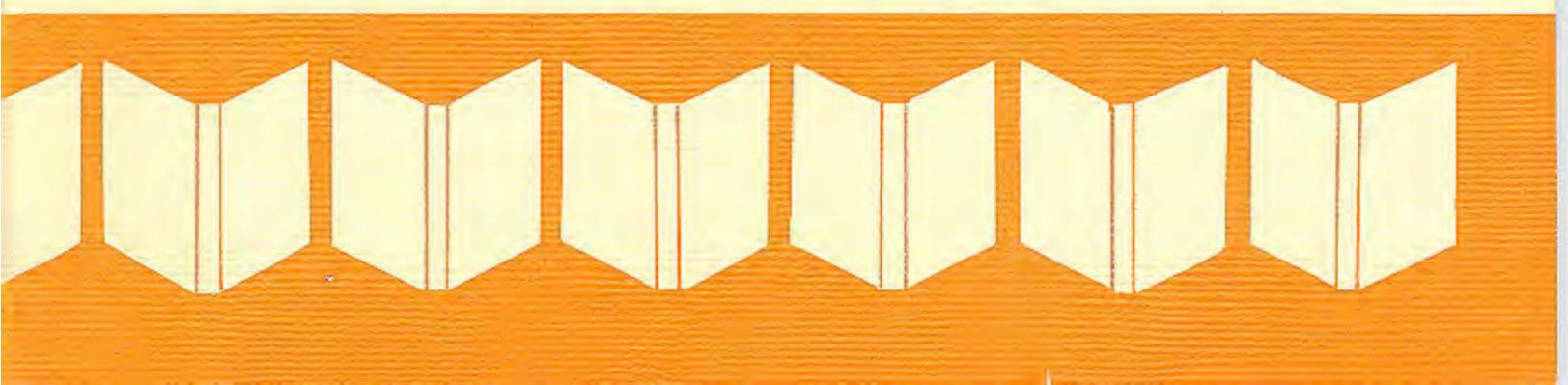fall
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Practitioner and professor: Strengthening the relationship

In May 1977, a group of Kansas public school administrators and university professors of educational administration met in Emporia, Kansas, for a two-day workshop focusing on an exploration of the practitioner/professor relationship. The workshop was sponsored jointly by the American Association of School Administrators (AASA), the Kansas Conference of Professors of Educational Administration (KCPEA) and the United School Administrators (USA).

The workshop provided an opportunity for a mutual exploration of how the practitioner and professor perceive each other in terms of roles, responsibilities, programs and constraints. The participants also explored ways to improve communication and cooperation between the public schools and universities.

Finally, four issues of mutual concern for the practitioner and professor were surfaced and prioritized. The priority issues included certification credit for administrator inservice programs, communication needs, clarification of role perceptions and certification practices and procedures. Tentative action plans were designed to provide a basis for cooperative action in resolving the identified issues. Representatives of USA and KCPEA were designated to consult with their respective constituencies about the events and plans of the workshop. It is anticipated that the representatives will meet in the fall 1977, to structure an implementation strategy if constituent support is forthcoming.

This meeting could be the beginning of a strengthened dialogue between practicing administrators and professors; or it may have been only a nice two-day visit away from the office. Some professionals may scoff at the idea of practitioners and professors cooperating over a period of time to resolve issues of mutual concern. They could cite a number of barriers, real or imagined, that stand in the way of cooperation: time constraints, apathy and the reality that there are some fundamental differences of opinion in some areas. They might conclude that the nature of the roles are so different that meaningful cooperation is virtually impossible. I disagree.

I opt for a strengthened relationship between the practitioner and professor in an effort to improve the theory and practice of educational administration. I believe that these groups must cooperate in providing leadership in a changing and challenging educational environment. There is much that can be accomplished together to invigorate the discipline . Both professional groups have strengths that should be tapped in the continual improvement of educational administration as practiced in the public schools and as taught in the universities.

This is not to suggest that all differences will be overcome by attempts at cooperation. Differences will continue because of the nature of the responsibilities. Dynamic tension in a profession can result in new ideas and insights and should be capitalized on rather than submerged. We will continue to have our particular professional needs, pressures, and responsibilities. But we also have important commonalities that can serve as a basis for dialogue and cooperation.

Cooperation does not necessarily have to evolve from a formalized arrangement between practitioners and professors. We should use the available organizational structure to foster cooperative ventures. Both groups have annual meetings which could provide a vehicle for dialogue. The establishment of more practicums or internships in educational administration could stimulate the professional relationship. Better articulation of research to the local districts should be attempted. These are a few suggestions from among many that could be undertaken to foster a cooperative spirit between the practitioner and professor.

The Emporia meetings is a beginning. I would like to think that we are partners in educational administration and that cooperation is possible to strengthen the vital relationship between practitioners and professors.

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educational considerations

EDPRESS

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A new course at Kansas State University provides the background so that teachers can make their own decisions about open education.

First steps in open education

by Mary McDonnell Harris and Lois Eddy McDonnell

Mary McDonnell Harris grew up with a belief in child-centered education and inherited, to some extent, the fruits of her mother's labor in this field. A member of the Department of Curriculum and Instruction at Kansas State University, Harris has visited most of the opening schools in Kansas and its environs. A former elementary and secondary language arts teacher, she holds an A.B. from Goucher College (Baltimore, Maryland), an M.Ed. from Shippensburg State College (Shippensburg, Pennsylvania), and a Ph.D. from the University of Pittsburgh (Pennsylvania).

Lois Eddy McDonnell is a member of the Primary Class Team at the Rowland School for Young Children of Shippensburg State College (Shippensburg, Pennsylvania), where she is Assistant Professor in the Elementary Education Department. She has taught primary children in a variety of settings. In 1974, she visited in forty schools across the United States which are utilizing variations of Open Education. She has also visited in British primary schools and worked for one month as a volunteer aide at Queen's Dyke Primary School, Witney, Oxfordshire, England. McDonnell holds an A.B. from Dickinson College (Carlisle, Pennsylvania) and an M.A. from Columbia University.

In 1975 we introduced a course called "Open Education" at Kansas State University. We were not sure the course would survive in a climate where "open" is a four-letter word, but it has.' The course, offered for the sixth time in the summer of 1977, is thriving both in enrollment and in effect on the learners—and is completely different from the course we offered in 1975!

Mistrust of open education does not occur without reason. Reports of the chaos that can result when large groups of children are placed in spacious expanses of classroom under the supervision of teachers who have been prepared to structure time, but not space, are true! Children have suffered when teachers trained to work alone are assigned to incompatible teaching teams or when traditional textbooks are replaced by individualized learning packages that no one knows how to use.

In spite of their unfamiliarity with regional or national experiments in open education, many Kansas teachers, especially elementary teachers, find themselves at home with the philosophical base of open education. They ponder the extent of individual differences and question practices which place every child on the same page of the same textbook at the same time. They recognize responsible independence as an important goal of education and wonder how this can come about in classrooms dominated and controlled, however, benignly, by teachers. They view communication as a two-way process and are not surprised at the number of children who seem "turned off" by schools in which their voices are not heard.

But philosophical affinity does not go far in helping teachers change classroom practice, and our aim, when we began, was to bring each teacher in the class to the point where that teacher could take some real, effective and successful steps toward bringing his or her teaching performance more in line with personal beliefs about learning and the goals of education was the problem we faced in 1975 devising a learning experience that would provide an effective blend of theory and practice, build on the skills teachers already possessed, and lead to confidence that open education can worked.

We decided a workshop format was the answer. And so we rented a church hall, where we could control the physical environment for the duration of the three-week course, indentified a study theme and set teachers to exploring it via manipulation of materials, field trips and the use of resource persons. This worked well, but an important ingredient was lacking. Teachers were experiencing an open environment, but they were doing so only in the role of learners.

The next summer we set up our environment in the home economics suite of a large urban high school with a facilitating custodial staff, chose a new study theme and set teachers to exploring it with the knowledge that later in the course a group of children would be coming to study that same theme in the open environment under their leadership! This laboratory format turned out to be an intensely rewarding experience for teachers and children alike. Our purpose in the remaining paragraphs is to attempt to formulate the elements to this laboratory experience that are generalizable to other settings.

Space: The open education course was envisioned from the first as field based. Even when it was offered on campus, we did not find university classrooms appropriate meeting places. They are all full of chairs, totally lacking in storage space and provided with the expectation that all evidence of any class can be instantaneously obliterated for the convenience of the next users. Home economics suites, special education suites and open wings of public schools are much easier to use and often have the additional bonus of cooking facilities. Because control of the physical environment is crucial to open education, and because the need for such control is sometimes very difficult to communicate to the persons who administer use of space, space must become a concern very early in the planning of an inservice experience in open education.

Time: We have offered "Open Education" in several time schedules (weekly evening meetings for a semester, four monthly two-day meetings), but the only schedule we endorse is the three-week short session in which the class meets three to four hours a day. The impact of the short course is multiplied several times over by its continuity. With shorter, scattered meetings, a major portion of each session is spent covering old ground because of doubts and frustrations aroused back in the daily teaching environment. For the duration of the short course, however, teachers can be asked to suspend judgment, to live with open education for a while. Certainly doubts and frustrations must be raised and dealt with, but the short course enables teachers to do so from a position of strength and understanding ("We have seen it work.")

Given the three week time frame, we suggest that at least half of that time be spent in preparation and orientation, that the children come for three or four days in the second half, and that at least two days be reserved at the end for evaluation and debriefing.

Study themes: Good open education, like good traditional education, must be rooted in sound curriculum. Coming out of a British model, we tend to think that curriculum should be interdisciplinary, but we do not insist as strongly upon that as we do upon the explicit setting of goals. The early emphasis on curricular matters in our course is a tremendous relief to teachers because it seems familiar.

We begin the course with what the teachers initially believe is a role-play. Each teacher is assigned a role as a teacher, parent, teacher aide, or student in an open classroom where a certain theme, such as "The Earth, Our Home," is being studied. Each is asked, with others of the same role group, to devise learning activities, objectives and resource lists that might contribute to the development of this theme. After an hour or so of discussion, the groups are brought together and their ideas pooled. As teachers become aware that this is not a role-play, that real children will soon be coming to study the curriculum they develop around this very theme, a sense of urgency and producitivity grows. By the end of the second day, we hope to have come to a list of concepts or learning objectives that the teachers believe are appropriate for the theme.[2]

When content and/or objectives have been determined, teachers are ready to proceed to a consideration of teaching methods. We emphasize two methods of communicating content in the open classroom: the class meeting and the learning center. By this time we have already conducted several class meetings around such topics as, "What should be the chief goals of education?" and "Is it desirable to foster competition in the schools?" and teachers can quickly grasp the principles of the class meeting set forth by William Glasser in **Schools Without Failure**. The concept of the learning center as a self-directed, self-correcting sequence of activities through which the learner can achieve mastery of content independently is harder of grasp.[4] We require that each teacher plan and construct a learning center that teaches some part of the definition of the study theme agreed upon by the class. Providing numerous examples on other themes, we work with each teacher to come up with a workable center plan.

The selection of the study theme is pivotal in our approach to teaching about open education. We attempt to choose a theme that has potential for interdisciplinary development. By insisting that all learning centers teach an element of the theme, we prevent the manufacture of addition fact drills, consonant blend races, and many other activities that can be produced with little thought. The problem of developing a learning center to teach a given concept to children of given ages usually challenges teachers to come up with totally original learning centers as good as those in resource books, which have the additional property, usually, of being readily adaptable to their own home teaching situations.

Although we recognize the value of having learners choose their own study themes, we have seen no way to build this into a three-week laboratory. Our field-based orientation often requires us to go to the site of the class armed with resources to get us through the entire first week; and even if that were not so, it is hard to imagine a diverse group's coming to agree on a satisfactory study theme the first day of class. Themes which lend themselves to interdisciplinary development and which are broad enough to accomodate numerous subtopics include:

> The Earth, Our Home
> Survival
> Food
> Shelter
> People and the Things They Do
> Your Body and You
> Communication
> Transportation
> Long Ago and Today

The arts. The relationship of the arts to the cognitive curriculum is a matter to which teachers have given little or no consideration. In the next phase of the open education course, we attempt to provide teachers with numerous experiences in which movement, dramatics, creative writing, music, the visual arts and cooking contribute to the development of the study theme. Our methodology in this part of the course is direct modeling: one of us assumes the role of teacher, and the teachers become learners. After participating in a group of experiences with self-expression through the arts, teachers are able to divide into groups and design similar experiences for children.

Our outlook on the arts has become more and more integrated as we have worked with the open education format. At first we provided a separate experience with each of the arts we chose to develop. Now we find that music flows into movement, which flows into art or dramatics,

which flow into writing; that cooking leads to tasting, which can serve as the stimulus for expression in any medium; that the arts have a way of intertwining and coming together to provide exciting multi-media experiences if one is open to the possibility.

The children: Finding children for the laboratory experience has not been difficult. By sending home letters with children who attend the elementary school nearest the course site, we have been able to find enough of predesignated age groups available on the necessary days and able to come to the course site. So far we have tried to include children of two grades: third and fourth or fourth and fifth. Although multiage grouping does not have to be part of open education, preparing for a multiage group helps teachers see that age may not be the most relevant criteria for pupil assignment.

When the children come, each has been previously contacted by one of the class members. Children get together with their teacher contacts to participate in an activity designed to introduce the study theme. Then there is a period for work at the learning centers and time for small group experiences in the arts. The children come for about two hours a day for three or four days, each session including use of learning centers, exploration of the arts and a class meeting.

After the children leave each day, there is time for evaluation and planning. Following the first day of child involvement, some learning centers are improved in clarity and simplicity, and the teachers begin to consider the way one relates to children in an open environment. They look to the instructors and to each other for role models to fit their emerging concept of the open teacher, the teacher as guide and resource person and learner.

Debriefing: What a letdown when the last child has left! At this stage of the course, most teachers are eager to sign a contract to teach in an open school, but, unfortunately, no one is holding such a contract out to them. We allow two days for reality to set in and to try to develop a perspective on open schools and on what concerned teachers can do to effect change in their home situations.

In preparation for this, we require each student to read at least one book from a list of introductions to open education.[4] We find that the required reading helps our credibility. Teachers come to see that open education is not a disease unique to us and that the way we do it is not necessarily the only way that works. We include on our recommended list only books that attempt to deal with the problems of open education as well as its triumphs.

Among the mental images created in the minds of teachers through their reading and their experiences in the course, we project slides taken in open schools we have visited and present case studies of how they got to be the way they are. We hold class meetings to discuss such questions as, "Is the British model suitable for American schools?" and "Can an open classroom exist outside of an open school?" We role-play confrontations with parents, principals and custodians that could occur in an opening school and explore how such confrontations could have been avoided. Then teachers are left to make their own decisions as to what, if anything, they will do about open education.

We endorse the laboratory model for introducing teachers to open education. It provides them with a basis for evaluating their own efforts and for anticipating the problems that may arise as they attempt to implement new techniques in their home classrooms. The course appears to us to be neither an ivory tower consideration of open education nor a hard sell. It provides the background out of which teachers can make informed decisions about open education and act on those decisions with confidence in the direction of their first steps.

Footnotes

1. We view "open education" as an umbrella for school practices whose purpose is to individualize instruction in ways that place primary responsibility for learning on the learner, to provide learners with alternatives from which they may choose according to their own goals and to enable persons to discover and express themselves freely through the arts. We recognize that some programs labeled "open" do not meet this definition and that some not called "open," do. In general, however, we regard "open education" as an ideal and the schools that are working toward it as "opening."

2. Some teachers and/or their school districts have strong feelings or policies about the format of curricular statements. We believe that performance objectives can easily be derived from lists of concepts, attitudes, and skills to be developed in the child, and vice versa. Thus, we accept from our group focused statements of purpose in any form.

3. Although there are some looser definitions of learning center in use, we select a rigorous definition because it exposes teachers to the most powerful uses of this methodology.

4. Blitz, Barbara. **The Open Classroom: Making It Work.** Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1973.

   Devaney, Kathleen. **Developing Open Education in America.** Washington, D.C.: National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1974.

   Hertzberg, Alvin, and Edward F. Stone. **Schools Are For Children: An American Approach to the Open Classroom.** New York: Schocken Books, 1971.

   Howes, Virgil M. **Informal Teaching in the Open Classroom.** New York: Macmillan, 1974.

   Rathbone, Charles H. **Open Education: The Informal Classroom.** New York: Citation, 1971.

   Weber, Lillian. **The English Infant School and Informal Education.** New York: Prentice-Hall, 1971.

No single human could bring to the forefront in education the influence that James Coleman's critics believe he possesses.

Nixon and Coleman: the politics of integration

by Don Chipman

Donald D. Chipman took a B.A. at California State University, Chico, and the M.S. and Ph. D. degrees at Florida State University. Currently as Assistant Professor of Education at Georgia State College, he is actively engaged in researching his second book, **The Willoughby Factor: An Analysis of Hierarchies.**

In the last few years many articles have been written criticizing James Coleman, author of the Coleman Report's One and Two. Some critics have tried to point out that his research is less than scholarly. Others have accused Coleman of failing to recognize the difference between his scientific findings and his personal beliefs. All of these efforts have accomplished more for Coleman's image as a significant policy maker than anything else. In reality no single human could bring to the forefront the influence that many of his critics believe he possesses.

In one incident, for example, Coleman was criticized as the scholar who influenced President Richard Nixon of radically changing the federal government's school integration policies. According to Biloine Young and Grace Bress in their article "Coleman's Retreat and the Politics of Good Intentions", Coleman was a "significant participant" in the Nixon decision to transfer school integration efforts to the jurisdiction of the federal courts.[1] A close investigation of these events reveals that contrary to popular belief Coleman actually had very little to do with this decision. Even before Coleman arrived in Washington as an aid to Nixon, the administration was well on their way of shifting this responsibility to the courts. Desperately Coleman challenged this action, even going beyond his own research capabilities to predict that integration does promote achievement.

Initially Nixon intended to use some of Coleman's studies as a rationale for federal educational aid cuts. The Westinghouse Study and the 1966 **Equality of Educational Opportunity Report** were specifically used to point out that quality equipment did not make a significant difference in achievement scores, thus federal funds could be more adroitly used elsewhere—Vietnam. However, since public schooling was a popular home town congressional program, ultimately Nixon signed a bill that increased educational aid rather than reducing it.[2]

Keeping in mind his Southern Strategy, Nixon continued to attempt to walk the line between the conservatives and the liberals. He appeared to be probing in various directions, attempting to establish a sound integration policy, acceptable to all. At one point, he asked Health, Education and Welfare (HEW) Secretary Richardson to submit an amendment to an educational finance bill, forbidding the use of federal dollars to support bussing. Richardson, disgruntled, threatened to resign. After a meeting, the President withdrew his proposal, and Richardson remained with the administration.[3] **New York Times** writer, Fred Hechinger, noted in 1970, "Education was caught between white segregationists, black power and sheer difficulty. Integration was not dead but it appeared at least to be in limbo."[4]

Apparently the term "quality schools" was something everyone could agree was significant. Despite the fact that integration had proceeded to the point that the South was more totally integrated than the North, Nixon did not dwell on this fact. Coleman believed that quality schools meant integrated schools and challenged the Administration to move forward on this issue. Within this context Coleman made his famous statement "integration alone would reduce the existing achievement gap between blacks and whites as much as 30 per cent."[5]

Yet this announcement was not a plea for total integration as much as it was a call for assistance in developing educational alternatives. "The nation's school authorities," said Coleman, "seem too transfixed with one technique of integration when there is a variety of ways to make it work . . . federal aid is needed to develop possibly the voucher plan and after-school facilities to attract all types of people."[5] A **New York Times** interpretation of this statement pointed out that Coleman was in fact suggesting that integration could be achieved in a number of ways, such as integrated trips to museums and to laboratories where individuals would learn in a variety of environments.[6]

Coleman often cited the fact that Americans lived in an information rich society, where education could be taught by volunteer tutors, by store-front schools, by large corporations, television, radio, newspapers, magazines and books, through the use of vouchers.[7] Ultimately, he noted integration was not a question of increasing achievement 30 per cent or any other per cent, but basically a question of morality. "Are we willing," he asked, "to let schools be the vehicle through which the society separates individuals into two parts, separate and unequal?"[8]

During his Washington tenure, Coleman acted as an advisor on the Federal Emergency School Aid Act, which was designed to assist schools undergoing court-ordered desegregation. His recommendations were large in the area of providing finances for interracial experiences *outside* the public school system through the utilization of private agencies and other educational enterprises.[9]

Eventually the Administration decided that the enforcement of school desegregation efforts should be limited to de jure components only. Since Coleman believed that de facto and de jure segregation could not be distinguished except supposedly one takes place in the North and the other in the South, he thought that these proposed policies were too limited and accused some of the federal administrators of being "neosegregationists."[10]

Earlier in February 1970, Senator John Stennis pointed out this same discrepancy and attempted to introduce an amendment which would require the government to cut funds where Northern de facto segregation existed. In April, however, that specific education bill was passed without the Stennis proposal.[11]

By the summer of 1970 the Nixon Administration was backing away from the original Johnson school integration commitment. The Civil Rights Commission scored the Adminstration for its retreat. Kenneth Clark, New York University professor, blamed Nixon for defaulting on school integration leadership.[12] Coleman, before Walter Mondale's Senate Select Committee on Equal Educational Integration, again discussed the academic benefits of integration. Through such policies, the achievement gap between the two races could be narrowed as much as "25 per cent," he stated. Yet as an appendage to this announcement, he continued to advocate educational flexibility by supporting such experiments as the Parkway School Program of Philadelphia.[13]

Eventually, the Administration found a new individual to rally their forces. He was Alexander Bickel, a Yale professor who claimed that complete integration was impossible and called the **Coleman Report** nothing more

than an ambiguous statement.[14] Bickel, a staunch supporter of neighborhood schools, was in; and Coleman, after six months, was out.

Was Coleman's influence the primary factor in the Administration's policy change? Did Coleman, as some have charged, have a monopoly on governmental thinking? Even before Coleman's arrival in Washington, the Nixon Administration had decided to change its policy. In the fall of 1969, the Administration announced that it would renegotiate with one hundred school districts who had received federal school aid cuts, due to segregation policies.[15] Leon E. Panetta, testifying in March 1970, stated that the HEW retreat was attributed to Senator John Stennis' concern for Mississippi's integration policies. According to Panetta, Stennis treatened to withdraw as Senate floor leadership of the President's embattled Safeguard Antiballistic Missile System if the Administration persisted in promoting integration at all costs. "The retreat," said Panetta, "was a political choice aimed at appeasing the South." He noted that neither Bob Haldeman nor John Ehrlichman was aiding the integration effort, thereby leaving Robert Finch the sole defender.[16] While the President and his staff had access to Coleman, he was hardly a significant advisor. At the time that Coleman was supposedly advising the Administration to switch to court enforcement, Bickel was writing Nixon's educational policy statements. According to Syracuse University Professor Gerald Grant, the President's March 26, 1970, educational statement reflected the differences of expert advice with Coleman on one side of the issue and Bickel on the other.[17] In trying to assess the role that individuals played in this important policy change, George Wallace was probably a more significant advisor than either Coleman or Bickel. After winning a 1970 Alabama Governor's election. Wallace predicted that there would be a dramatic change in the Administration's integration policies. Approximately 28 days later, Finch resigned.

Earlier in that year, Leon Panetta, Director of the Civil Rights Enforcement Division, had resigned. By the end of 1970, U.S. Commissioner of Education, James Allen was on his way. This action made it a clean sweep; Nixon had a completely new staff. Elliot Richardson became HEW Secretary, Sidney Marland, who endorsed moderate bussing, became the new Commissioner of Education and J. Stanley Pottinger assumed Panetta's position. The newest desegregation policy was announced in August, 1970, by Attorney General John Mitchell.[18] In essence the Administration decided to rely on court action to enforce integration. "This will consist," stated Mitchell, "of filing and arguing lawsuits based upon the jurisdiction of the Fourteenth Amendment."[19] No longer would the federal government send marshalls to the South or anywhere else.

It was the untimely fate of the school integration effort to fall upon the eve of a foreign war which shook this nation to its very foundations. Many with educational foresight and dedication were forced to retreat, propelling into the White House an individual whose record lacked the same quality of commitment. From the beginning Nixon had written off the civil rights vote. With most of the big Northern states controlling their 1968 delegates, Nixon was forced to go South where Republicans were not restrained. Here was the birth of the Southern Strategy, conceived in necessity but gradually assuming the spec-

tacle of a grand design. Under the guidance of Mitchell, this political strategy decreed that anything the South might perceive as faintly hostile was forbidden.

Ultimately, desegregation enforcement programs were deemphasized and shifted out of the governmental domain and into the courts. The pivotal personnel elements in this action were the Senators from Mississippi and South Carolina, John Stennis and Strom Thurmond, and Governor George Wallace, who applied the pressure, gently at first, hoping to suspend HEW desegregation guidelines authorized by the 1964 Civil Rights Act.[20] Avowing that he favored freedom of choice plans, Nixon set to work changing his staff, realigning educational policy and in general slowing the momentum of the desegregation effort. Those who advocated the old Johnson policies were eventually overwhelmed and retreated to the sidelines. And in the overall analysis, Coleman was not a signigicant participant but simply one small voice in a time of overwhelming political change.

Footnotes

1. Biloine W. Young and Grace B. Bress, "Coleman's Retreat and The Politics of Good Intentions," **Phi Delta Kappan,** November, 1975, 159-166.

2. Gerald Grant, "Shaping Social Policy: The Politics of the Coleman Report," **Teacher College Record,** 75 (September 1973), 28.

3. **New York Times,** August 4, 1971; August 10, 1971; September 1, 1971.

4. Fred M. Hechinger, "Education," **New York Times,** March 9, 1970.

5. **New York Times,** March 9, 1970.

6. Fred M. Hechinger, "Education," **New York Times,** March 9, 1970.

7. James S. Coleman, "Letter to Editor," **New York Times,** January 12, 1970.

8. James S. Coleman, "Letter to Editor," **New York Times,** March 13, 1970.

9. Grant, "Shaping Social Policy," p. 50.

10. James Coleman, "Letter to Editor," **New York Times,** March 13, 1970.

11. **New York Times,** February 19, 1970; April 2, 1970.

12. **New York Times,** April 12, 1970.

13. **New York Times,** April 22, 1970.

14. **New York Times,** September 26, 1970.

15. **New York Times,** September 17, 1969.

16. **New York Times,** March 1, 1970.

17. Gerald Grant, "Shaping Social Policy," p. 46.

18. **New York Times,** March 4, 1970; June 26, 1970.

19. **New York Times,** August 14, 1970.

20. Rowland Evans, Jr. and Robert D. Novak, **Nixon in the White House: The Frustration of Power** (New York: Random House, 1971) pp. 113-176.

Organizational development may not fit in all school settings, but it is worthy of careful consideration.

Organization development training: a case study

by Ronald G. Davison and Paul D. Longhofer

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Paul David Longhofer received a B.S. degree from Kansas State University and his M.Ed. from the University of Kansas and his Ed.D. from George Washington University. Longhofer is a past president of the Board of Directors of the Association of Education Negotiation, the Kansas Association of Educational Negotiation, the Kansas Association of Secondary School Principals, the National Association of Secondary School Principals and the Unified School Administrators of Kansas. Presently, he is the Principal at Truesdell Junior High School in Wichita, Kansas.

The bureaucratic structure of a large public school system can be very protective of personnel serving at any level of the hierarchy. For the principal assuming a new building assignment, the recognition that he or she carries a mandate to affect necessary change can be a tremendous source of reassurance (Harper, 1965). With the mantle of authority vested in the position, one can visualize a capacity to make dramatic short-term changes, especially if the affected faculty perceives its new administrator as coming on board to turn things around in a major kind of way.

The new principal must, however, consider the nature and complexity of the desired change and the strategy and supporting tactics that will be required to carry it off successfully. One has the choice, therefore, of relying on established bureaucratic protocols to affect change, or perhaps risking a totally new in-school management structure that might increase each faculty member's stake in the change process. This article describes an attempt to apply the second option using a body of applied behavioral science knowledge called organization development (OD). It is offered with all the caveats and perceived strengths that emerged in this one application. Our expectation is that you will consider its suitability as an alternative to the more traditional school management approaches.

The School Context

In the situation described here, the principal-designate was moving into a junior high school that had experienced all of the negative dimensions commonly associated with school desegregation. Let us briefly review those environmental circumstances:

A student body of 2,000 was primarily composed of youngsters emerging from white, working-class homes who brought an array of racist sentiments to school with them. The arrival of "bused-in" blacks three years earlier had increased the number of disciplinary infractions to the point that the school had a district-wide reputation of poor student control.

Teacher attitudes were generally perceived as being defeatist by central administration. Most faculty members were viewed as having surrendered on the prospect of turning the present situation around. The other side of the coin was a pervasive feeling among faculty that "downtown" (i.e., central administration) was impotent in terms of its capacity to offer a workable solution to the school's problems.

Administrative leadership in the building was essentially trapped by the school's current troubled circumstances. The proposed change in the building principalship was not attributable to dissatisfaction with the individual in charge, but arose from a conviction by district policy-makers that only a new person could effectively escape the problems of the past.

The Emergence of a School Management Strategy

With the process of developing an appropriate training/change model and the selection of a new principal moving simultaneously, the first task of the university-based training director and the principal-designate was to ferret out their philosophical differences to ensure something like congruence on the most workable *change*

strategy. It was mutually agreed that the most effective school renewal process would acknowledge that a faculty can be trained to collaboratively manage the culture of their school in a manner that supports goal attainment.

Literature provided by university training staff suggested that the application of organization development principles might be responsive to the human needs of faculty, as well as the productivity issues facing the school. Beckhard (1969), an early worker in OD theory, describes it as an effort (1) planned, (2) organization-wide and (3) managed by the organizational leader, to (4) increase organizational effectiveness and morale through (5) planned interventions into the organization's processes using behavioral science and management knowledge. Although the techniques used in an OD training/change effort may vary considerably, they usually proceed from two assumptions. First, employees are human beings, not just component parts of a bureaucratic hierarchy to be manipulated to make the machine run more efficiently. Secondly, this concern for people does not have to conflict with the administrator's concern for productivity, and that only as these concerns are met simultaneously will an organization make the fullest use of its resources.

OD theory assumes that change must be initiated within the context of the existing work group which is viewed as having a capacity to grow through learning how to improve their work environment. OD accepts as inevitable, conflicts between faculty members and between faculty members and administration, but advocates openly confronting these conflicts using problem-solving strategies. OD additionally recognizes the reality experienced in too many staff development efforts conducted in the public schools—that is, our tendency to gear up for instructional innovation and change without addressing the environmental context in which the change will be attempted (Newell, 1973).

The risk of engaging in exactly the same pattern was especially germane in this situation, a school setting where the prevailing climate supported a reactive rather than a proactive response to problems. The success of OD in this building would therefore turn on the extent to which faculty perceived the new principal as being honestly committed to working with and through people to attain change; coupled with their own willingness to accept new responsibilities in a program that would demand increased collaboration in response to mutually-determined goals.

The Design of the OD Training Component

Initial planning activities involving faculty representatives (i.e., department coordinators) were limited to three half-day sessions during the last month of school, and generally served the following purposes:

- Identified the kinds of change initiatives that would be sanctioned or perhaps strongly resisted by various faculty groups;

- Provided contextual information about the school that plugged knowledge gaps vital to the planning of a start-up training experience;

- Generated support for the administration of opinionnaires to faculty and students that would provide information for later analysis during the initial phase of training.[1]

- Helped the training staff determine faculty expectations for a training activity, an input which strengthened its overall instructional design;

- Isolated the issues that would be major content concerns during a training activity (e.g., problems related to school size, student control, dysfunctional faculty behavior, student attitudes).

Pre-planning with coordinators isolated the issue areas of substantive concern to faculty, communicated the intentions of the training staff and the new principal and substantially determined the content parameters for startup training.

Training staff and principal concluded their own planning activities with a workshop design that would ideally attain the following short-term objectives:

(1) Initiate collaborative work activity among faculty members in pursuit of new goals and objectives.

(2) Provide skill training that would help faculty function more effectively as members of problem-solving groups.

(3) Assist the principal in developing and implementing a management structure that would provide a capacity for flexible, organizational problem solving.

The Initial Workshop Experience

Organization development as a training/change vehicle was selected in a belief that the problems of the school pointed to the need for a new management strategy. That message was shared with all faculty and non-professional staff when they were asked (but not required) to attend a ten-day workshop scheduled immediately before the start of school. Additionally, each would be involved in formal reassembly sessions on four occasions during the coming school year. Modest stipends would be paid for workshop attendance, with reassembly days to be conducted on a released-time basis.

Phase 1: Establishing Faculty Ownership: The opening session saw 80 faculty and non-professional staff arrive for participation. Twenty faculty members chose not to attend or simply were unable to attend. Discord and confusion on the part of some participants was evident on that first day, much of it related to uncertainty as to the workshop's purposes. Those anxiety levels remained fairly high until the end of the second day when the faculty decided to do some testing. If OD meant they were to be democratically involved in the change process, then they seemed to think that they might as well get started on the workshop format. Participants proposed a number of changes in both the time structure and the daily work schedule. After some *negotiation* with training staff, their recommendations were officially incorporated into a revised activities schedule. Those negotiated changes included the establishment of a "rules committee" which enabled participants to report their concerns to training staff (which included the principal) on a daily basis. That procedural alteration substantially reduced feelings of personal insecurity, increased the faculty's sense of ownership in the workshop's purposes and probably boosted the overall productivity of the group.

Phase II: Group Development—A Survey-Feedback Approach. Formal group work began with a survey-feedback exercise utilizing the faculty and student survey data gathered during the spring. Participants were divided into work groups for data analysis purposes with a charge to summarize the inferences emerging from their inspection of the data. Survey feedback led directly to the formation of new work groups whose task was the identification of critical issues as suggested by the data analysis exercise.

Phase III: Group Development—Isolating and Responding to School Problems. Training staff speeded up the issue analysis process by the utilization of a home grown problem analysis worksheet (see Figure 1). A special task force composed of one representative from each issue-identification group was created to categorize action proposals related to student needs, with a similar unit handling proposals on faculty-related issues. An abbreviated DELPHI process enabled faculty to set action priorities in each of these areas. With priorities established, participants moved directly to the consideration of a decision-making structure that would have to regulate their back-home response in each priority area.[2]

Phase IV: The Emerging Management Structure. The design of a permanent decision-making structure was assigned to an OD committee composed of elected faculty representatives and the building principal. Its recommendation was the creation of a permanent review body, whose eight members would include faculty representatives, a parent representative and the building principal. The primary assignment of the review body would be the processing of issues raised by individual faculty groups, parents or the school's administrative team. The new structure was to be formally known as the Clearing House Committee. A faculty person would serve as committee chairperson, with its other members representing faculty assigned to each of the six

scheduled planning periods. The parent representative was a workshop participant who had long been active in the affairs of the school. The Clearing House would meet weekly to consider items submitted by the aforementioned parties and to identify and assign issues to one or more of the planning period groups for further study. A schematic descriptive of the cycle of management activities directed by the Clearing House is shown in Figure 2. Formal adoption of the review committee structure was ratified by a voice vote of all workshop participants.

The workshop concluded with participant endorsement of a number of new policies related to student control issues (e.g., a new attendance and tardy policy, procedures for handling disruptions, new hall passing procedures, et cetera). Perhaps the most significant OD gain at this point was the faculty's progress in dealing with the quality of its own interpersonal relationships.[3] Individuals were beginning to see a potential for their own role in the shared management of the school, as well as the obvious advantages of collaborative work activity.

Back to school: The Continuing Agenda of OD

The ultimate success of the OD-based training strategy described here must be judged on the extent to which faculty and administration could move successfully from academic concepts to field-based action. Institutionalization of the OD process in response to the day-to-day problems of the school would be the most

2. A major chore for a training staff of five was monitoring interpersonal skill acquisition on a sustained basis since new groups were forming during the course of each training day. In general, brief lecturettes were the primary vehicle for reinforcing the skills essential to the conduct of productive group activity. We would be remiss if we did not share with you our concern about the faculty's overfocus on task accomplishment to the total detriment of skill acquisition in "process" areas. We will say more about that pattern later.

3. A faculty member who critically reviewed this manuscript for the co-authors felt the greatest benefit accruing from the worshop was its theaputic quality. It was comforting to be able to discuss one's on-the-job concerns with others, and to elicit their support and encouragement.

(FIGURE 1)
PROBLEM ANALYSIS SEQUENCE*

*Corrison, B.B. and Day, G.R., Wichita State University, Copyright, 1974.

(FIGURE 2)

SCHOOL MANAGEMENT SYSTEM
TRUESDELL JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL
WICHITA, KANSAS

legitimate measure of meaningful carry-over. Both the principal and the training director had some working hypotheses that were quantitatively and experientially validated via formal evaluation procedures. A modified version of the Survey of Organizations (SOO) questionnaire (Taylor and Bowers, 1972) was administered at the conclusion of the first year of intensive training. Students were also post-tested on their feelings about the school using the Questionnaire for Students, Teachers and Administrators (QUESTA II) developed by the Secondary School Research Program at ETS. A two-year follow-up survey using these instruments has been scheduled for the Spring, 1977 term to assess the impact of our original OD interventions after substantial human and material resource support was withdrawn. Nevertheless, the two-year lapse since formal training ended provides a basis for some "grass roots" perceptions about our operational progress with the benefit of hindsight. Our experience in the real world made us conscious of the need to share a number of the practical problems.

I. OD must be a planned program: Careful planning proved to be a *must* if quality work products were to be developed. The principal had to assume primary responsibility for ensuring that planning for essential tasks was completed. Valuable faculty assistance was frequently offered by the same group of concerned people; nevertheless, school administration has had to assume leadership in the initial design and coordination of major activities (e.g., preparing for an OD reassembly session).

II. OD must be a management-oriented activity: Every faculty initiative was dutifully processed through the Clearing House Committee at its mid-week sessions. Its actions were reported school-wide via written memoranda on the following day, and as events developed, communication through this new management structure was perceived by faculty as a significant organizational gain.

III. OD is task-rather than people-oriented training: The program's instructional format did not emphasize change in individual attitudes and values. A deemphasis

of our needs in that area was partly a concession to the faculty's open dislike of "human relations" training experiences. In addition, OD theory did stress the need for a focus on task accomplishment and the solving of actual work-related problems. A possible effect of adhering to a task rather than a people orientation in the workshop was the reemergence of some unresolved interpersonal problems at the weekly planning period meetings. A general commitment to being an effective task-oriented group member was frequently observed, but so were attitudes and behaviors that were generally disruptive to a planning-period group's consideration of a Clearing House assigned task. Negative behaviors were especially evident among faculty who did not participate in the initial workshop. In response to these lingering problems, the school district provided supplemental training for faculty who wanted to improve the functioning of their assigned planning-period group. Interpersonal skill development and small group management were the major components of this follow-up training activity.

IV. OD must be a long-term effort: Faculty came to start-up training with a variety of concerns related to student control. Discipline was their major agenda item and they dealt effectively with it. Less immediate progress was evident in the resolution of instructional- or classroom-management problems. It was apparent to the principal and the training staff that the value-laden issues associated with curricular change in an interracial learning environment would never be meaningfully addressed until problems related to student control were resolved. By mid-year, general satisfaction was being expressed about the way things had been turned around. The building was free from major disruptions and the second reassembly session in January could be fully devoted to a consideration of an alternative learning program that would be implemented during the next school year.[4] Such

4. An alternative learning program for students displaying dysfunctional learning behavior is now fully operational. The school has also implemented another alternative program embracing a "back-to-the-basics" approach and will begin functioning with interdisciplinary teaching teams for seventh-grade instruction during the 1977-78 school year.

a pattern would seem to suggest the importance of attacking the preeminent organizational concerns of faculty before moving into areas that their present circumstances might relegate to the strictly esoteric category.

If we were to be permitted just one generalization about where the OD training/change model had its greatest immediate impact, it would have to be the improvement in two-way communication in the school. Not only was downward communication enhanced by the principal's freer access to the informal structure, but upward communication was also vastly improved by having more channels available for sending messages. We are not suggesting that we have established a free flow of information in the school, but one presently observes more candor and openness when the tougher issues are debated.

V. OD training relies on collaborative activity in problem-solving groups. Group work was the major vehicle for issue analysis and resolution. As previously noted, problems did emerge in some planning period sessions when necessary problem-solving expertise was not immediately available. The expertise required for problem resolution probably existed within the context of the entire faculty, but was frequently not available within a given planning-period group. That circumstance could only be corrected at reassembly sessions when individual work tasks were determined by faculty self-selection Clearing House assignment. But between those infrequent meetings, the planning period approach was deemed the only reasonable way to proceed. Volunteerism built around before- or after-school sessions was rejected by faculty since the anticipated levels of non-attendance would preclude serious discussion on issues that required total staff input.

VI. OD must be managed from the top: The building principal can and did use OD to facilitate those organizational changes he perceived to be in order. He also had to assume the numerous time-consuming duties that come with a shared decision-making structure. The sheer increase in necessary dialogue has proved arduous at times, but the emergence of "quality" ideas and leadership skills at every level of the employee hierarchy has made that cost seem small. It would be the height of presumption to imply that firm administrative initiatives have singularly accounted for the school's productivity gains. The overwhelming majority of faculty wanted change and endorsed the OD management focus as a very necessary means to that end.

Some Tentative Conclusions about One OD Application

It should not be concluded that our school renewal effort has attained all of its objectives. A number of important goals have not been realized and indeed, some organizational refinements are definitely in order if the school is to build upon its initial progress. We still have to move a large number of faculty beyond their concern with student control issues to a more studied consideration of necessary curricular and/or instructional modifications. Progress in that respect was encouraging as evidenced by the emergence of general faculty support for a number of new student-centered programs.

Additionally, the quality of work-group activity must be upgraded. While planning period groups have become the prime vehicle for task accomplishment in the school

the following counter-productive behaviors will have to be continuously addressed if these sessions are to be truly effective.

• The day-to-day dynamics of a large school can alter faculty attitudes very dramatically. The sources of conflict (and all the associated behaviors) are always close to the surface, and faculty and administration must be prepared to deal with them.

• Some faculty have difficulty coping with their punitive instincts. Their fixation with student control issues frequently short-circuits necessary dialogue on the need for instructional change and personal growth.

• A few faculty find it easier to expound on the other person's problems (most notably those of the school administrators, parents and students) rather than their own. Self-assessment is simply not a dimension of their normal on-the-job conduct. This small minority in and of itself is not destructive, but it does tend to hinder collaborative work activity by an invariably negative stance on most problem-solving initiatives.

We suggest these lingering concerns because we do not want other administrators to view OD as a staff renewal panacea. The organization development process is behaviorally complex and will require the principal's tolerance of an occasional attitudinal lapse by some individuals. In our situation, the human and material resources initially available to the school enhanced the principal's capacity to *confront through training* the values and related attitudes that tended to perpetuate change-resistant norms.

Furthermore, this report on one isolated application of OD principles should not be viewed as our blind endorsement of its potential. In fact, we are convinced that there are environmental factors in some schools and school districts which suggest that the utilization of OD strategies to facilitate change would be counter-productive. A thorough review of possible delimiting factors is provided by Schmuck and Runkel (1975), and those research-based conclusions should be very carefully considered. Your attention is also directed to the studies of Schein and Greiner (1977) who argue that OD must become more attuned to bureaucratic realities if it is to prosper as an organizational change strategy.

At a personal level, we do have some reservations about the readiness of all school administrators to function comfortably within an OD framework. Public education is invariably faced with an unrelenting "press" for services by clients with widely differing perceptions of needs. Those often conflicting demands usually result in the building principal's being expected to address ever-changing *instrumental* goals rather than enforcing agreed upon *terminal* goals that could point his or her faculty to specific goal-directed behavior (Sieber, 1969). The extent to which the principal is comfortable responding to the reality of *instructional ambiguity as to purposes* may well determine his or her attraction to OD.

Another concern relates to the readiness of a given administrator to accept the emotional challenges of an OD program. All of us have probably touched base in our professional studies with McGregor's (1970, revised) Theory X and Theory Y dichotomy that proposes that one's management style stems from some deep personal feelings about the way in which an administrator interacts with his superiors, peers and especially his subordinates. The theory X strategy posits a "hard" managerial style

resulting in essentially authoritarian leadership. Theory Y accepts the position that subordinates are motivated by the job satisfactions that come from feelings of achievement, autonomy, self-respect and self-fulfillment. School administrators with a deep rather than a superficial commitment to the "Y" school of thought will strive to satisfy their faculty's need for achievement and self-actualization while they perform the normal work of the school. OD, with its emphasis on openness and trust, leveling, feedback, confronting conflict and risk taking, would obviously be a more logical management fit for them. In the absence of such a commitment, the tendency (even after inservice training that considers these skills and understandings) is to slip back into a Theory X operational mode which may be emotionally less threatening and administratively less demanding.

Staff development programs which prepare building administrators to implement organizational renewal strategies will always be high risk ventures if they do not acknowledge the management philosophy and related expectations held by *key* school district leadership. Such preparatory experiences may also prove inadequate if they do not recognize and respond to the following commonly observed deficiencies in administrator behavior: denying or avoiding the major souces of conflict; disowning personal responsibility for initiating action or taking a stand on an issue; waiting for someone else to make the first move; resting on early or easy successes in less critical areas instead of pushing on for higher levels of effectiveness; reacting to failure experiences by finding a convenient scape-goat rather than searching for the real causes of failure; expecting to accomplish new levels of effectiveness without learning essential new concepts and skills; taking action on an issue without having clear goals in mind due to an initial lack of data.

A Final Word

It is always gratifying to be able to point to training initiatives that seem to take a faculty a long way in a relatively short period of time. The authors feel secure enough in their shared judgment about programmatic accomplishment to suggest general satisfaction with the quality of the decisions being made by faculty. And a good part of that quality has been rooted in OD processes that have encouraged two-way dialogue on the critical issues. The staff is now communicating about problems that would have been silently tolerated in the past.

Peer evaluation is a case in point. In one instance, a faculty member who refused to support newly established departmental policies (a resistance pattern he had displayed for a number of years) was officially admonished by his peers. Departmental colleagues demanded his adherence to those policies, and their firmness on the matter prevailed. The individual subsequently requested reassignment to another school. Another faculty person was identified by colleagues as abusing protocols that had been established to deal with some of the less serious disciplinary infractions in the building. It was a simple case of one individual overloading a detention facility with students from his classes. The faculty's response, with principal endorsement, was the reactivation of the Discipline Committee (formed during the initial workshop) to help monitor student assignment patterns to that facility. A formal complaint was directed by the committee to the individual in question, and the

desired response was forthcoming. In the past, both of these incidents would have been exclusively reserved for the principal's consideration; now the climate of the school supports direct faculty intervention in resolving some of the tougher interpersonal hassles.

It is also suggested, in support of the policy-enforcement prerogatives normally assigned to the building principal, that the newly created decision-making and communication structures in no way infringed upon his ability to provide leadership. If anything, these management alterations have strengthened the principal's capacity to help faculty identify necessary new directions and to more efficiently monitor existing programs. The overwhelming majority of faculty had no interest in usurping the formal authority of the principal. He was generally perceived as a source of necessary expertise and direction whose management perspective was welcomed.

A suggestion for the principal who chooses to "OD it" might be to go back and reread Barnard's (1938) classic essay on the "Zone of Indifference." This particular faculty minced no words about the issues that they would not choose to be indifferent to. A more immediate concern, as events have proved, is the need to reduce the number of issues that fall inside the indifference zone. It would seem, for example, that curricular change would be a high priority item, but those are usually the topics that are the easiest to put off. Operationally, the logistics attached to their consideration are always judged by faculty to be insurmountable. We must, therefore, view the unfinished business of OD as creating the management conditions that will support the systematic consideration of the long-term educational issues. Nevertheless, we will argue that our OD management strategy is providing a game plan that will incrementally prepare a faculty group for a larger role in pursuit of general school improvement.

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Rules of thumb for everyday life as an administrator

Guides to administrator behavior

by Frederick R. Cyphert

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Theories of educational administration, as they should, both describe and explain administrator behavior. They seldom, however, lead to guidelines for preferred practice except perhaps through involved derivations. In an attempt to analyze, and ultimately improve, his own administrative performance, this writer pulled together the following "rules of thumb" that he uses to guide his everyday life as an administrator. They neither flow from nor form some theory of supervision or administration. Most are not original with this author. Their utility for the reader may be as a stimulus for thought and action and for preparing comparable statements for one's own use.

Some Axioms for Guiding Administrative Behavior

1. People support exciting and useful ideas—not needy institutions.

2. We hold our jobs because of what we cause to happen—rather than for what we do. We're paid for the quality of our consequences rather than the amount of our work.

3. Don't whet appetites for anything until you see a reasonable likelihood that the hunger can be satisfied.

4. Ninety per cent of an idea can be developed with the initial ten per cent of effort. It takes the other ninety per cent of the effort to develop the final ten per cent of the idea. Consquently, one must carefully decide which application of effort is appropriate to a given task.

5. Don't answer the specific question posed to you until you have arrived at an answer to the generic question. Only then will you be both consistent and efficient.

6. Think in terms of excellence, and spend your time and effort in the places where they are most likely to bear fruit.

7. No matter how much the people inside of an organization think they control it, most changes come from forces outside of the organization.

8. Communication on the idea level is quite different from cooperation on the action level. Work diligently on the former, and hope for enough of the latter.

9. A good visible project is always better than an equally good hidden endeavor.

10. The power to get things done belongs to those who assume they have it! Don't look for reasons why things can't be done.

11. Never lose your "cool" with administrative subordinates; if you must get angry, focus it on superiors.

12. The man with a plan is the man who wins; to fail to plan is to plan to fail.

13. Try to think a situation through from the other-fellow's point-of-view *before* you formulate your strategy.

14. Good news can be communicated in any fashion; bad news should be communicated face-to-face.

15. Every question has both feasibility and desirability facets. Don't mix the two too quickly, lest you settle for less than you should.

16. Take as long as you need to arrive at your decision—but time spent between a decision and its implementation is time lost.

17. Be extremely careful in selecting those decisions for which you are willing to die. Let the strength of your tenacity match the importance of the principle.

18. Get your reward system in line with your objectives.

19. It's great to inspire the troops with a pep talk—but it won't work for long unless the Boss is working hard himself. Practice what you preach!

20. Don't surprise your colleagues. Lay the groundwork so that your decision (or recommendation) is a logical outgrowth of the information people have.

21. Part of a leader's role is that of picking up the bushes that people hide behind to keep from doing what they need to do. Destroy the obvious excuses.

22. Things seldom happen because of one cause. One can seldom precipitate or cure a happening by manipulating only one variable.

23. The ultimate posture from which one is best able to make productive personal change is one of being "proud but not satisfied."

24. A man would do nothing if he waited until he could do it so well that no one would find fault with what he had done.

25. Build on strengths—your own strengths, those of your superiors, colleagues and subordinates, and the strengths in the situation. Don't build on weakness or start with things you cannot do.

26. Know where your time goes. Work systematically at managing the little of your time that can be brought under control.

27. Concentrate on the few major areas where superior performance will produce outstanding results. Force yourself to set priorities and stay with them. You have no choice but to do first things first and second things not at all.

28. When there is a conflict between what your intellect and logic tell you to do—and what your "gut level" feeling is—postpone the decision. If you must cross the bridge—go with that unexplainable feeling.

29. Examine periodically the assumptions upon which you are operating. This will cause you to discard a few, add a new one and have renewed insight into others.

30. Concentrate on those factors within any situation which are relevant (i.e., make a difference) and which are manipulatable (i.e., you can change them). Disregard the others.

31. Beware of goal displacement, i.e., the tendency to turn away from original goals and to substitute means for ends.

32. Be alert to problem displacement, i.e., the usually unconscious substitution of concern for trivial problems in place of concern for significant problems because the significant problems appear insolvable.

33. Never assume that competence as a scholar and competence as a practicioner are identical.

34. People, more often than not, do what is expected of them. Most people never reach their potential.

35. Both questions and security come from what we know.

36. The key to improvement is knowledge of results. Plan to acquire feedback. Know what you will accept as evidence of success.

37. People do not behave according to the facts as others see them; they behave in terms of what seems to them to be so.

38. The most important ideas which affect people's behavior are those ideas they have about themselves.

39. Know that every problem has both its political and its substantive (or educational) solutions and be able to discern how much of each is proper for each decision.

40. Every time you take an action it precipitates a response or reaction. Watch that cathartic actions don't deepen your problem.

The utility of these "rules of thumb" will differ with the situation and the administrative style of the individual. Like most rules, they may require bending from time to time. They are offered not as a solution to the ambiguities of administrative decision-making, but as an attempt to apply rationality to the dynamic practice of administering educational organizations.

Educators frequently perceive community college trustees as grossly ignorant about higher education.

Corollary responsibilities of the community college board of trustees

by Dennis M. Shockley

Dennis M. Shockley is a doctoral candidate in history with an outside area in educational administration at Kansas State University. Of particular interest to him is the community college concept in education. He holds a bachelor's degree from Louisiana Tech University and a master's degree from Kansas State College of Pittsburg, both in history. Shockley's major area of historical interest is Twentieth Century America and he currently holds the Dwight Eisenhower Fellowship in Twentieth Century American History at Kansas State.

Although a sizable amount of literature exists dealing with community colleges, there is a scarcity of material about their trustees. Indeed, many books written about community colleges either omit the topic of trustees altogether, or only skim over it. James W. Thornton, Jr., for example, in **The Community Junior College**, a standard text of the two-year institution, devotes merely four pages to the trustees. This paucity of literature suggests the relative unimportance of the local board of trustees. Nothing could be further from the truth.

Trustees are frequently perceived by many educators, and often rightly so, as grossly ignorant about higher education and terribly uninformed about the board's general role in the governance of the community college. Therefore, some administrators would just as soon have a "rubber stamp" board, which abdicates its responsibilities to an administration that is trained in governing an educational institution. But the distinguishing characteristic of higher education in America is that **control** is vested in individuals or trustees who are not professional educators. This is a concept worth keeping. However, what good is "lay" control, if the "laymen" shirk their responsibilities?

Until recently only the student was held accountable for the success of his learning. But when a hospital patient fails to recover, is it the patient's fault? More and more, teachers and administrators are having to answer the question of accountability. Trustees are not exempt. The entire college must assume at least a large share of the responsibility for each student's failure, and the trustees have an obligation to perform the duties vested in their positions wisely.

The typical community college trustee is quite similar to his counterpart in the four-year college. Peter K. Mills in a survey of community college trustees found the typical trustee to be: "a Caucasian male; the holder of a bachelor's degree; a Protestant over 45; an executive, lawyer, doctor or small businessman who earns more than $20,000 a year; married with children; a long-time community resident; a Republican who describes himself as a moderate, who has served as a trustee for more than five years, and who has other extensive public service." Also, he is a political animal; about 60 percent of the trustees are elected by popular, district elections, while the remaining forty percent are appointed, usually by the governor.[1]

The few references describing the duties and functions of community college trustees are largely indistinguishable from those of four-year college trustees. Although they do have the same general responsibilities as their colleagues in four-year institutions, the community college trustees have, in addition, some very special problems. These include the special significance of institutional purpose, the dimly defined position of community colleges in the overall educational establishment, the complexities of the legal status of community colleges, and the specialized function of the trustee as a "layman" because of his close proximity to the institution.

Legally, community college boards are public corporations in which a group of trustees are empowered by statute to act as one person. As corporations, the boards have certain rights, to own property, to levy taxes, to sue and to be sued in the courts and to make all necessary rules for the governance of the college. Besides maintaining statutes, the boards are responsible for the hiring, and firing of personnel, setting of tuition, authorizing all expenditures and even selecting the design of buildings. But it is not these legal responsibilities of the board of trustees that are the most important to the college and the community it serves. Rather, there are other corollary responsibilities that need to be met.

The first and most important of these corollary responsibilities is that the board should be well informed. As general overseers of the college, board members must strive to be well informed not just on fiscal matters, but on the philosophy of the community college concept as well. Without a properly informed board of trustees, a community college's effectiveness can be severely weakened, particularly in regard to institutional objectives and fulfilling the community's educational needs.

The board of trustees must also approve a clearly written statement of purpose for which the college exists. In the community college, purpose is much more related to policy than in the four-year college. The evolution of a statement of purpose for a particular community college, while not solely the responsibility of the trustees, nonetheless needs their grasp of the needs of the local community. No board of trustees should take this responsibility lightly. A community college represents a tremendous investment in human and financial resources and the early decisions regarding its purposes will effect the students and community for a long time. In sum, "it is imperative to think through the philosophical base on which the college should be built, and to state rather specific objectives and means of accomplishment to carry out the philosophy."[2]

The board of trustees should seek to obtain a positive image for the college. This can be achieved in part if the board develops a clear code of ethics and behavior that is made available to the entire community. This code of ethics should be more than just a set of general guidelines. It must be precise. And when a board member violates the code, he should be replaced. In fact, a code of ethics and behavior should be written into state statute for full effectiveness, because except in cases of finance, boards of trustees are not held legally accountable for anything. Of course, the ethics of a board depends upon the integrity of individual members, and dubious behavior on their part will taint the image not only of the board, but the college as well. A positive image of the college is extremely difficult to obtain, if the local board of trustees has failed to establish its trustworthiness and believability.

Also, in creating a positive image of the college, the board should seek to involve the surrounding community with the campus. Local education groups, service organizations, civic groups and business associations should be invited to use the campus facilities of the college for their meetings and, if possible, to even observe the daily functioning of the academic complex. Besides the possible use of dining and conference rooms, other areas within the campus which could be opened to the public include the physical education facilities, the theater or auditorium, child care centers, health centers, as well as special exhibits such as art displays.

Going hand in hand with creating the positive image of the college is the development and encouragement by the board of trustees of the open campus concept. This, of course, is designed around the principle that the college belongs to the community and the community belongs to the college. The true community college has an obligation to provide an open campus accessible to all people in the community, not just formally enrolled students. The very essence of the community college is to democratize education, to make education beyond high school available to all who desire it. And a natural adjunct to this principle is that the board should initiate policies that reflect the college as an institution with an open mind and for an open society. This would include a concerted effort to employ more minorities and particularly more women in the college. The administration and faculty should generally reflect the composition of the community, even if the elected or appointed board of trustees does not.

Another responsibility of the local board is to be knowledgeable about the fiscal matters of the college including familiarity with the buildings and grounds of the campus. It should not merely depend on the decisions made by the president and then "rubber stamp" them. With financial matters of a typical community college reaching into the millions, the local board must assume its role in overseeing this money. As with a private corporation, good fiscal management is essential. The selection of a chief business officer for the college should be taken on with the greatest meticulousness; he and the president have the two most important administrative jobs. However, again, the board must not divest their own fiscal responsibility in the business officer. The board should make a careful analysis of all expenditures, not simply "rubber stamp" the financial recommendations of the business officer. Also, when an informed board is familiar with the conditions of the buildings, grounds and equipment of the college, it is a better position to anticipate capital expenditures and to deal more knowledgeably with the fiscal problems of the college.

A board of trustees should exercise the responsibility of seeing that the college has a capable staff and appropriate programs and curricula. The board should familiarize itself with the criteria which the college administration uses for recommending the hiring of a person in addition to the minimum academic credentials. Particularly, the board should stress the importance of hiring individuals who will most likely fulfill the aims and objectives of the college generally and especially the mission of the community college. In addition, the board should be knowledgeable about programs and curricula; this is important to maintain quality. Essentially defunct programs should not be retained only to secure jobs. Programs and courses which flunk out a large number of students should be examined to find out why. This should not be only the concern of the administration. Boards need to know how the need of a curriculum is determined and the procedures taken in its development up to the time they approve it. A board should always realize that when a community can no longer absorb its graduates in a particular program, it should usually discontinue that program and use those resources in one or more other programs. Allocation of resources must be made on the basis of student and community need; not used to main-

tain absolute programs, save jobs, or in the case of some foreign languages, to perpetuate tradition.

Another responsibility of the local board is to review constantly its policies to determine whether or not they need revision. Many changes take place in a community college in a short period of time and a board must be innovative and move with the changes. It is important in relation to this, that board members understand the sources of college problems and be able to respond intelligently. The demand for accountability, racial tensions, student disorders and the unionization of the teaching profession all require direct attention by the board of trustees.

Faculty unionization and collective bargaining in higher education is growing faster on the two-year college level than on the four-year level. This is largely due to the fact that at a two-year institution, the faculty members generally have a greater course load and are paid less than their four-year counterparts. The record over the last few years shows that where unionization is planted, it thrives. Where faculties organize and obtain bargaining agents, they stay organized. Joseph Garbarino, author of **Faculty Bargaining: Change and Conflict**, and others agree that the highest amount of unionization will be achieved in the community colleges and the state college and university systems. In fact, of 212 college faculty unions in the United States in 1974, 150 were in community colleges.[3] Among the chief dangers of faculty bargaining is the creation of an embattled and adversary spirit that is a deterrent to program planning and the goals of the community college. The chief defense against this danger is an effort by trustees, as well as administrators, to understand and appreciate the forces and motivation present is faculty acceptance of unionization and collective bargaining.

Finally, the board of trustees has a responsibility not to allow its statutory power and authority to be usurped by the college administration, particularly the president. Certainly, the selection of a president is the most important job that the board ever undertakes, but the president is the chief administrator of the college and the chief advisor to the board, not the chairman of the board. The trustees should always make it clear who sets the policy. By the same token the board should not involve itself in the administration of the college, that is the domain of the president. There is a fine line between the board's function as policymaker and the role of the president and others in the administration of the college, but it should not be crossed from either direction. A skillful balance must be maintained so that the college can function under optimum conditions on the uppermost levels of control.

The principle and practice of local lay trusteeship in the community college is not guaranteed survival in the future. It could easily become an anachronism. Indeed, the national trend is toward statewide boards of control and coordination, and even away from the concept of "lay." Whether or not local lay trusteeship survives will depend in large part on the extent to which it meets a genuine need, and even more important on the extent to which it meets its own reponsibilities to the college and to the community. If local boards do not accept their proper responsibilities, if they remain largely uninformed, then they deserve to have their power appropriated. And they will have to accept the responsibility for that.

Footnotes

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Quality controls are exercised in the performance of research, but that same critical attitude with respect to teaching is lacking.

Professors as teachers: a case for faculty development

by Martha Ann Atkins

Martha Ann Atkins is an instructor in speech at Kansas State University. She teaches public speaking and interviewing, and supervises graduate students teaching the basic speech course. Atkins also directs the departmental test-out program which offers the student a credit alternative to the basic speech course.

Educators in general are becoming increasingly aware of projections for and the actuality of declining student enrollments in institutions of higher education. Faculty members in particular, faced with the tightest job market in years, sense further cutbacks in the number of available faculty positions. Moreover, the larger economic context in which higher education must operate has somewhat unsettled the "sheltered groves."

The long-held American ideal that "bigger is better" is being challenged by a relatively new disciplinary group known as futurists.[1] The idea that "small is beautiful," as put forth by E. F. Schumacher, is slowly gaining both popular and scholarly acceptance.[2] One major Democratic Presidential aspirant campaigned extensively on this theme.[3]

Educators too have picked up on Schumacher's theme, raising serious questions about the "bigness" of higher education. Berstein, in fact, went so far as to attempt developing criteria for judging when an educational institution is too big.[4]

Thinking small is not entirely a new idea, but traditionally it has been most appealing to faculty in terms of the student/teacher ratio within their own classrooms, or in some cases the number of students they must advise. It is well known, for example, that many professors prefer small graduate seminars over large introductory classes. Given, however, the present enrollment projections, educators are implored to think small in far less agreeable areas, e.g., opportunities for promotion and tenure, salary increases, time allocated for research and professional mobility.

Schumacher, as a previsor of the economic world, argues that the economic system should serve man; man should not serve the system. His subtitle, "Economics as if People Mattered," reflects this position as well as any of the contents of his book. This message could be easily adapted into an educational philosophy focusing on the educational system "as if students mattered."

Perhaps some of the problems faculty will be facing due to "smallness" could be mitigated by concentrating on the teaching of students, which is after all the major charge of an educational institution. Most Ph.D. programs concentrate on preparing graduate students for research rather than teaching endeavors, and very few graduate students are trained in the work they will actually do as teachers. Conventional academic wisdom holds that knowledge and promise of expertise in a discipline are the primary ingredients for successfully teaching students. As a result, while quality controls are exercised in the performance of research and the products produced thereby, the same critical attitude with respect to teaching activities seemingly is lacking.[5]

Lyons contends that students feel they are not being served by the educational system: "The more perceptive students see teachers less as dedicated practitioners of their disciplines than as persons whose good fortune it has been to convince the government or the trustees to underwrite their hobbies."[5] Some students not only feel underserved and boxed in by the educational system, but fatalistically sense things may get worse. Werdell argues that "the majority of students sense, quite realistically, that most of the jobs offered them upon graduation, if indeed there are jobs, offer them roles as workers no less limiting than the traditional roles of learners."[6]

If indeed these searing indictments are even somewhat typical of student attitudes, then a time of retrenchment for higher education is here. Many institutions have relied too long on external mechanisms for faculty development, e.g., allowances for travel to professional meetings, faculty exchange programs, externally funded research or project grants and high rates of faculty turnover due to an easy-access type of professional mobility. All of this is changing. More and more faculty members will be staying put. Not only will they think twice about leaving a permanent institutional position, but their travel budgets may soon decrease, and so may their external funds for special projects. Institutions wishing to revitalize their faculty may have to develop their own individual plans of action. Simply stated, some efforts at internal enrichment are necessary if making do with less is to be either acceptable or workable in the area of professional improvement and advancement.

Higher education administrators need not only to implement programs for faculty renewal, but also to devise systems of tangible rewards for faculty participation in such programs. The process for faculty renewal might include professional development, revitalization for teaching and learning, and improvement of instructional methods and skills, as well as encouraging an enthusiastic respect for the entire student/professor transaction. Tangible rewards could come either directly in the form of dollars or less directly in the form of tenure, promotion and/or release time to participate in the program.

The methods for meeting these objectives are already in use in some institutions and have met with varying degrees of success. Some problems associated with implementation of faculty development programs are resistance to new methods, the belief that only someone educated in a particular subject area can talk meaningfully about teaching it, reluctance to admit possible communication weaknesses and lack of sufficient rewards for the time invested.

For purposes of clarification an overview of some current programs for faculty renewal is essential. In the past, programs for professional development have focused on methods for increasing the individual's knowledge of his/her discipline. Support for research, travel to professional meetings and sabbatical leaves were the major ways this objective was met. However, since the primary responsibility of most faculty members is teaching students, the emphasis of faculty development currently is shifting toward programs designed to increase teaching effectiveness. L. Richard Meeth notes that "many faculty are now deeply concerned with improving their teaching effectiveness. For some this concern is the product of an institutional commitment to more meaningful instructional methods; for others, it arises from a departmental anxiety about declining interest in the discipline."[7]

Another reason for a shift in emphasis is directly related to the decline in academic career opportunities. Since opportunities for mobility are decreasing, faculty members are requesting that their institution provide the enriching experiences which promote professional development, and which might otherwise be denied them.

Jerry G. Gaff has attempted a descriptive analysis on current concepts and practices for improving teaching and learning. In the chart on the following page, he has identified three general areas for these programs of professional development.[8] Although Gaff has separated faculty development into three distinct categories, he notes that the most exciting programs have involved a combination of elements from all three areas into a comprehensive program.

> Any college or university has a great diversity of faculty members, and a comprehensive program seems more capable of meeting the diverse needs of faculty at different stages in their lives and careers and with different educational philosophies and personal styles than any more narrowly conceived program. Further, a comprehensive program is capable of making a more holistic and integrated impact on faculty than a single-purpose one. If it is important for faculty members to function effectively as individual professionals, as instructors and as organization members, then all these features need to be incorporated into a comprehensive instructional-improvement program.[9]

Although approaches to faculty development vary, the growing importance of instructional improvement is evidenced by the widespread creation of a unique kind of agency, whose primary function is to assist college faculty members improve their instruction. These agencies, centers or offices may differ in scope within their various institutions of higher education, but they share a common purpose: to contribute to the development of improved college instruction.[10]

For example, in 1970 the Office of Educational Improvement and Innovation was established at Kansas State University. Its primary purpose is to promote excellence in teaching and provide assistance to those faculty members who wish to improve their instruction. Present services offered by the office include individual consultations with faculty members concerning ways to strengthen their teaching effectiveness, group consultation to discuss evaluation of teaching and faculty performance, a college teaching course designed to help college-level teachers become more effective classroom instructors, seminars on subjects of interest to classroom teachers, a videotape service for individual classroom evaluation by the instructor, a library of books and other readings about college teaching and an evaluation system.

The evaluation system gathers, analyzes and reports on student reactions to the instructional process. It is known as the IDEA (Instructional Development and Effectiveness Assessment) system. The student rating scale provides feedback to each instuctor on his/her teaching behaviors. This office also administers a program which usually grants four monetary awards to faculty members for excellence in undergraduate teaching.[11]

Alternative conceptions of instructional improvement

	Faculty Development	Instructional Development	Organizational Development
Focus:	Faculty members	Courses or curricula	Organization
Purpose:	Promote faculty growth; help faculty members acquire knowledge, skills, sensitivities, and techniques related to teaching and learning.	Improve student learning; prepare learning materials; redesign courses; make instruction systematic.	Create effective environment for teaching and learning; improve interpersonal relationships; enhance team functioning; create policies that support effective teaching and learning.
Intellectual base:	Clinical, developmental, and social psychology; psychiatry; socialization.	Education, instructional media and technology, learning theory, systems theory.	Organizational theory, organizational change; group processes.
Typical Activities:	Seminars, workshops, teaching evaluation.	Projects to produce new learning materials or redesign courses; workshops on writing objectives, evaluating students.	Workshops for group leaders or team members, action research with work groups, task forces to revise organizational policies.

This program, as well as the majority of faculty development programs, does face at least one major problem: it has not been in use long enough to evaluate systematically its long term effect on the issues associated with faculty retrenchment. By all indications, though such programs exist in only a minority of institutions of higher education, they nevertheless represent a significant impact on the continuing adaptation of higher education to the future requirements of society. In fact, administrators need to continue to develop and legitimize future programs for faculty renewal.

It appears crucial that a system of tangible rewards also must be devised in order to insure full faculty participation. This argument rests, of course, on the assumption that participation in a program for faculty development can lead to increased teaching effectiveness. Typically, any substantial rewards allocated by four-year institutions are not distributed on the basis of teaching effectiveness. There is, however, a countervailing trend in this area which has been led by community college administrators. Still, according to Lipset:

Regardless of what university presidents say about effective teaching (and they mean it), these institutions give off sharply contradictory signals to their faculty. If faculty look beyond the speeches to

alumni and to students and at graduation exercises, they find clear instructions in the facts reported by my former colleague: if you want salary increases, rapid promotion, or offers from other schools, devote as much of your time as you can to your research.[12]

Educators naturally do not want the economic malaise to force them to "think small" in these areas, so indeed they scramble to "publish or perish." Research is vital and necessary; disseminating research and other knowledge through scholarly publication is a worthy endeavor. These activities should be and are being rewarded. However, sharing, inspiring, leading, communicating and effectively teaching students should be equally rewarded. Actually, some steps have been taken in this direction, as evidenced by Kansas State President Duane Acker's recent memo on salary recommendations and procedures for their determination.[13] Writing to deans, directors and department heads, Acker's first suggestion was that they give good attention to "those faculty who are academic advisors and who do an especially good job of academic advising." He then suggested a look at "those who have heavy teaching responsibilities and who are good at it." **Third** was a mention of research faculty. Still, several ideas need wider acceptance before the shift toward equalizing the reward system can be completed:

1. Understanding and knowledge of a subject area do not necessarily imply the ability to convey that knowledge and understanding.
2. Teaching and research can be complimentary activities rather than competitive activities.
3. There are as many effective ways to teach and learn as there are professors and students.

Evaluation for the purpose of providing tangible rewards is a process surrounded by more questions than answers. The most important questions are evaluation by whom and with what criteria. Traditional areas of faculty development are easily quantifiable, e.g., number of publications, number of professional meetings attended and number of invited presentations. But effective teaching seems to translate into a question of quality. It is possible to subjectively recognize quality but impossible to objectively define quality. Therefore, the answers to the questions surrounding the evaluation of effective teaching remain nebulous.

The tangible rewards for participation in a program of faculty development and renewal might come in the form of salary increases and increased job security. Administrators should not attempt to evalute teaching effectiveness, but should devote their carefully conserved energy to the development of excellent programs for faculty renewal. This can be done several ways:

1. Actively seeking national resource people and project grants to enhance faculty development programs.
2. Fully utilizing the expertise already available on most campuses.
3. Facilitating the exchange of ideas about teaching and learning among the existing staff within an academic discipline.
4. Providing release time for faculty members to participate in the program.

If these four suggestions are heeded, then declining student enrollments need not be a gloomy prediction. An obvious but seldom-mentioned relationship does exist between educators and the people their institutions serve, and the economic well-being of the institution depends upon the continued support of these students, taxpayers, and donors. Educators have a unique opportunity to think small in terms of higher quality service for students and the community in which they all live.

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Citizen involvement in public education has been a tradition in our country.

The varied functions of local vocational advisory councils

by A. Bruce Hartung

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The past decade has seen a renewed interest in and resurgence of vocational education programs at all levels—middle-school, secondary and post-secondary. Accompanying this growth has been an increased emphasis on having local advisory committees or councils to assist these programs.

Advisory councils, in general, may provide immeasurable and invaluable assistance to teachers, principals and other administrators with respect to many programs—perhaps the most critical of these programs is in the area of vocational education. There are few limitations to this assistance except those inherent in the extent to which individual members are willing and able to become involved. Citizen involvement in public education has been a tradition in our country. Through citizen involvement with professionals in planning and evaluating educational programs, both the quality and the equality of opportunity of these programs are enhanced.[1] Involvement of citizens also enhances public support for further and stronger educational programs.

The Congress also realized the wisdom and necessity for citizen involvement, as evidenced by Sec. 105(g) of the recently signed "Educational Ammendments of 1976," which states:

(1) Each eligible recipient receiving assistance under this Act to operate vocational education programs shall establish a local advisory council to provide such agency with advice on current job needs and on the relevency of courses being offered by such agency in meeting such needs. Such local advisory councils shall be composed of members of the general public, especially of representatives of business, industry, and labor; and such local advisory councils may be established for program areas,

schools, communities, or regions, whichever the recipient determines best to meet the needs of that recipient.

(2) Each State board shall notify eligible recipients within the state of the responsibilities of such recipients under the provisions of paragraph (1); and each state advisory council shall make available to such recipients and the local advisory councils of such recipients such technical assistance as such recipients may request to establish and operate such councils.[2]

As the federal law suggests, advisory councils may range in scope from program area councils, to school councils, to local administrative agency councils or to educational district councils. Generally, the program area advisory councils would be more likely to deal with "nitty-gritty" kinds of things whereas local educational agency or district councils would be more likely to concern themselves with more general issues. However, persons on any vocational advisory council may be asked to provide leadership, advice, or assistance in any number of areas or ways.

In general, however, the primary function of any advisory group at any level is to provide guidance or assistance to teachers and/or administrators.

Program area advisory councils should have as their membership both employers and employees who are engaged in work in the program area. It might also be advisable to include a recent graduate and a currently enrolled student. Program area councils should assist in determining needs for new programs and advise on course content. Their expertise should be involved in establishing realistic standards for the program and in periodic program evaluation.

School advisory councils are the liaison between the vocation education program of the school and the business and industrial community which it serves. Membership on these councils should vary to meet the needs of individual situations, but it should include at least one person knowledgeable of the needs of each of the school's program areas. School advisory councils should assist in determining the vocational education needs of the community. They may provide assistance in assessing the present and future local job market and hence advise on the initiation, termination or modification of programs. They may also assist in interpreting the total vocational program to the community and play a major role in program evaluation. If school advisory councils are to be maximally effective, communication must be a two-way proposition. That is, ideas must be brought to the school from business and industry and the philosophy and workings of the school's total program must be interpreted to the council for dissemination to the community.[3]

Local educational agency (L.E.A. administrative unit) advisory councils should be composed of representatives of the major vocational areas in the geographic area which that L.E.A. serves. If school advisory councils exist within that L.E.A., each of these councils should be represented. The functions of an L.E.A. advisory council are somewhat broader than those of a school advisory council. The council for an L.E.A. should advise the school board on the development of both long-range and annual plans for vocational education, and on matters of policy with regard to the implementation of these plans. These councils also should have the responsibility of determining community needs and transmitting these to the school board as well as interpreting board policy to the community. They

should also be spokesmen for the vocational education programs and assist school officials in evaluating the effectiveness of the total program.

Educational district advisory councils are normally composed of persons from each of the L.E.A. councils within the district, membership from manpower groups and representatives of the general public. Generally, these groups advise educators within their region, analyze vocational trends and send recommendations to those persons responsible for statewide planning.

The federal law does not dictate what system of advisory councils shall be operated, but leaves this decision to each recipient. Neither does the law simply say "go do this the best way you can," but requires that the State Advisory Council provide whatever technical assistance is requested.

If the only reason for establishing these local councils is to satisfy the federal requirements, any perfunctory attempt would suffice. However, if the intent is to comply with the spirit as well as the letter of the law, care must be taken in the appointment of the council members and operation of the councils in general. Citizen groups should be asked for suggestions for possible appointees. Some members appointed should have recent practical experience in the vocational areas, and all members should receive their appointments through the superintendent and school board.[4]

Unless citizen groups are involved at the local level, educators will continue making their decisions based upon past experience, general manpower data and their own generally good judgment. However, no opinions regarding the job market, needed additions and revisions to the curriculum, retraining needs, and other aspects of vocational education are as valid and valuable as those of recent graduates and workmen in the field. As clearly recognized by the Congress, it would be a complete waste if this expertise were not utilized to the fullest. As fundamental as this seems, it is difficult to understand why citizen involvement in planning for vocational educational programs has not been the rule rather than the exception. However, had this been universally the case, the federal requirement would not have been necessary.

In conclusion, it should be remembered that the one overall purpose of any advisory council is to provide advice and assistance to the teachers and administrators involved in vocational programs. Virtually any supplementary activity which contributes to or increases the overall effectiveness of vocational education programs and which the members of the advisory council are willing and able to undertake may be considered a perfectly valid function of that council.

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This article is written for superintendents who wish to assess their planning efforts.

Consider educational planning

by George Crawford and Jerry Bailey

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All of us plan. Some of us are more successful at the process than others. All of us have heard that planning is important in the successful operation of our schools. This paper is provided for superintendents who wish to assess their planning efforts.

Laurence J. Peter provides the writers solid advice in the preparation of this article. "The rational process is taught in schools and universities, yet is seldom put into practice outside of the classroom. . . . Most schools . . . have complex, formalized procedures for problem solving and decision making—procedures that are hard to follow under the stress of day-to-day life when immediate responses are required" (pp. 157-58). Since practitioners know the pressures of their positions far better than we could ever understand, this article is general in nature. In order for it to be of maximum use, the reader needs to consider the principles discussed in the light of his or her unique school environment—its current situation, the district's goals and aspirations and the options available for reaching its objectives. We intend to provide a three step approach to the analysis of planning difficulties.

The steps are a definition of planning, a consideration of major roadblocks, and finally guides to action for the superintendent.

A working definition

"Once I was asked to head up a new long-range planning effort. My wife listened to my glowing description of my new job. Next evening she blew the whole schmeer out of the water by asking: 'What did you plan today, dear?' Bless her" (Townsend, p. 128). As Mr. Townsend may be suggesting, educators sometimes attempt to separate the planning function from the realities of the moment. We believe that this approach is unfortunate. How do you get to where you want to be if you don't remember where you are? *In its basic form planning involves identifying some desired state, comparing that state (goal) with the present, and providing the means for getting from present to future state.* Planning, then, is a process which develops a product—a plan. And, since situations change, the plan needs ongoing scrutiny and possible revision.

Major roadblocks

In considering roadblocks to planning, effectiveness is influenced by (1) the superintendent, (2) the organization and (3) the social environment.

The Superintendent

The first roadblock to planning on the part of the superintendent is lack of commitment to planning. Many superintendents do not believe, or are not aware, that planning will make any significant difference. This apparent lack of commitment is often a product of human or fiscal resource scarcity.

Second, there is a tendency for superintendents and school districts to not keep pace with changes in contemporary society. First on the list of social changes is the change in knowledge itself. Our knowledge base is dynamic—as what we know grows, information becomes obsolete. How do we organize schools to accommodate new knowledge while eliminating "obsolete knowledge" from the educational program? How do we "transmit the culture" when we're not sure what "the culture" is? A major part of the change in the knowledge base is technological in nature. How does our capacity to be informed about world-wide events on a same-day or same-

hour basis affect the schools' need to respond? Is the curriculum still textbook bound?

Think about the technological developments which make it possible or *require* one move every five years for American families. How do curricular and organizational formats accommodate the turnover of students within individual districts? Does a 50 per cent turnover in a school's pupil population during a given year require a different educational approach? Would schools serve mobile students more effectively by offering discrete learning units 15 days length over the course of the school year?

A third potential problem area for superintendents is related to specific planning knowledge and skill. How many of us are skilled in the uses of trend analysis, future forecasting, cross impact matrix analysis, Delphi technique, *Perting*, and scenario writing (see Hencley and Yates, 1974).

It is becoming increasingly apparent that the interest of the public is shifting from how the schools *do* things—processes—to what the schools achieve—products (Mosteller and Moynihan, 1972). The term accountability, as it relates to these products or outcomes, may be with us for a long time. The manner in which superintendents do or do not deal with the accountability question becomes the fourth potential roadblock to effective planning.

A fifth and final problem facing superintendents concerns the relationships that exist between planning and policy-making. If policy makers are not persuaded that planning is an essential activity, planning can not succeed. If the commitment on the part of board members is absent, planning becomes a task that happens "because everyone knows you are supposed to plan;" and, if there is a correlation between what actually occurs and the plan, it is coincidental. The superintendent is in the key position to advocate or oppose the planning process at the policy level.

Organizational Roadblocks

One organizational roadblock to effective planning is that schools and school systems tend to be statically organized and operated. We "keep on keeping on." This orientation is a potentially fatal flaw.

In its most elementary form planning involves an individual decision maker without a specific mandate. If planning is to occur the person must have a set of priorities, an understanding of the odds of reaching the priorities and an appreciation for the potential consequences if these objectives are met. Then, the plan of action most likely to maximize satisfaction can be developed (Daniere, pp. 168-69).

Many educators argue that they *do have* a mandate—to teach. Such a mandate is a process, rather than product, mandate. Consequently, little emphasis is placed on the requirement to define expected outcomes, even on an individual basis. This creates, of course, a larger problem at the building or district level. The fact is that few schools and school systems are organized to identify, work at and evaluate specific outcomes on a building or system-wide basis. This lack of conscious, systematic coordination of planning activity contributes to the inability of schools and districts to identify or respond to needs. Do not misunderstand—we believe that process *is* important in education; we also believe that product is important and frequently is overlooked.

Other factors appear to contribute to the tendency for schools to be statically organized and operated. Humankind tends to resist change—to respond irrationally when "our territory is invaded." Second, education is subject to unfortunate time lags. For example, schools of education tend to include innovative practices in preparation programs more slowly than is desirable (they are probably also subject to a charge of being unresponsive because *they* are not organized to identify promising innovations which occur in the field). Third, education has placed relatively little emphasis on the acquisition of planning skills by practitioners, and on the relationships which should exist between planning in various sectors of the profession.

An additional planning roadblock relates to the failure of educational organizations to fully utilize existing resources. What is the average amount of time that educational facilities stand silent and empty? We use—at both the elementary-secondary and postsecondary levels—organizational structures which fail to tap the creative potential of staff members. These structures in some cases can be shown to waste time and money; it is no wonder that we sometimes lose the good will of employees, clients and communities.

Social Roadblocks

Our society at large has what may be *the* impediment to effective educational planning. For lack of a more eloquent label, let's refer to this perceived roadblock as "social dynamism." A dynamism (or ongoing, random change) exists within society, and we had better be about figuring out some of its educational implications.

First, social divisions along ethnic, political, ideological, class and interest group lines are becoming increasingly formalized. Along with this formalization of social division there is a tendency for the various groups to pursue competing or conflicting demands. These demands lead frequently to overt conflicts between and among various social groups and agencies. For the educator who plans this situation presents a problem when attempts are made to develop consensus supporting various choices of action.

When you begin to think about larger society in this fashion, it becomes easier to understand how group interactions lead to such outcomes as having schools controlled (or at least significantly influenced) by courts, legislatures and interest groups. It is also apparent that social agreements established at district-wide, state and national levels are tenuously accepted, or vigorously resisted, at various other levels of the social system. Topeka's Brown decision was rendered in 1954; we are still trying to desegregate schools in many parts of the country. It is important to remind ourselves that much of the "trouble" that educators perceive today is traceable to something as fundamental as a free people exercising guaranteed rights.

We may live in a world today whose behavior is more unpredictable than stable. If we live in a society which behaves in unpredictable ways, then it is doubly important that educators become skilled planners. A persisting society requires workable social contracts. A society that operates only in terms of short-term, specialized interests which are pursued by various conflicting groups may cease to exist. The schools represent one pervasive social institution which will continue to be called upon to solve social conflict.

Planning guidelines for the superintendent

The creation of a productive planning capacity for education will be implemented only if superintendents provide necessary leadership at the district level. Leadership—acts which move people and organizations in directions that they would otherwise not choose—is irritating to those who have become accustomed to operating in a familiar groove (or rut).

Let us state one necessary assumption and then suggest guidelines to help the superintendent assume a productive role in educational planning. The assumption is this: The superintendent *can* exercise leadership.

Roadblocks

An effort has been made to identify and discuss planning roadblocks. If you are to make significant inroads in improving your planning capabilities, you must first address the problem of viewing the world as it is. An accurate, objective understanding of the complexities of contemporary society is essential. You must develop the capacity to analyze complex, social interactions and interpret their implications for education.

Knowledge and Skill

Once you've discovered the planning roadblocks, you can turn to gaining knowledge about the planning process. Be forewarned that initially we recommned only that you *become familiar* with planning knowledge and skill. Rather than becoming expert at such things as Queueing Analysis, Morphological Analysis, Cross Impact Matrix Analysis, Demographic Analysis, Trend Extrapolation, Future Forecasting and Computer Science, you should acquaint yourselves with the planning applications of these and related techniques.

As you learn you can begin to specify the value of various kinds of techniques for *your* district's adoption. Then you may make judgments about the comparative value of becoming expert in the area yourself, identifying an existing staff member who has (or will acquire) the expertise, hiring a new staff member with the expertise, or contracting for the required expertise.

Systems Perspective

The third guideline consists of the recommendation that you consider applying a systems perspective to the administration of your district if you have not already done so. To begin to view your district as "a set of objects together with relationships between the objects and between their attributes" (Hall and Fagen, p. 18) and to develop the perspective that your district has subsystems—and is a sub-system of other supra-systems—is helpful. Moreover, the way of viewing schools as systems consisting of inputs, processes, outputs and feedback permits the superintendent to place that emphasis on assessment of outcomes which society now requires.

As you begin to apply systems theory, be aware of the need to provide an adequate, regularly updated data base to support your planning efforts. Your plan describes targets and ways of achieving them. Your up-dated data base must tell you what is being achieved, what inputs are being used, and what processes are being used. When discrepancies between targets and achievements are noted, system analysis permits assessment of relationships of inputs and processes in ways which help provide explanations for discrepancies (see Mansergh, 1969).

Timing and Organization

"Will D. Lae was grossly overweight but was fascinated by the idea of becoming a mountain climber.

Determined to master the skill, he was able through hard work and continuous practice to develop his arm muscles so that they would support his obese body. He practiced on local slopes and then decided to try his skill on a mountain worthy of his ambitions. He picked the granite face of El Capitan. Halfway up the sheer rock he looked up and was startled to discover that his rope was fraying and in a second or two would break. He looked down and saw that there was no ledge or bush to break his fall. He made a quick decision—he decided to use a heavier rope. Will's decision was right, but his timing was off" (Peter, pp. 164-65).

Some, school districts' sense of timing seems no better than Will's. Some of you are probably thinking that you can't afford to take the time to get a productive planning system organized. Systems theory contends, among other things, that "All systems tend toward a state of randomness and disorder, the ultimate of which is entropy, or inertia" (Immegart, p. 167). This suggests, in the absence of necessary interventions and controls, that school systems lapse into nonproductive entropy. We can see signs that this already is happening in some locations. All you have to do is to read the daily newspapers to note the conditions in some districts. We argue that, since the probability exists that systemic decay will occur under present conditions, you would be well advised to take time away from doing whatever you're now doing in order to do something that may reverse the present trend; that is, get organized and provide time to *plan solutions*. Seek policy support for organizing a planning effort. Then take your line officers on a retreat (or "advance") for a sufficient period of time to devise a planning system which is right for your district. You, of course, have to assume the leadership role in building policy and personnel support, for *planning* the organization and implementation of your planning system and, finally, for coordinating its operation.

Old Will could have saved himself a world of grief with a little planning. See that your organization has the chance to avoid a similar fate.

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The status quo teacher evaluation defined in terms of state certification requirements, credit hours and an "A" in student teaching is no longer a sufficient measure of effectiveness.

Considerations for educational change

by Carole J. Urbansok

Carole Jean Urbansok earned her B.A. at Wittenburg University and her M.A. and Ph.D. at the University of Toledo. She is an Assistant Professor in Education at Kansas State University. She has strong interests in developmental psychology applied and learning theory and has past publication and current research projects in this area.

Accountability issues have been sweeping through the little red schoolhouses for some years now. They have created turmoil in every corner of that segment of the academic community. Foremost among the repercussions dictated by accountability has been the necessity of re-evaluating what teachers are doing.

The status quo teacher evaluation defined in terms of state certification requirements, credit hours and an "A" in student teaching is no longer a sufficient measure of effectiveness. In the wake of this storm a new pedagogy has appeared. Performance or competency based teacher education was conceived partially in response to accountability demands and the need for major revisions in teacher evaluation techniques. The performance based model has had only limited impact on the higher echelons of academia and has beset the general elementary and secondary sector with confusion and ill-effect.

Perhaps we must now face the possibility that the thrust was misdirected toward public school evaluation and some few special teacher education programs. Perhaps, rather than accountability for public school personnel, professional integrity among both the professoriate responsible for pre- and in-service training and the school personnel-students requires examination.

Teacher education before teacher evaluation is in dire need of revision. Prevention may not be an exciting topic, but it is perhaps the necessary measure. With public school evaluation as the target, accountability can highlight, but not remedy, professional incompetence due to personal inability or training deficiency. Professional integrity in the form of self-accountability among the university faculty charged with preparation of public school personnel, allows prognosis to become feasible and prescription somewhat less of an impossible promise. Thus, the professoriate can serve as a model for similar self-assessment among public school administrators and teachers. Such multi-level concern will mitigate educational incompetence and the present dearth of adequate training.

In a quantitatively oriented society, academic freedom can no longer be maintained as the ultimate shield against academic scrutiny. This very license that traditionally has lent support to effective, professionally justifiable programs and well-qualified competent educators, now serves to promote credit-generating programs of questionable quality and faculty, at all levels, willing to supply verbal knowledge without the scholarly inquiry and substantive application necessary to insure learning in its purest sense.

This does not mean to suggest an inquisition of university programs and faculty by some superordinate mechanism created to seek out and destroy offenders of our community of scholars, any more than this seeks to support a surge of accountability in the public domain. Unfortunately, such administrative and accrediting bodies as NCATE merely aid in perpetuating a myth of valid and reliable institutional evaluation. Furthermore, the psuedo-elegance and feigned courtesies of institutional introspection gloss over the core problems facing any academic arena attempting such in-house assessment. On either level of evaluation, outside or in-house, surveys and observation devices can be and typically are developed to avoid data reflecting the stark reality of academic impoverishment where it exists among programs on-campus or in the community. A fear of infringing on academic freedom and, above all, of upsetting an economical status quo brings most evaluation efforts short of effecting change.

Neither does this mean to suggest administrative mandates nor policy statements. Changes of extensive consequence are not likely to be effected with necessary efficiency through such vehicles alone.

Political overtones and, again, economics portend their failures. The task must rest in the hands of the separate educators. Individual professors, teachers and administrators as overseers of programs, unique classes, independent study, field and practicum experiences maintain the authority to require standards of excellence or insignificance. In closing, two points of departure are offered to educators as considerations for change. First, selecting content appropriate to some mean, or lower ability level of a class perpetuates mediocrity among students and denigrates the teaching profession. And secondly, dictating to the whims of credit accruing students is, in the final analysis, a disservice to professional competence, scholarly authority and the academic freedom of all levels of the educational community.

Review

The human dimension in management

**Causing Others to Want
Your Leadership
by
Robert L. DeBruyn,
Robert L. DeBruyn and Associates,
Manhattan, Kansas,
1976,184 pages, $12.95.**

Dr. Robert L. DeBruyn opens his book by stating there are two distinct sides to management—"things" and "people." The things of management are important, and usually represent the principal thrust of virtually every graduate course in educational administration. However, when they are taught *in absentia* from the human dimension of administration, the aspiring educational executive is rendered potentially ineffective. Success in managerial effort requires training and skill development in human engineering. Educational managers are in the people business; and, it is to this principle that Dr. DeBruyn has dedicated his work.

Part I of the book refreshes the readers' recollection of basic tenets of human nature. These include the physiological and psychological unlearned primary human motives—the requirements to be free from hunger, thirst, pain and so on; and the secondary motives—gregariousness, affiliation, achievement, power, status and so on.

From brief discussion of these basic truths, DeBruyn examines the nine priorities common to virtually every human being—the need for esteem and love, predictability, autonomy, exhibition, introspection, avoidance of confrontations, sympathy, endurance and heterosexuality.

By becoming familiar with human motives and the personal priorities of people, the practicing executive is able to: (1) Understand what people's actions **actually** mean rather than guessing at what they **appear** to mean; (2) React **objectively** rather than **subjectively** to human behavior; and (3) View problem situations **professionally** rather than **personally**.

In closing Part I, DeBruyn presents the seven key motivators underlying human activity. These are: (1) Personal Gain—what is in this for me? (2) Prestige—how will this activity help me feel or look important? (3) Pleasure—will I derive some measure of pleasure from this activity? (4) Imitation—the theory of third person support, or, others are doing this, too; (5) Security—will what I am doing enhance or weaken my postion? (6) Convenience—will this activity make things easier for me? (7) Desire to Avoid Fear—fear of anything new dominates the activities of many individuals.

In Part II of the book, DeBruyn aggressively examines the foundations of management, the principles of managing oneself and the laws of managing others. He closes Part II with a brief section on problem situations and guidelines for problem analysis.

Before managers can manage others, they must first be able to manage themselves. Self management comes

from maturity, discipline and particularly from an understanding of the human principles described earlier in this review.

There are four universals which form the foundation for management of any institution. (1) The Law of Origin—the institution must operate within the reason for its origin or existence. (2) The Law of Total Responsibility—the administrator is responsible for everything that happens within the organization which he or she directs. (3) The Law of Top-down Management—leadership is a management responsibility and filters through the organization from the top down. (4) The Law of Everpresent Leadership—if the appointed manager is to be successful in goal achievement, his or her leadership is continuous or it is lost in the informal structure.

To maintain oneself in a positive relationship with these principles, DeBruyn provides seven fundamental truths of self-management of one's work as an executive. These fundamentals are: (1) The Law of Managerial Survival—successful managers deal honestly and sincerely with those they lead; (2) The Law of Whole Truth—expressions of no truth or half-truths result in loss of staff confidence; (3) The Fallacy of Standardized Procedure—contrary to popular belief, standard operating procedures are important for all projects and responsibilities; (4) The Law of Managements' Measurement of Achievement—the only practical goal of management is improvement; (5) The Law of Planning—planning is a condition precedent to organizational success; (6) Myth of the Perfect Plan—most plans are never without some imperfection; (7) The Principle of Management Adjustment—to be an effective leader one must adjust one's own behavior in relation to that of the employees.

The most essential chapter in the book is Chapter 7—The Laws and Principles of People Management. Here DeBruyn sets forth important guidelines for working successfully with people. Briefly, these 12 principles remind the Practitioner that: (1) people are more important than things; (2) in every administrator-employee relationship a blended or third personality emerges; (3) when positive reinforcement is absent, negative attitudes emerge; (4) administrator appreciation of employee effort develops

loyality; (5) pride is essential to organizational effectiveness; (6) mutual trust is a basic requirement in effective administrator-employee relationships; (7) delegation is a requirement for effective organizational (and project) success; (8) dominance is a destructive managerial technique; (9) information received from employees is usually filtered in favor of the sender; (10) the attitudes and opinions of staff members must be known and understood by the leader; (11) messages communicated by the administrator must be personalized for employee appeal to be accepted; and (12) problems magnify with the passage of time.

The final part of the book (Part III) is devoted to blending the fundamental truths, principles and laws about people and management into a workable plan for utilization by executives. Here DeBruyn provides his readers with a rationale for developing a personal leadership plan, and a rationale for the necessity to base this plan on a thorough understanding of human motivation and human management. Finally, he provides five key ingredients of successful administration—competency, co-operation, control, communication and caring—and challenges the executive to provide a continuous training program for everyone associated with the organization.

Conclusion

Causing Others To Want Your Leadership should be required for every potential and every practicing executive. It is an outstanding deskbook for managers.

Success in administration is derived through, by, with and because of other people. Yet, many administrators are not aware of this concept. Consequently, some are forced to move so often that they make a life-long success of a series of failures. Still others struggle at a level of mediocrity while a king's ransom begs to be embraced.

As administrators and as trainers of administrators, we are in the people business. Unfortunately, many executives and managers have yet to accept this universal principle. But let us begin.

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Review

A history of teacher organization

Donley, Marshall O., Jr. **Power to the Teacher.** Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1976. 242 pages. Paper $3.95.

Power, a dynamic term—very direct, forceful and aggressive—sets the stage for this text on teacher militancy. Donley has provided the reader with an exceptionally well organized and presented work dealing

primarily with the history of teacher organization. The book is comprehensive yet gives a plethora of specific information. It extends the history of teacher activism into the 1970's, and offers insights into reasons teachers organized, how their unions and associations evolved, and where teachers and their groups are directing their efforts.

The author has provided a more than adequate discussion of the Society of Associated Teachers of New York City, the National Teachers Association (NEA), the American Federation of Teachers (AFT), the United Federation of Teachers and the National Education Association. He also identifies contributions made by Harris, McAndrew, Cruikshank, Crabtree, DuShane, Young, Philbrick, Shanker, Cogen, Selden, Koontz, the Taylor Laws and many more. Furthermore, numerous examples of early strikes and rallies (including those in Virginia, Tennessee, New York and Illinois) are discussed and the conflict between th NEA and the AFT is analyzed in detail.

As a history text, the book by Donley is exceptional. Although the author appears at point blank range on his in-

formation, however, his aim at interpretation and prognostication may be nearsighted. Donley, in his preface, stated that he had hoped to maintain an independent, interpretive view of the subject, but concluded that he accepted the blame for any prejudices that appeared in his projections—and so he should, for the text most assuredly is directed toward the reader in support of aggrandizing the political/economic/social status of teachers through unionism, sanctions, strikes and the like. The reading was intended to be one-sided, and, as a two-headed coin, it is.

The author, through his historic, yet at times esoteric, rhetoric examines the ever-expanding role of unions and, in his opinion, their positive influence on the teacher and on the educational system. Unfortunately, the average reader, or even average teacher for that matter, is aware of a more controversial side to the movement which, inimical to the musical **Gypsy,** may not all be coming up roses. A union (UFA, AFT, NEA), like a rose, by any other name remains just a union.

Donley suggests that there are five principal causes of teacher militancy, which include economic injustices, growing professionalism, growth in school size and bureaucracy, changes within teachers' groups and the availability of mechanisms such as negotiations agreements, sanctions and legal counsel to enable teachers to fight for their goals. He concludes, however, that although each of these issues may play a vital role in the organizing of teachers, the primary areas of interest were those affecting the all-too-worn purse strings. It is interesting to note that documentation indicates the refusal of the NEA to discuss the money basis of education in the early 1900's, for it was assumed to be beneath their dignity—ah, how things have changed!

Teacher organizations (national and state), however, have pressed for non-monetary advances in education. Within various states, the acquisition of kindergartens, free textbooks and schools, normal schools, compulsory attendance laws, codes of ethics, certification regulations and much more, have been promoted by the local teacher groups. Organized teachers, like any organized group, have the ability to press for change and may win, with varying degrees of social cost. The NEA found this all too true, with its statewide actions in Utah, Oklahoma and Florida. The author accurately concluded that the "American public was not so fully on the side of its teachers that it would place their needs first" (p. 94). The NEA learned as well that "prestige of the national organization should not be put irreversibly on the line in any single struggle . . . to fight where it had to and in a way required, knowing that if it lost one battle, it would survive to fight again" (pp. 94-95).

In this reviewer's opinion, an analogy for organized labor is one related to the U.S. military—that of winning the war, but losing the peace. The author does not observe the national (or international) economic effects of the labor movement. Perhaps it is a movement of increasing wages, but it may as well be one of higher consumer prices, inflation and increased government spending. Although data are not conclusive on this subject, it is obviously of sufficient magnitude to merit discussion. Although Donley may have implicitly addressed these topics, he appears, at best aposiopetic on the subject—leaving far too much to the reader.

It is also intersting to note the "results of bargaining" as proposed in this text. The act of negotiation (apparently almost panacean) will lead to fewer strikes by teachers, greater professionalism of educators, higher teacher morale, an expanded role in the school for the teacher and higher salaries for school personnel. As the aforestated would demonstrate, we may all rest a little easier, things will work out—just as Donley has been independent and interpretive, without bias and totally, almost adamantly, objective.

Donley, much like Darwin, had to search a long time to provide the reader with such a *selection* of examples. What happened to the examples of schools closing due to limited budgets, those of shortened school years, those of increasing animosity toward public education in general, those of defeated bond elections and those of resistance to increased taxation? Where, also, are the examples of conflicts between parents/teacher, teachers/administrators, teachers/school boards and teachers/teachers over organizing negotiating and striking? Are teachers truly more "professional" because they join a union? Is the working environment one of teamwork and brotherhood (perhaps one of internal union)? And, finally, within Donley's "results" where are the children?

Donley's book may perhaps be the exception to the rule—you *can* tell this book by its cover. It would appear to be pro-organization and in reality, it is. For the reader in quest of a history of the teacher/labor movement, I would most definitely suggest this text. However, the educator who would like to develop his own opinion by gleaning data from the comprehensive reporting of fact may have to look beyond this book. Somewhere beneath the rubble of academically oriented publications, such a text may exist

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Review

Limits of corporal punishment in public schools

Ingraham v. Wright:
The Limits of Corporal Punishment in Public Schools

In April the U. S. Supreme Court handed down its corporal punishment decision which, by a narrow 5-4 majority vote, denied application of either Eighth or Fourteenth Amendment protection to public school discipline cases. Before considering its implications for public school administators, it is instructive to review the **Ingraham v. Wright** decision (45 **Law Week** 4364).

Plaintiffs Ingraham and Andrews were junior high students in one Dade County school that had a record of applying exceptionally harsh discipline. Ingraham, for example, testified he was out of school for 11 days while suffering from a painful hematoma from a paddling in the principal's office where two assistant principals pinned him face down across a table while the principal administered at least 20 licks. Andrews testified to being paddled several times with painful, non-permanent injuries resulting. On at least two occasions punishment was meted out in spite of Andrew's denial of alleged wrongdoing. A three-judge panel of the Fifth Circuit Court of Appeals decided in favor of the students (498 F. 2d 248 (1974)), but was overturned when the case was reheard by the whole Fifth Circuit which concluded that the students had no Eight or Fourteenth Amendment grounds for recovery [525 F. 2d 909 (1976)]. The Supreme Court granted *certiorari* and focused on two issues:

1) Does the Eighth Amendment's prohibition against "cruel and unusual punishment" reach an extremely harsh case of corporal punishment in a public school? Justice Powell, writing for the majority, asserted that the "cruel and unusual punishment" prohibition of the Eighth Amendment had been applied only to criminal punishment and was therefore inapplicable to sanctions applied in schools. In response to the rather anomalous situation this conclusion creates—where school children could be beaten unmercifully without constitutional redress while the Eighth Amendment would protect convicted criminals from a similar punishment—[Jackson v. Bishop, 404 F. 2d 571 (CA8, 1968) and Estele v. Gamble, 97 S. Ct. 285 (1976) apply the Eighth Amendment to appropriate treatment of convicted criminals]—Justice Powell emphasizes the existing family and community support system for the child as well as the openness of the public school to distinguish the student from the incarcerated criminal. Abuses of corporal punishment in the school are to be managed through civil and criminal liability, not a constitutional standard.

2) Does the Fourteenth Amendment require minimal procedural safeguards to accompany the punishment?
Although the majority opinion finds that corporal punishment amounts to a deprivation of liberty, Justice Powell believes that existing criminal and civil liability provides sufficient safeguards to protect the student. Departure from these traditional safeguards and requirement of advance procedural safeguards would add to the cost of disciplining students with no apparent benefit.

The *Ingraham* decision is more important for schools and school districts because of what it omits rather than what it states. First, the decision focused exclusively on constitutional issues. Although the Eighth and Fourteenth Amendments were held inapplicable to public school corporal punishment, the status quo is maintained. State laws and school board policies can still be framed which will limit or prohibit corporal punishment.

Second, the Court did not address the questions of apporpriateness of corporal punishment in public schools. This is an educational debate which will need to be raised at state or local policy-making levels, in which administrators will continue to have a central role.

Third, if schools decide to employ corporal punishment in their discipline schemes, they have a range of options regarding procedural safeguards to accompany it. For reasons of educational soundness as well as insurance against criminal or civil liability, districts may require that certain precautionary procedures accompany corporal punishment. Contrary to Justice Powell's majority decision, I believe the cost of providing such procedures is minimal, with the benefits far outweighing the costs. This is particularly true if the administrator believes in the procedures.

In a larger historical sense the *Ingraham* decision may mark the end of the judicial activist period of the Supreme Court which saw the Court willing to become involved in a number of public school affairs as a matter of constitutional law. Although a eulogy for the Supreme Court's activist period (1969 *Tinker*—1977 *Ingraham*) is premature, it is safe to say that the *Ingraham* decision provides a broad discretionary authority to public schools in the area of corporal punishment. Let us hope that the wisdom and judgment of the educational administrators are sufficiently sound that the corporal punishment policies will be developed according to criteria of educational quality and not by simple adherence to constitutional minima.

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