommendations** prepared by the vice president for academic affairs at Southern Illinois University at Carbondale state, "The first step in promotion and tenure decision making is an evaluation of teaching effectiveness . . . It is vital that information concerning teaching effectiveness be included as part of the evaluation."

In an article in a recent issue of the student newspaper, **The Daily Egyptian**, SIU-C President Warren Brandt lists mandatory student evaluation of instructors as one of the important campus issues. Other colleges and universities report similar efforts to require evaluation of instruction.

3) Sophistication of research design

The effectiveness of an instructional treatment may be measured by student performance. Since the

sionals, to evaluate the quality of services." (NEA Proceedings, 1961, 189-93)

Potentially, administrators, students, peers, self, an outside group, or any combination of these can engage in formal evaluation. All of these groups informally evaluate teachers now. Each of the potential evaluators brings a different perspective to the evaluation—a perspective which may limit or enhance the validity of his assessment.

A review of the literature shows there are strengths and weaknesses of each source of evaluation. These strengths and weaknesses are summarized and presented in tabular form. (See Fig. 1)

Establishing the criteria for assessing teacher effectiveness may be the most complex element of the entire evaluation process. The writers are in general agreement that there is diversity in criteria according to level of instruction, type of subject matter, situational constraints, in addition to other factors. McNeil says, "Increasingly those in college are recognizing that good teaching is not a phenomenon, but a class of diverse phenomena, with various criteria and sometimes incompatible traits." (McNeil, 1971, p. 27)

Most sources consulted included the following as possible criteria for teacher evaluation: professional qualifications, techniques of instruction, teaching results (measured by student performance), classroom management, social relations (attitudes toward students, colleagues, administrators), and personal characteristics. It is a general recommendation that the criteria for evaluation be developed jointly by those (or their representatives) who are to be involved in the evaluation process, using a systematic and comprehensive approach. Ryans (1957) found that when criteria were developed from empirically supported and rational considerations, they were likely to be relevant and usable.

In selecting measures for evaluations, a major rule of thumb is "select the instrument that best fits your purpose," i.e., identify the measurement techniques and strategies that provide the data desired. Practical considerations in the choice of instruments are the (1) cost factor, (2) time factor, and (3) source factor. Other considerations in the choice of instruments are relevance, reliability, validity, and ease of administration.

Instruments which are being used with varying degrees of success include rating scales, structured and non-structured comments, systematic observation, pupil-test performance, follow-up studies of students, and video tape or audio tape recordings of classroom presentations. There is overwhelming evidence that the first two are used most often and possibly least reliable. Their advantage is the low cost and the ease of administration. Reliability of rating scales may be increased by including low-inference items and by training the evaluators.

Systematic observations minimize the influence of observer bias. The observer records whether a specific behavior occurred but makes no value judgment as to whether the behavior is "good" or "bad." Use has shown this instrument to be reliable by a high degree of interobserver agreement. There are weaknesses of this instrument. Negative factors not accounted for may be so potent that they cancel out the teacher's positive action. Another weakness of all observation instruments is that tendency-type research studies are being used to make particular judgments about an individual teacher. Most writers feel pupil-test performance should not be used for

purposes of teacher evaluation as studies indicate that pupil-test performance tends to be a function of intelligence rather than teacher effectiveness.

A follow-up study of former students in the form of a questionnaire might be one of the most valuable measures of teacher competence. However, the relatively high cost and difficulty of implementation has limited its use.

A rather recent innovation in teacher evaluation is video and audio tape recordings of mini-presentations in the classroom. This measure has real potential for use in self-evaluation for purposes of instructional improvement.

This evaluation tool was used by the writer in a mathematics class during the previous semester along with feedback from a student evaluation team. The team of students volunteered to meet regularly with a resource person from the University's Learning Resources Center to discuss the instructor's strengths and weaknesses. The learning specialist relayed the students' remarks to the instructor with suggestions for improvement as appropriate. The exercise was found to be constructive and non-threatening.

The evaluation of teachers may serve many purposes: to improve teaching, to reward superior performance, to supply information for modifying assignments, to protect both the individual and the institution in legal matters, and to generate plans for individual growth and development. There seems to be general agreement among educators that improvement of instruction is the most important purpose. Teachers' reception to formal evaluation efforts tends to be far more positive if a formative evaluation program is developed which includes opportunities and facilities to correct weaknesses and deficiencies. It is considered virtually unethical to subject teachers to the intense scrutiny of current evaluation procedures without offering developmental programs for their use.

Since there is increasing pressure from boards of education and taxpayers to reward superior performance, evaluation may serve to identify those deserving salary increases based on merit. However, writers claim this use of evaluation is in direct conflict with the viewpoint of the majority of teachers. They suggest the teachers' major objection to evaluation for this purpose stems from the subjective nature of most evaluation systems. The results of a formalized evaluation process surely are more objective and to be preferred over other measures in use at the present time. In a recent study reported with tongue-in-cheek, Clifford Hooker (1978) found physical proximity to the merit rater (distances between offices) to be a better predictor of salary increase than teaching load, quantity of publications, or number of graduate students supervised.

Information gathered in the evaluation process may be used to modify teachers' assignments, either by promotion, changes in teaching load, or release. While these are necessary activities in educational institutions, when evaluation emphasizes the summative aspect, it tends to be viewed negatively and to undermine staff morale. Some writers contend, however, that better staff morale and a better instructional program result from a well-defined system of evaluation and orderly dismissal procedures for incompetent teachers.

Emphasis on the legal aspects of teacher evaluation can be viewed negatively by teachers unless they realize that their own protection against unjust charges as well as that of the institution can be assured by documentation of performance.

SUMMARY

Researchers agree evaluation of instruction is a complicated activity, difficult to conceptualize fully in all its ramifications, and even more difficult to implement with sound substance and fair process. The writings reviewed by the author agree upon the following general recommendations:

- 1) that evaluators using standard techniques recognize their weaknesses and interpret the results accordingly;
- 2) that researchers continue to study and refine the more promising techniques;
- 3) that all persons who are to be involved in the evaluation system also participate in the development of it;
- 4) that the evaluation process include multiple, rather than single, indicators of a teacher's skill, and
- 5) that the emphasis be on helping an individual to improve his contribution to the learning experience.

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**Combined teaching efforts
give variety to the classroom.**

A blueprint for building an instructional team

By William Sanderson

With the advent of team teaching in the 1960s, teachers and administrators began to implement instructional team units within their buildings. The degree of change necessary to move from autonomous teaching to a teaching team is not great, but it must be planned well in order to be effective.

In an instructional sense, a teaching team consists of all the teachers of a certain subject and grade level. For example, all the ninth grade mathematics instructors within a building may unite their efforts to form a teaching team. The central concept of a team teaching unit is utilization of resources and maximum efficiency in the use of teacher time. Instructional teams allow individual teachers to draw on the strengths of their colleagues in preparing and presenting course material. The team also allows for shared responsibility in developing instructional objectives, in making decisions, and ultimately, in accountability.

Combined teaching efforts also allow for variety in teaching techniques often impossible to find in the autonomous classroom. This added aspect of variety may be a tool to help motivate students who have been low achievers in the classroom, as well as providing highly motivated students with the opportunity for more individualization than would be possible in the regular classroom.

Some activities used successfully in a team situation include large group instruction for lectures, films, filmstrips, and guest speakers, thereby freeing one or more instructors to work with students in need of special help or students working individually on projects; rotation of classes between teachers to allow the instructor to prepare a lesson of special interest to him and present it to a variety of students; small group discussions with one instructor while the remainder of the students are engaged in another activity with other instructors; and recitation sessions for further explanation of activities done earlier in the unit, usually conducted by one or more instructors while other students are pursuing different tasks.

How, then, can an effective team be molded? Outlined below are five steps, through which teachers should progress to form a solid team. Each step is defined in terms of time parameters, and selected objectives are given for each one to guide the group through the process.

STEP I

Objectives: To outline team format
To define units to be taught
To select specific units for individual preparation and presentation to the team.

Time: Two meetings, held no sooner than one semester before instigating the team unit in actual instruction.

One of the most important aspects of team teaching is the ability to work together. At the first meeting, a general consensus should be reached in the following areas:

1. What units shall be taught in the course?
2. Which individual teacher shall be responsible for preparing each unit?
3. What goals should we have as a team to guide our teaching throughout the year?
4. What instructional objectives should be used in directing the course through the year?
5. Can we work together smoothly and without major conflict?
6. Which one of us should be the "team leader," and be responsible for calling meetings, intrateam communication, and scheduling? (Generally, the team leader should be elected from the group.)

Once the consensus has been reached, the teachers should decide on time factors involved in their course. District and state regulations govern, for example, the makeup of certain courses. The group should set up a timetable for each unit in terms of weeks needed, and a timetable for the year to insure that all units are included.

When that is completed, the members of the team should select the units they prefer to teach. Other units should be divided equally among members. At this point, the members each need to write the specific objectives for their unit, based on the group opinion obtained earlier. It is best to do this individually, then meet as a group to edit the objectives and consolidate them as much as possible. Nothing is sacred when the team constructs a yearly schedule. Since each member is an individual, differences are bound to occur over teaching methodology or strategy. You may have to yield some of your ideas to

another member of the team, but you should expect the same courtesy when your unit is discussed.

STEP II

In area one you produced a master schedule for the year, developed objectives, and chose units to develop. Area two deals with the construction of the actual units you plan to teach the following year.

Objectives: To plan individual units for instruction.
To review individual units with the team.

Time: Three months—one meeting.

Since you maintain a significant degree of autonomy in writing your units, you should feel free to construct them in any manner you think feasible. Remember, though, that you are now planning for the **team** instead of just yourself, and plans may need to be slightly more detailed than usual. Also, your unit will be taught to **all** the students of the course simultaneously, thereby requiring more copies of tests, handouts, study guides, assignments, and other materials. With those things in mind, you should build your unit around some of the essential team teaching concepts, such as:

1. Use of large group—If lectures or demonstrations are to be given, you should try to implement them in a large group if possible. You need to tell your colleagues what they need to do during those periods, and provide them with the material to do it. You may wish to construct a "proctor" schedule for movies and filmstrips, so only one or two teachers are present with the class and the others are free for other activities.
2. Individual strengths—If members of your team exhibit expertise in certain areas, let them use it to the students' benefit during your unit. You may wish to incorporate a rotation of classes so all students in the team unit can experience that person's technique or ability in their area.
3. Don't be afraid to include field trips, since you now have several instructors. You can divide classes in such a manner that only small groups go on trips, while the rest are working elsewhere.
4. Individualization—If there are students who need special attention, make sure they receive it during your unit. It may be feasible to designate one teacher to work with such students.

When all the teachers have finished their units, a meeting should be held to review them to make sure they fit the objectives outlined in area one.

STEP III

Objectives: To consolidate the individual unit plans into a total course format.

Time: Two meetings.

Once individual plans are finished, a great deal of consolidation needs to be done. Each unit needs to be placed in order, with the others, to insure proper scope and sequence for the course. Also, for each unit, various secretarial needs should be completed.

The following questions should be answered during your area three meetings:

1. How should the units be arranged for the utmost ef-

fect in teaching the course?

2. Can we as a team combine certain aspects of all units (such as proctor schedules) so we have some degree of consistency between units?
3. Who will be responsible for typing and collating the handout material for the unit? Will that person have adequate time to do that work without spending an inordinate amount of time outside of school?
4. Which member of the team shall be responsible for working with students in need of special help? Should it always be the same teacher? (In some cases, members of the team may have had training in that area, so it would be best to have them free to work with these students if possible.)

At the completion of area three, each member of the team will know what units are to be taught, which instructor is teaching them, the length of each, proctor schedule(s) to be used, and individual responsibilities for each unit.

STEP IV

Objectives: To find facilities to accommodate your needs for the year.
To schedule those facilities as needed.

Time: One meeting.

When your team has reached area four, the only obstacle that remains is scheduling. Each member should offer suggestions for large group rooms, small group rooms, or other mechanical needs of the team. When a list of these rooms and needs has been completed, the team leader should visit the principal and schedule the facilities as needed. If a difficulty arises, there is ample time to explore other possibilities before the course begins.

STEP V

Objectives: To evaluate the team teaching unit at the completion of the course.

You may wish to review the team status at the end of the year. The best way to do this is to meet as a group, and study the objectives you established in area one the year before. The following questions may be helpful:

1. Did we accomplish most of the objectives we established for the course?
2. Did interpersonal relationships among team members help or hinder the team's instructional effectiveness?
3. Did we each get to utilize our individual strengths to the fullest extent during the year?
4. What activities seemed to be the most successful during the year?
5. What problems were encountered as a team this year?
6. Did we accomplish more as a team during the year than we would have teaching individually?

The evaluation step is optional, of course, but it is highly recommended because it affords you the opportunity to strengthen your team for the coming year. It may be wise to conduct an evaluation at mid-term using a format similar to the one above to help spot flaws or weaknesses developing within your team before they grow into more serious problems.

Many perceive the decision-making role of the department head as becoming increasingly complex.

Department heads as decision makers

By Janice Wissman

The academic department as the basic organizational unit within a university is a widely accepted assumption (Millet, 1978; McHenry and Associates, 1977; Corson, 1975; and Bolton and Boyer, 1973). The administrator who traditionally heads the department is usually referred to as chairman or head.

The department as the locus of decision making is emphasized in the literature. Roach (1976) estimated that 80 percent of all university decisions take place at the departmental level. Dykes (1968) and McLaughlin and others (1975) studied faculty participation in decision making and noted the most significant participation level in decision making was at the departmental level.

It is evident administrators of academic departments play an important role in decision making. The importance of this role results from their position (administrator) and from the organized unit with which they are affiliated (department).

The purpose of this study was to explore decision making by department heads through a review of literature and interviews with five department heads in a selected College of Home Economics at a Midwest land-grant university. Specifically, the study sought answers to the following questions: 1) What types of decisions do department heads make? 2) What future critical decisions do department heads predict? 3) Is the decision-making power of department heads increasing or decreasing? and

4) What kind of experiences could contribute positively to decision-making skills utilized by department heads?

FINDINGS

Types of Decisions

Corson (1976) emphasized the variability among departments in relation to the types of decisions made by department chairmen. Findings from interviews with five department heads (1979), however, seem to be in agreement with such authors as Balderston (1974) and Hoyt and Spangler (1977) as they note department heads tend to make similar types of decisions regardless of the department. The decision types identified related to personnel (including faculty placement, evaluation, tenure, promotion, and salary), curriculum (including scheduling course offerings), and budget. Only two out of the five department heads interviewed identified student-related decisions. One department administrator noted space- and time-related decisions.

Personnel decisions appeared to be the most difficult for the department heads. There seemed to be no consensus concerning what types of decisions take the most time. Criteria used for decision making by these selected department heads related primarily to departmental goals and the individuals directly affected by the decision. When confronted with decisions that have both long-term and short-term consequences, one department head said she almost always places more weight on the long-term consequences before she arrives at a decision (Spears, 1979).

Most writers perceive the decision-making role of department chairmen as becoming increasingly complex (Brann and Emmet, 1972; McIntosh and Maier, 1976). Future critical decisions identified by the five department heads interviewed (1979) related to faculty evaluation, dismissal of faculty members, space, and goal setting (especially critical in consideration of so many external pressures). One department head expressed special concern about the external pressure to take programs and classes off campus (Spears, 1979).

Power and Autonomy of Department Heads in Decision Making

The autonomy and power of a department head in the decision-making process both appear to be affected by such variables as pressures outside the college, outside the university, within the department, the professional field, the personality of the dean and the decision-making philosophy of the department head.

Gross and Grambsch (1977) reported their research findings that indicated the power role of department chairmen had declined between 1964 and 1971, while Corson (1975) noted the curtailment of autonomy of department chairmen due to external pressures. R.L.D. Morse (1979), a department head for 24 years, noted an overall decrease in power not only due to external pressures but also due to internal pressures from faculty and students. Morse (1979) and Huyck (1979) both emphasized the part that the personality of a dean plays in the amount of power and autonomy a department head has. McLaughlin and others (1975) even noted the differences in power for departmentally-made decisions among different colleges. (In their study, departmental chairmen in Colleges of Arts and Sciences had more power than their counterparts in other colleges including Colleges of Home Economics.) Huyck (1979) expressed her philosophy of decision making that

is in agreement with Hoy and Miskel (1979) as they all point out the need for autonomy by the administrator in making certain decisions. Huyck (1979) said there are situations when only the department head has access to the necessary information for decision making.

Preparation for Decision-Making Roles of Department Heads

Roach (1976), believing the role of department head is becoming more significant, points out the need for training for the position. McKeachie (1968) suggested all scholars are prepared adequately for becoming a department head because of their scholarly habits related to problem solving. Brann (1972) disagreed. He said scholars have worked with the tools of analysis not synthesis. Furthermore, scholars' preference for contemplation and reflection is not always appropriate in situations that call for quick decision making. McIntosh and Maier (1976) remind their readers that different skills (creative management skills) are needed now rather than the coping and balancing-the-budget skills administrators needed in the late '60s and early '70s. The five department heads interviewed (1979) recommended a management-training background together with professional expertise as important preparation for the decision-making roles of a department head. These experiences were cited because of the perspective they provide. One department head added, "One must also know how to select a good secretary" (Morse, 1979).

Department heads are decision makers by virtue of their role (administrator) and organizational unit affiliation (department). Personnel, curriculum, and financial decisions are among the major decisions made by department heads identified in this paper. Among these decisions, personnel-related decisions are the ones most difficult to make. Departmental goals and those individuals directly affected by the respective decisions were the decision-making criteria most often cited. Goal setting, personnel evaluation, faculty dismissal and space-related decisions were identified as future critical decisions. External pressures were recognized as contributing to loss of overall power of department heads. Management training was an example of one of the experiences considered appropriate for preparing one to make departmental decisions.

CONCLUSIONS

This article does not attempt to deal with the theoretical constructs of decision making. It does, however, reveal the types of decisions department heads make as they operate on both a horizontal and vertical plane. Most of the perceptions of the interviewed department heads are consistent with the findings in the literature concerning decision making. It is interesting to note that while many believe the overall power of department heads has decreased because of external pressures, the decision-making role of the department head is recognized as becoming more complex. Decision-making programs for newly selected or elected department heads, would-be department heads, and experienced department heads appear to have an audience. As colleges and universities continue to seek to serve new markets, it behooves them to consider such programs.

NOTES

1. Department heads interviewed included: Jane Bowers, Ph.D.;

Elnora Huyck, Ph.D.; R.L.D. Morse, Ph.D.; Mary Don Peterson Ed.D.; and Marian Spears, Ph.D.

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Balderston, Frederick E., "Constituencies and Academic Organizations," *Managing Today's University*, San Francisco, California: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1974, pp. 38-72.

Balderston says departments as units of academic organizations deliver the main products of the university. Decision-making roles of department chairmen identified relate to course assignment duties, budgetary resources, and personnel administration. He points to the difficulties department administrators encounter as they become involved in satisfying both central administrators and department colleagues. The university administration regards the chairman as a first line supervisor interpreting and enforcing university policies and regulations, and making "sensible" budget allocations. Department members, on the other hand, regard the chairman as a colleague and advocate.

Baldrige, J. Victor, David V. Curtis, George Ecker, and Gary R. Riley, *Policy Making and Effective Leadership*, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1978.

This book is one of several publications that grew out of the Stanford Project on Academic Governance directed by Baldrige between 1970 and 1974. The authors contend that if one is to examine the decision structures and processes of colleges and universities, one must study the academic departments—the center of professional activities.

Bolton, Charles K. and Ronald K. Boyer, "Organizational Development for Academic Departments," *The Journal of Higher Education*, May, 1973, pp. 352-369.

The authors suggest that because the department is the basic organizational unit of the university, the adaptive success of the larger institution is largely contingent upon the ability of the department to adapt creatively to the forces for change.

Brann, James and Thomas A. Emmet, editors, *The Academic Department or Division Chairman: A Complex Role*, Detroit, Michigan: Balamp Publishing, 1972.

This book is an outgrowth of a series of institutes and seminars sponsored by Higher Education Executive Associates between 1968 and 1970. Twenty-eight papers—all dealing directly or indirectly with the roles of department chairmen—are included in this publication. In the first paper, James Brann (pp. 5-11) discusses the department chairman as the foreman in higher education—the person who sees that the work gets done. He reminds the reader that this foreman has been trained for a life as a scholar, not for administration. R.J. Henle, a university president, in excerpts from a talk, "The Structure of Academic Organization," (pp. 227-237) points out that department administration consists basically of making decisions and seeing that they are carried out. Because administration has become so complex and is so unlike the field for which most scholars are prepared, fewer scholars are willing to be department chairmen. One solution to this dilemma, according to Henle, is to hire administrative assistants to assist professional administrators.

Corson, John L., "Leadership in the College or University," *The Governance of Colleges and Universities*, N.Y.: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1975, pp. 249-273.

In a chapter on leadership, Corson points out that in a time when decisive governance is great as it is now in higher education, the authority of those responsible for leadership—the department chairman, the dean, the president, and the trustees—has been limited. Corson notes the department as the basic organizational block of a college or university. He defines effective departmental leadership then identifies constraints for leadership.

Dressel, Paul L. and William H. Faricy, "Autonomy and Academic Freedom," *Return to Responsibility*, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1972, pp. 13-27.

The authors note autonomy in a university is affected by the interdependence of its components. Department autonomy in decision making is especially affected by the resources available and the restrictions imposed upon their use. Other restrictions

related to autonomy are cited.

Dykes, Archie R., **Faculty Participation in Academic Decision Making**, American Council on Education, 1968.

This monograph is a report of a study undertaken to ascertain faculty members' perception of their "proper roles" in academic decision making and what they see as their actual role. Dr. Dykes, in this study based upon personal interviews with the faculty of one college (Liberal Arts and Sciences) in a large Midwest university, concludes the most significant participation level in decision making is not in the senate, or in committees, or in the local chapter of AAUP, but in the department.

Gross, Edward and Paul V. Grambsch, "Power Structure in Universities and Colleges," **Governing Academic Organizations** (Gary L. Riley and J. Victor Baldrige, editors), Berkeley, California: McCutchen Publishing Corporation, 1977, pp. 26-41.

The authors report on a research study where they compared the power structure within private and public universities in 1964 and again in 1971. They note that most individuals, involved internally or externally with the university, either held to their former ability to control others or had increased their power with the exception of department chairmen. They believe the implication may be serious for chairmen when considering they slipped from eighth place (1964) to ninth place in 1971. They note that the individuals who increased their power considerably include such "outsiders" as legislators, regents, government and such "insiders" as students and faculty. Top administrators appeared to remain in similar "power-perceived positions" between 1964 and 1971.

Hoy, Wayne K. and Cecil E. Miskel, "Decision Making," **Educational Administration: Theory, Research, and Practice**, N.Y.: Random House, 1978, pp. 212-237.

Noting that decision making is a major responsibility of all administrators, the authors review six basic assumptions related to decision making, then discuss the steps in the process. Studies related to decision making in educational administration are cited. Also included is a report on a simulated study in administrative decision making they call one of the best and most comprehensive to date in the field.

Hoyt, Donald P. and Ronald K. Spangler, **Administrative Effectiveness of the Academic Department Head, Research Report #42**, Manhattan, Kansas, Kansas State University: Office of Educational Research, July, 1977.

Background information in this study identifies functions of department heads. The study—the first of a series by Dr. Hoyt and associates—was intended to develop a procedure for evaluating administrative effectiveness of a department head. The instrument is discussed and presented together with validity and reliability information. Recommendations are included for further use.

McHenry, D.E. and Associates, editors, **Academic Departments: Problems, Variations and Alternatives**, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1977.

This book, devoted entirely to academic departments in higher education, is divided into three sections with various authors responsible for the individual chapters. The history of departments in higher education is presented together with a defense of departments as a basic unit of higher education. Strengths of departmental organizations relate primarily to graduate education and promotion of academic staff, while criticism relates to undergraduate education. Alternatives to traditional departmental structures are presented as they exist in the United States and Great Britain. The last section of the book dealing with leadership within academic departments has implications for one exploring the decision-making roles of department leaders.

McIntosh, Elaine and Robert Maier, "Management Skills in a Changing Academic Environment," **Educational Record**, Spring, 1976, pp. 87-91.

The authors emphasize that different decision-making skills are needed by administrators in higher education today. Problems of retrenchment call for administrators trained in "creative management." In addition, today's administrators must possess special attributes of courage, resourcefulness and independence. McKeachie, Wilbert, "Memo to New Department Chairmen," **Educational Record**, Spring, 1968, pp. 221-227.

The author, a department chairman selected from within the faculty, assures the reader that it is the variety and complexity of the chairman's problems that make the job fascinating to one trained for problem solving. One's scholarly habits such as the ability to analyze a problem, amass available evidence and consider the adequacy of several alternative hypotheses are as relevant and useful in solving the problems of the department as they are in scholarly research—only the variables are different. He discusses recruitment, faculty participation, course assignments, research opportunities, committees and dealings with deans.

McLaughlin, Gerald W., James W. Montgomery, and Leslie F. Malpass, "Selected Characteristics, Roles, Goals and Satisfaction of Department Chairmen in State and Land-Grant Institutions," **Research in Higher Education**, Vol. 3, 1975, pp. 243-259.

This article reports the findings of a survey of department chairmen in 38 state universities. Based upon information from these department chairmen, major roles are classified administrative, academic and leadership. Those surveyed say they were most comfortable with the role of academician, and least enjoyed the administrative role. Slightly more than one-half of those surveyed reported major decision making at the departmental level, with veto power at the university level. Department chairmen in arts and sciences (as compared with chairmen in agriculture, business, education, engineering, home economics and medicine), reported fewer major decisions made at university and college levels. Correspondingly, they said more decisions were made by departmental committees.

Millat, John D., **New Structures of Campus Power**, San Francisco, California: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1978.

In the last chapter related to the future of academic governance, Millat displays his belief that the academic department is where the action is in higher education. He supports this belief by quoting statements and studies by contemporary leaders in higher education. Millat, a former university president, recognizes the important roles department chairmen play in managing the primary unit of a college or university.

Roach, James, "The Academic Department Chairperson: Functions and Responsibilities," **Educational Record**, Winter, 1976, pp. 13-23.

Roach estimates that 80 percent of all university administrative decisions take place at the department level. Pointing to the important role the department chairman takes in shaping the educational mission of a school, he notes limited literature describing the functions, responsibilities, and lack of training of department chairmen.

Smart, John C., "Duties Performed by Department Chairmen in Holland's Model Environments," **Journal of Educational Psychology**, April, 1976, pp. 194-204.

Smart conducted research to demonstrate that chairmen of academic departments (classified according to Holland's Model Environments) devote different amounts of time to selected dimensions of their job. His findings included among others that chairmen in artistic, social, and conventional environments tend to devote more time to curriculum decision making than chairmen in other departments. The tendency of chairmen in realistic and investigative environments to devote more time to "graduate programs" and research goals duties than their colleagues in artistic, social and conventional environments supports other research findings.

A planning system should integrate academic, financial and physical planning.

Developing an educational planning system

By Sidney E. Brown

This article delineates the more relevant features that should be considered when developing an adequate planning system for public education. It spells out data requirements and demonstrates how they fit into the described planning system. The final section is a statement of conclusions with respect to current approaches generally adopted versus those developed in this paper.

A Planning Structure

The basic characteristics of a good planning system are: (1) the integration of all forms of planning into one planning process, (2) the integration of the budget process into the planning process, (3) planning and budgeting for more than one budget period, (4) planning and budgeting within a framework of objective (goal) accomplishment, and (5) planning and budgeting based on continuous updating over time (Gulko, 1970).

In school districts, the planning system should integrate academic, financial, and physical planning. The specified level for which the system is built should be large enough so that the executive responsible for the unit spends the majority of his time in planning and evaluating rather than in making operating decisions. A system developed for a school district should include a management information system which serves as the basis of

both achieving efficiency at the school and department levels and evaluating the degree of their efficiency by the executive (Sutterfield, 1971).

A program structure based upon the objectives to be accomplished is of vital importance. The objectives and, thus, the program structure should group activities in terms of outputs which benefit society as defined by the local community. It is the program structure which provides the superintendent and school board with a benefit-to-society orientation. Benefits, however, cannot be considered totally independent of costs; it is necessary to obtain some measure of costs by program. The school administrator also must consider the resource supply as well as the output demand. He should be as concerned with the school distribution capability to achieve the subprogram objective as he is with the desirability of the objective. In the case of programs, on the other hand, the priority listing is more a question of long-range desirability than feasibility. The desirability versus feasibility concepts meet in the process of summing up the subprograms. Thus, programs serve as a basis for stating school district priorities as a guide to all decision makers in the school district.

Allocations to any given administrator (principals and department heads in the case of instructional programs) are contingent upon the unit's contribution to subprograms. The allocation to administrators is a decision which is cooperatively worked out between the executive and the administrative levels of management after plans for the subprograms have been determined. Allocations to the educational unit (school or department) are to be supported by information from the management information system and reconciled to the subprogram budget.

It is important to note that this is the point where the executive level is most closely associated with operating decision making. The executive level is the planning level providing priorities as guidelines and direction through subprogram budgeting. The executive level is involved with operations only in cooperation with the administrative level and then only to the extent of responsibility budgeting.

To reiterate, this is a planning system which requires evaluation of operations in terms of efficiency and effectiveness and is not a system for making operating decisions. A planning decision system provides the basis for placing priorities on objectives, A, B, C, and so on, and helps the executive ask the right questions of those responsible for the operations to insure efficiency and effective performance of activities. An operating decision system would provide an administrator with a basis for determining whether method X is a better method than Y in accomplishing a specific objective. The schema on page 15 illustrates the concept of a planning decision system united with a program structure by level.

The decision-making process described above is an essential component of a program planning system. Many variations are possible from the process presented. In order to design the system one must first develop a decision-making process. Data requirements are entirely dependent upon the decision process part of the system.

Data Requirements

Knowledge about the relative values to society of the various programs and information about costs of achieving the desired levels of outputs are necessary. The relevant cost data need not be derived from, but may be

supported by, cost data developed from the books of the school district (Barton, 1971).

The data must provide (1) a basis for determining the reasonable and logical differences in costs between subprograms, and (2) a basis for evaluating the school district's efficiency in achieving the subprogram objectives. The latter evaluation is facilitated by providing data which give the executive guides for asking the right questions of those responsible for the administration of activities. To determine cost differences in subprograms, it is necessary to focus upon the component parts of the subprogram, the program elements. A program element is the smallest possible grouping of activities or a single activity undertaken to achieve a stated objective. In academic programs a single course appears to fit this definition and is here considered a program element; thus, a cost per course is required.

Converting course costs into per student terms further allows costs to be attributed to subprograms and their outputs. An analogy can be made to the cost of goods in process in business. Goods in process become final products and are then outputs. The businessman is aware of the cost of the goods in process at each stage from raw material to final product. Yet, even defective or rejected goods in process (such as dropouts, failures, and transfers in education) which do not become final products are fully costed. Similarly, a cost per student allows accounting for cost at each stage of the educational process.

Therefore, it is proposed that teaching, departmental administration, material supplies, equipment, space, and school administration are costs to be allocated on a per course basis. These objects of expenditures are the causes of differences in course costs and, thus, in program costs. Other categories of expenditures and cost

may be necessary, but should be allocated to courses and programs only if they are course or program specific. Therefore, the cost of the school library should not be allocated on a per course or per student basis because this cost is assumed equal for all courses and students and does not result in significant differences in program costs.

Along with the measurement of benefits, this cost data becomes the basis for considering program priorities and subprogram budgets for future years. It does not give actual program budgets but provides a basis for decisions about program budgets. The same data employed for executive planning of program priorities and subprogram budgets is also important for the measurement of management efficiency. The data described above is summed not only by program or subprograms but also by responsibility center. Course costs per student of all courses to be offered by the department represent total costs of the instruction function of an academic department.

Such desired future costs data can be compared with actual departmental costs on a quarterly or yearly basis. An analysis of the difference between desired cost and actual cost by department provides a framework for considering future resource allocations to departments and for considering the efficiency of the department administration. Cost differences by responsibility center are measures of efficiency. Analysis of cost differences should point to the need for changing the faculty makeup, the equipment needs, and other areas of the department to the department head, the responsibility center manager.

As efficiency measures of the responsibility center, the analysis of differences between desired costs and actual costs may indicate a need for changes in administrators if actions to eliminate future differences can-

PLANNING DECISION SYSTEM		
Level	Type Decision	Program Structure Level
Executive	Policy	
	(a) Program priorities as guidelines (b) Subprogram allocations	Program Subprogram
Administrative	Operating	
	(a) Staffing (b) Promotions (c) Salaries (d) Courses offered	Subprogram Program elements
	Budget	
	Allocations to responsibility centers	Subprogram
Joint: Executive and administrative		

not be demonstrated. No one can eliminate all of the differences because the responsibility center administrator does not have full control over all of the variables causing the differences.

Conclusions

Many proposed data support systems in school districts have not been based upon careful delineation of the decision-making process. They are generally based upon significantly new and complex data systems. These data systems are an inadequate basis for decision making. As the objectives that the data system is to accomplish frequently are not fully explored, they are also frequently inadequate for broad planning decisions and evaluation of administrative efficiency. Finally, many current program planning systems and their data subsystems do not emphasize the key role that academic planning must play in school districts.

This proposal provides a significant planning system with low data gathering costs. It should serve both the operating decisions and policy decision levels of the

school district and also help each administrator make the proper inquiries concerning his own operation. The executive level, now with sufficient information, should have new incentive to plan policies and to measure the administrative ability of the operating administrators. In short, the executive would not attempt to make operating decisions, a practice which ties the hands of administrators who are responsible for the efficiency of organizing, administering, and operating (managing) the activities of the school district.

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What is basic to one group is not necessarily basic to another.

Multi-cultural education and the 'basics'

By Fred Rodriguez

The "back to the basics" movement continues to be the education media event of our time. But what is meant by "back to the basics"? Might multi-cultural education be one of those "basics" needed in our system of education?

The "back to the basics" slogan suggests several messages: (1) There is a well-defined movement with clear objectives in existence for well-understood reasons; (2) There is a well-defined set of objectives relative to each discipline which may be called the basics of that discipline; and (3) At some point in our educational past, we were teaching these basics in a manner that deserves to be revived now.¹

In fact, on all three accounts, the contrary is true. Far from the movement having well-defined reasons for existence, it appears many advocates of the movement are on its "bandwagon" for reasons other than in the interest of education.

The March 1977 issue of *Phi Delta Kappan* is devoted entirely to the examination of this movement. In one article, Ben Brodinsky asserts that his search for the causes of the movement found such factors as: "nostalgia in the '70s, the public's whetted appetite for accountability, the nation's periodic swing to conservatism; the high divorce rate and the disintegration of the family, leading to demands that the schools provide the discipline which the home no longer can; the excess of permissiveness; and a

bundle of the causes in which Dr. Spock, TV, and creeping socialism are all crammed into one bag."²

Whatever the causes, I have difficulty in pinpointing just what the movement is advocating. Objectives seem to range from strict drill in the three R's, to a more vague return of religious and patriotic values to the curriculum and the elimination of such "frills" as for example, multi-cultural education. So, while one may or may not agree in spirit with the movement, absolute caution must be taken not to assume the "basics" of instruction and learning are agreed upon, as well as, understood by all. What is basic to one group of people is not necessarily basic to another.

Education in the United States historically has been Anglo-centric and dominated by the pervasive assimilationist forces in American society. A major goal of the common school was to help immigrants and ethnic group youths acquire the cultural characteristics and values of Anglo-Americans. The goals of the common school reflected those of the larger society.³ Regardless of recent legislation, which primarily is concerned with racial quotas, what has happened in the past continues to happen today. That is, minority and majority students are immersed in an educational setting that is dominated by the Anglo-centric point of view. The experience continues to be one of viewing minorities as stereotypes, or entirely omitting minorities from the curriculum. For the majority student, an opportunity to acquire a better understanding and appreciation of others, as well as of themselves, is lost once again.

Granted, today we hear of a few schools in this country that are "active" and to some extent, successfully addressing some of these important educational concerns. However, one only needs to look a bit closer at the majority of those schools to determine the causes of such "active commitment": (1) The "threat" of a lawsuit lingers over their heads. (2) There is the recent "threat" of possibly losing their federal dollars if they are not providing equal educational opportunities to all students. (3) They have lost a battle in the courtroom and have been ordered to be "active." (4) They now are receiving some form of federal financial assistance to incorporate some "new" programs designed to benefit minority students. The list of reasons for such "committed" efforts can go on, but the point is this: educators and schools across the country are involved "actively" in these educational concerns because of their reaction to some form of pressure from the community, legislation, or from the courts.

A case in point is the recent implementation of Title IX, which prohibits discrimination on the basis of sex in all educational institutions receiving federal financial assistance. The initial reaction to Title IX was very similar to, if not the same as that to minority education programs, with many, **REACTING** to this legislation as something that "we have to do," rather than examining our past educational practices and admitting to the inequality of treatment we have provided for our students and **ACTING** upon Title IX as "the right thing to do." The same is true for multi-cultural education. We only need to hold back our pride and admit that we adopted an educational philosophy and approach that has been slanted to the male, anglo-centric point of view. Then, we can begin to rectify this unfortunate situation, based on our own belief, that this is the right thing to do for all students concerned. It is sad to think that in order to provide some degree of equality among our students in this country, we must be prodded by some form of legislation.

However, those schools which are so active—primarily represent the larger urban areas of this country. Consequently, there are countless schools that have not been affected by the pressure, legislation or court orders primarily because of the complacency of leaving things as they have been and the fact that "we don't have any minorities here" philosophy. The result, for the vast majority of schools in this country, regardless of their ethnic composition, is the continuance of the Anglo-centric, male-dominated approach. The endless cycle of frustration and resultant rejection by the educational system are experienced by the minority student.

But equally tragic, is the fact that the majority student is denied the opportunity of intellectual freedom and growth within the American system of education. We continue to graduate students from all levels who are "ignorant" of people who are different from themselves—ignorant, only because of a lack of knowledge and understanding. What can be more "basic" than to have the functional knowledge and understanding of all the people with whom we will live, love and share the rest of our lives?

What Must We All Do?

CHANGE. A simplistic word for such a complex problem. This word has a tendency to frighten most of us. As educators, we have a great capacity to adopt and nestle with, what I call, our "self-patented" educational approach and philosophy. That is, once we get used to doing "our thing" in education a certain way, we adopt it and stick with it, until death do us part. Granted, we constantly are being bombarded by new and innovative ideas, but the majority of the time, we tend to observe these movements as "fads" that we hope eventually will go away. So, why should I bother to change my "self-patented" system? I'm not suggesting that what we were taught in the past and what we do now is all wrong, but if change comes so hard, how in the name of education will we ever move forward and continue to improve our skills? How tragic it is to see an educator who has been doing the same thing for the last five, 10, 15 or 20 years. It is very tragic, but painfully more common than we would like to admit. To change for the sake of change is wrong. To resist change because of some personal "hang-ups" is not only wrong, but detrimental to professional growth, and more importantly denies all students the opportunity to acquire the knowledge that is so critical for their own futures, as well as their present existence. Change is a "basic" educational must. We continually must update and seek alternatives that will best provide all students those necessary skills, experience and knowledge in our ever changing society.

Barriers to Change

The educational system does not support its members for being different. Thus, feelings of personal inadequacy on the part of the school administration and teachers result in low levels of personal autonomy and a high level of hostility focused on out-groups which pose real or perceived problems.⁴ Change boils down to choices by majority members between following a personal value system and following the majority value system. Facilitating change begins with the idea of personal responsibility for individual behavior.

Multi-cultural education is one of those needed changes that will provide all our students a more realistic life experience. But somehow, the term multi-cultural

education stirs in the minds of some people the thought that this is an un-American and unnecessary "frill." There always has been a deliberate and conscious effort to find and treat differences as a basis of inequality. Once it was called "survival of the fittest." Today it's the "haves" against the "have nots." In a period when the technicians are able to bring time, space, distance and peoples physically closer together, attitudes, beliefs, values and behaviors nevertheless are keeping people far apart. Until all of us, from every strata in this society can come to act and believe that to be different is still to be equal, we cannot achieve the ultimate goal of a truly democratic and pluralistic society. Students must live the ideal that being different doesn't matter.⁵

How? . . . And The Reasons Why

If I were an American teacher or teacher-to-be today, the best thing I could do to guarantee my own professional security and mobility would be to make myself multi-cultural. The best thing that I could do to give my students self-security would be to make them able to function effectively in our multi-cultural society. For example, if I were teaching minority students, I would do this in such a way as not to harm their minority group membership, but rather strengthen it, deepen it, and enrich it by adding to it as much of the Anglo-American experience as I possibly could. If I were teaching Anglo-American children, I would add to their good fortune the additional sensitivity and perspective that come from knowing American minority cultures.

Multi-cultural education is not a favor for the ethnic minority student; it is an obligation and opportunity for all of us to learn, live and share with each other our unique identities and values. What can be more "basic" in the educational process?

Education is more than reading, writing and arithmetic. Education is preparation for life. Students need more than facts and problem-solving skills; they need to know how to lead full and useful lives in a complex world. In a nation made up of a variety of races and nationalities, that means learning how to live and work with people of different skin colors and cultural backgrounds.

A major goal for American public school education should be to provide multiple experiences for all children. It should be as desirable for children of the rich as for children of the poor to know all kinds of people who live in this society. Thus, the opportunity to learn and work with peers from various cultural backgrounds must be provided from hour to hour and from day to day. If this is what is meant by going "back to the basics," I'll jump on your bandwagon!

NOTES

1. Brodinsky, Ben, "Back to the Basics: The Movement and the Meaning." *Phi Delta Kappan*, March, 1977, p. 522.
2. Brodinsky, Ben, "Back to the Basics: The Movement and the Meaning." *Phi Delta Kappan*, March, 1977, p. 523.
3. Banks, James A., "The Implications of Multicultural Education for Teacher Education," *Pluralism and the American Teacher: Issues and Case Studies*. Ethnic Heritage Center for Teacher Education, (AACTE), p. 1.
4. Oden, Chester W. Jr., "Desegregation and Mainstreaming: A Case of de'ya vu," *Mainstreaming and the Minority Child*. 1976, p. 57.
5. Smith, William L., "Why Different Education for Different Groups?" *Multicultural Education: Commitments, Issues, and Applications*, ASCD, 1977, p. 41.

How to cope with displacement behavior.

The 'Wounded Minnow' concept

By Richard S. Funk

My first administrative experience was as a high school principal in a small community. I was given specific verbal instructions by school board members concerning what they thought should be accomplished during the first term of my contract. They told me that the teaching staff was weak and that I should initiate a comprehensive staff development and evaluation program. They also pointed out to me that particular teachers were "unsatisfactory" and they wanted me either to improve teacher performance or terminate contracts.

I dutifully began the year implementing a staff development program. It didn't take me very long to see that the "unsatisfactory" personnel were pretty bad, and that they had tenure. It was at this point that I wished someone had told me about the "Wounded Minnow" concept of human behavior. It would have made my life easier.

Some time ago, an ichthyologist, Karl Von Frisch, showed that the skin of cyprinid fishes (minnows) contains an alarm substance (Scheckstoffen). When an injured minnow was introduced into a school of minnows, nothing happened at first, but after about 30 seconds the fish drew together and then suddenly dispersed. By means of apt experiments, Von Frisch was able to show that an alarm substance diffused from the lacerated skin and once perceived through the nasal organs of the other fish, led to a panic reaction. More recent tests with 21 species of European and Asian cyprinid fishes have

revealed that each species reacts to the alarm substance of its own kind. Though the alarm substance is present in the skin of young fish, panic flight is not developed until later in life, after schooling has been established. An attack by a predator, causing injury to a member of a school, leads to appropriate responses.

At this point it might be in order if we developed a working vocabulary and a definition of terms so that Von Frisch's description of the experiment can be studied in detail.

Predator:	The principal
Prey:	The faculty member
Pheromones:	A chemical substance emitted by a wounded minnow. It can also be a verbal or reactionary emission from a wounded faculty member.
Scheckstoffen:	Pheromones
School:	A group of faculty minnows, oops, members.
Wound:	A bad evaluation

Faculty members are known to contain pheromones. When an injured or wounded faculty member is released back into the school, that faculty member gripes and complains. He emits pheromones or Scheckstoffen. The rest of the faculty draw together to hear what the injured faculty member has to say, then they disperse.

Those pheromones were released from the skin of the wounded faculty member and led to a panic reaction by the remainder of the faculty. This panic reaction usually takes the form of, "First him, then maybe they'll be after me." Some veteran principals say faculty can "smell" trouble.

Recent findings of unverified tests¹ have shown that each building of faculty members will react to an alarm substance within each building. Though this alarm substance is present in the skin of young faculty, panic reaction is not developed until later in their careers. The attack by a predator upon the prey, causing injury to a member of the faculty, leads to appropriate responses.

Why does the faculty member behave as he does? Behaviorists refer to this reaction as a form of displacement behavior. Niko Tinbergen describes displacement behavior in the three-spined stickleback, a belligerent, highly territorial fish. The male stickleback digs a nest in the sandy bottom of the shallow waters which he frequents at breeding time. When two male sticklebacks, proprietors of adjoining territories, get into a border uproar and pursue one another back and forth, they wind up facing each other at an invisible wall bubbling rage and frustrated fury. Both will up-end in a vertical position and while goggling at each other in loathing, stand on their heads and dig holes in the sand.

The new principal has to realize that this type of displacement behavior will occur. After all, that new principal is infringing upon that tenured faculty member's school. The faculty member has been there longer than you. The nest corresponds to that tenured faculty's niche, although we haven't found anything that is significant educationally about breeding time. When the principal confronts a faculty member with a bad evaluation, the dispute begins. In the initial stage of a territorial dispute in a building, both persons usually end up in a draw. The latter stage becomes: "It is either him or me." The last thing that the principal should do is to bury his head in the sand.

I have discussed this interesting phenomenon of animal and human behavior with many professional colleagues. One fellow in particular comes to mind quite readily. He told me that he had had a similar experience with faculty behaving like animals, only in his instance the behavior of his faculty was similar to the "mobbing" behavior of certain species of birds. But that is another story.

NOTE

1. A monograph completed in 1445 by Duyvane Dijkgraaf entitled "Untersuchungen ueber Scheckstoffen der Seltenorgane bei Fischen," and thought to explain similarities between human and animal behavior, was found in 1973 in a bombed-out Bavarian church. But inasmuch as this monograph is written entirely in early Celtic pictographs, no one is too certain that it in fact deals with anything.

Review

Youth need critical intelligence

HOW TO BRING UP 2000 TEENAGERS by Ralph Rutenber. Nelson-Hall Inc., Publishers (111 North Canal St., Chicago, Illinois 60606), 1979. 228 pp.

How To Bring Up 2000 Teenagers by Ralph Rutenber is a charming and enlightening source for building-level administrators who are attempting to deal positively with young men and women in a school setting. Essentially, the book is a guide to those concerned with the moral decisions made and actions taken by young adults.

Springing off his experience as a headmaster of an independent school for girls, the New England educator provides his readers with illuminating and practical suggestions for guiding the character development of young people. The book gives many personal examples of how expectations, trust, and affection can help students become giving persons. For adults, who have the "heavy ear" of helping young people make sound moral decisions, this book will make a significant contribution to a greater understanding of the "Janus-like" creature—a teenager.

The book suggests that adult mentors need to listen with a "third ear" to understand what a teenager may be saying in terms of real feelings, motives, and messages. The examination of motives and messages, not openly expressed, can and should be made by attentive adults. The understandings thus derived can help adults to empathize and attend to the nonverbalized needs of teenagers.

The major contribution of the book is embodied in those chapters dealing with the concept of justice in a school community. Dr. Rutenber talks forthrightly about

discipline and punishment. He defines discipline as an ongoing process of recognizing one's obligations to one's communities (home and school) and acting in a manner which promotes the common good. Discipline is teaching, and it should be taught (and learned) in the school. Punishment, on the other hand, is defined not only in terms of a deterrent, but also as a "reenforcement" that acts to have consequences.

To help students confront reality and its demands, Dr. Rutenber suggests the use of the "disciplinary discussion" method, which he terms the most important part of the disciplinary process. The method incorporates eight guides for its use, and according to Dr. Rutenber, the method has produced unusual results. In those cases related to rule infractions by students, the discussion focuses on getting the student to understand and accept the implications of actions in terms of self in relationship to the community.

Punishment, as reenforcement, should follow the disciplinary discussion. It serves as a statement to the community that infractions do have consequences, and to the individual, the punishment serves as a contribution to the restoration of those rules and standards which govern the community. Punishment, according to Dr. Rutenber, always should be given. There should be no exceptions or reduced consequences because of extenuating circumstances.

The final chapters of the book deal with Dr. Rutenber's attempt to destroy the myths that distort the reality (and joy) of working with young people, and the need for a community of affection. The myths about sex, relativism, and imposed beliefs, among others, highlight Dr. Rutenber's position that teenagers need to acquire the tools of critical intelligence. This questioning attitude is necessary to cut through the distortions to "the imprisoned reality that is waiting to be set free." His "community of affection" is grounded in the belief that young people need to exhibit the same qualities expected of adults—affection, concern, and trust—if the community is to be strong and vibrant.

Dr. Rutenber is not a sentimentalist, but an understanding realist. He seemingly is a man of great practical wisdom in the finest Aristotelian sense, and he has made a solid contribution to those who work and live with adolescents in the various communities.

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