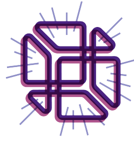

Educational Considerations

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# Educational Considerations, vol. 43(4) Full Issue

Charles E. Litz
*Kansas State University*

Sandra Williams Ernst
*Kansas State University*

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# educational considerations

*In this issue:* A critique of the Jencks' report, rural education, the college of education and its alumni, education and morality, individualized instruction, research as survival, media administrators, individual differences, and educational bureaucracy.

published at kansas state university college of education

editorial viewpoint

# overloading the educational circuit

I heard someone say the other day that if you are under twenty and not liberal you must not have a heart, and if you are over forty and not conservative, you must not have a brain. Well, I am somewhere in between and am not quite sure how to classify my views. I like to think that my situation in life has provided me with both a heart and a brain, although admittedly the evidence does not always bear me out on this.

However it be explained, my inability to stereotype my views is unquestionably a good thing. At the very least I can avoid the distortions and false associations that invariably follow the categorization of opinion. And when it comes to education, emotional as the issues usually are, my inability to classify my views is undoubtedly a gift of the gods.

With this I want to say that our present-day educational establishment looks to me pretty much like an ineffective giant. And the reason is not simply that schools are trying to do so much, but that they are unsuited for so much of what they are trying to do. Given their tasks, failure and frustration are in the cards from the start. The eventual manifestations of disappointment and criticism are in reality preordained.

It used to be that the formal phase of education was limited to intellectual training and character development. Even the early progressives seemed to accept these restraints. They focused on the emerging capabilities of the child, not on cultural heritage or social reform. They believed that proper schooling would foster the capacity to think. "One must learn how to learn," they would say. While they recognized the importance of teaching basic information and insisted on promoting certain values, they did not expect the schools to do the work of government, church or family.

In our own time we seem to heap every social, political and economic problem that comes our way onto the back of the school. If others cannot or do not want to deal with an issue, and if some one group must face up to the matter, it may as well be educators; or so we say. Schooling is now supposed to be an answer, if not the only answer, to the problems of poverty, unemployment, racial segregation, drug addiction, sexual promiscuity, vandalism, hooliganism, personal unhappiness, family conflict, and social discontent. Under the banners of justice and human concern we have added one program after another to the school's curriculum, usually with the best of stated intentions, but almost always without much success.

One way to look at this situation is to say that today we expect too much of our schools. But I think this view is naive. I can only conclude that we really do not want these issues resolved. If we did, we would have used some more appropriate agency to resolve them. Surely, we would not have chosen the schools. If I were under some pressure to face up to unsettling conditions but really wanted things to remain the same, I would insist on introducing a new program into the curriculum. By so doing I could satisfy my conscience and protect my public image, while at the same time hardly doing anything. Can the schools do it all? Only in the eyes of the gullible, those with a tendency to give way to delusions of grandeur.

I want the educational establishment in America to be a giant, but I also want it to be effective. In order to be so it must concentrate on what it can do, not on what has been shown to be impossible. For political as well as moral reasons we must be careful not to overload the educational circuit. Otherwise, instead of doing good, education will be done in by hostile forces and our dream of effective universal schooling will self-destruct. If schools assume intellectual and humanistic values and proceed to function as an agency for individual development, rather than as an agency for cultural transmission or social reform, they will no longer need to spend so much of their resources trying to justify their very existence. Instead they will be better situated to bring about the goods within their grasp.

**Philip L. Smith**
**The Ohio State University**


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# educational considerations

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Guest Editorial — Inside Front Cover
*Philip L. Smith*

Are Schools Truly Inept? A Reappraisal of the Most Controversial Report of our Time — 2
*Donald D. Chipman*

Model for Change: A Rural Elementary School — 7
*Gerald C. Ubben*

The College of Education and Its Students—Until Death Do Us Part — 11
*Edgar L. Sagan*

Research and Evaluation in Education: A Means of Economic Survival — 14
*Robert Leonetti*

Schools and School Systems as Formal Organizations — 17
*Frederick M. Schultz*

New Perspectives in Individualized Instruction — 20
*H. James Funk and L. James Walter*

Education and a Question of Morality — 23
*Edmund C. Short*

The Media Director and Administrative Competence — 25
*Bruce Petty*

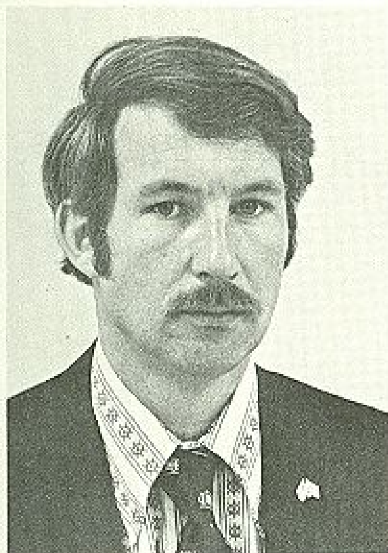
Teaching Strategies and Learning Processes — 27
*Russell French*

The "troubled times of popular education" is a topic that shows up just about every year. The Jencks' report, however, bolsters the standard criticisms with sophisticated statistical analyses. Does the Jencks' conclusion still stand that the teaching profession is incapable of making any constructive contribution to the education of the lower-class child?

# are schools truly inept?

## a reappraisal of the most controversial report of our time

by Donald D. Chipman



Donald Chipman, assistant professor of education at Georgia Southwestern College teaches foundations of education as well as history and philosophy of education. He is a representative to the Georgia Consortium for International Education and a consultant to the Special Studies Education Program at Southwestern College. He has also taught at Florida State University where he received his Ph.D. and has been a history teacher in California. He has been in the United States Navy since 1963 and has served as squadron education officer and instructor in the Naval Aviation Schools Command at Pensacola, Fla. He has published extensively on individualized instruction, as well as performance-centered and learner-oriented instruction modules for the Navy.

As Willy skipped down the dirt road, he was watching the red cloud of dust hovering over the approaching yellow bus. It was September, and he was about to enter his first year of public school. His parents, poor tenant farmers, were optimistic. Maybe someday he would be able to leave the Georgia red dirt farm for the slick crabgrass suburbs of middle class America. With an education, who knows, he might become a lawyer, a doctor, or even a mortician. With an education, Willy undoubtedly would be a success.

Somewhat typical of this scene, many Americans believe that schools are the golden stairway to success. With the closing of the frontier, in theory, schools replaced the California gold fields as the only pathway to the great American dream. What has happened to this belief and to what degree individuals like Willy will fulfill their expectations are the issues of popular educational polemics.

A recent survey indicates that Americans continue to maintain their romance with public education. According to a University of Michigan study, public schools are thought to be an effective social institution.[1] This is not unusual since Americans have had a recurring fantasy that schools can solve problems. It is difficult to assess how this notion first became a basic postulate. Certainly Thomas Jefferson and Horace Mann, who constantly proposed that an educated citizenry would promote all that was socially good, popularized this belief. It is no wonder that when problems become apparent, someone proposes a new educational program. Obviously, since there were thousands of people killed annually on the highway, the solution was a new course: driver's education. Yet the slaughter continued, and only when the slogan "slow down and save a life" was changed to "slow down and save Exxon" did the number of deaths decrease.

Despite this romance, there appears a nagging antagonism that schools are not all they are supposed to be. Among these signs is the increasing literature concerning the apparent growth of illiteracy. A popular contemporary author claims that the U.S. is actually becoming a nation of illiterates.[2] The relaxation of college entrance requirements and the omnipotence of the television message are indications of this fact. Partially substantiating this allegation is a government survey which found that illiteracy among children was unexpectedly widespread. According to H.E.W. nearly five percent of the youths tested were found to be functionally illiterate. Projected on a national basis, this would mean that one million children between the ages of twelve and seventeen cannot read at a fourth grade level.[3]





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These allegations are significant. Yet it should be noted that educators are somewhat callous when it comes to criticism. For years being an education critic was a game almost anyone could play; the only criterion was an audience large enough to disseminate the allegations.

During the post-war years, criticism was a common phenomenon. Individuals censured the schools for being overcrowded, which they were, for utilizing poorly trained teachers, which they did, and for many other reasons. At the time, educators were still experimenting with John Dewey's progressive theories. Consequently, teachers were castigated for being anti-democratic; anti-religious; anti-disciplinary; and, most popular of all, anti-intellectual. There was also a great deal of talk about a notion that schools were nurturing communism, McCarthyism, socialism, and fascism.

Utilizing a popular figure of the era, schools were accused of teaching Aldrichanism. That is, they were promoting a form of juvenility patterned after the then popular Henry Aldrich of radio fame.[4] Instead of the three R's, schools were supposedly teaching the three P's—paint, paste, and putter. Educators were described as rudderless rabbits, directing programs in which each child was encouraged to roam about, nibbling whatever flowers or weeds might, for the moment, attract his attention or tempt his appetite. It was no wonder that in such an environment, surrounded with doe-eyed teachers imbued with Munich meekness, children were supposedly learning to be savages. One of the most astonishing accusations came from an individual who said that Dewey and his theories were promoting Neo-American Nazism. After comparing a statement made by Dewey with a statement made by Hitler, this critic decided that progressivism was actually totalitarian in nature.[5]

In a somewhat more serious vein, historian Richard Hofstadter claimed prògressives confused things so thoroughly that a half-century of clarification failed to hold in check the anti-intellectual perversion.[6] Other writers, such as Arthur Bestor, Admiral Rickover, and more recently, Ivan Illich, have added their opinions. And so it has gone; each year a new version of the troubled times of popular education is published.

For the most part, it was not too difficult to point to the all pervasiveness of the institution and then neatly dispose of an attack. A good strategy was to throw out a few glittering generalities, such as "education is the adjustment to one's environment." Few can argue with this statement, whatever it may mean. If this strategy did not work, another approach was to play down the opposition. After being severely criticized, one famous educator replied with this little incantation:

> I do not like thee, Dr. Fell
> The reason why I cannot tell
> but this I know and know full well
> I do not like thee, Dr. Fell.[7]

Recently, however, a young Harvard professor, Christopher Jencks, has pinned the evasive educator to the wall. Until B.J. (before Jencks) Day, teachers were always allowed the courtesy of tinkering, molding, and dabbling with the institution in hopes of one day correcting some of the problems. Now even this concession has been rejected. This individual has put the world of academia into a tither by his contention that "schools do not make a difference." Using research gathered from the Coleman Report, Operations Higher Horizons, and various compensatory educational programs, Jencks has fashioned a proposal that debases contemporary educational practices.

His thesis is that children are far more influenced by what happens in the home than in the school. Schools are simply an ineffective force in eliminating the skill deficiences. Therefore, he concludes, basic reforms to eliminate poverty through education cannot be successful. The only thing that actually determines the character of the school is the type of student; everything else—the school budget, its policies, and teacher qualifications—is either secondary or completely irrelevant. In short, it matters not if one school district spends more per pupil than another or whether reading is taught by one method or another, or whether a child is taught in a one-room school or in an ornate building—schools do not count.[8]

The disclosure of such an idea is now beginning to affect bureaucratic thought. Bussing critics are citing this report as a rationale to bolster their arguments. If it is true that schools do not make a difference, then the composition of the student body has little significance in the educational process. It should be noted, however, that Jencks actually favors bussing. But, notes Jencks, this form of social engineering should be promoted for moral and political reasons only.[9] According to recent reports, educational lobbyists claim that the Jencks' Report has been freely cited by the federal administrators in justification of education budget cuts.[10]

Throughout the educational establishment, Jencks has replaced B.F. Skinner and Ivan Illich as one of the most popular topics. These discussions run the gamut from the point that he has proposed an interesting thesis to the charge that he is nurturing a sophisticated form of intellectual white backlash.[11]

One thing Jencks has accomplished is to document clearly a fact that was apparent: schools are unable to teach effectively lower class children. Over the years professionals labeled these students as the "poor," the "culturally deprived," the "culturally different," and the "disadvantaged." Of course, there are a few who believe that achievement has very little relationship to the environment. To these individuals, such as Arthur Jensen, intelligence is primarily a manifestation of heredity.[12] Thus, the term "culturally deprived" is simply another attempt by educators to parlay inferences into established truths.

Jencks tends to side with the cultural theory of intelligence, noting that children from wealthy backgrounds have a double advantage of a rich environment plus favorable genes.[13] This attempt to link educational success to social class advantages is a relatively new area of pedagogical interest. Seventy years ago such liberals as Thorstein Veblen and Upton Sinclair toyed with this notion. No one went quite so far to prove such a point as did a young educator by the name of George S. Counts. In 1922, his essay "The Selective Character of American Secondary Education" stated that high schools were simply sorting-out mechanisms. At public expense, these institutions were promoting only the privileged class, thus perpetuating the glaring inequalities of race, class, and ethnic lines.[14]

During the 1930's, Merle Curti was commissioned to write a historical analysis of the social ideas of educators. In general, he decided that the schools never abandoned their original

role of perpetuating Hamiltonian traditions. If there were attempts to utilize the schools for aiding the poor, these efforts were insignificant and in the line of individual action rather than any general concession on the part of the institution. Even progressive educational practices, such. as promoting adjustment to the environment, only enhanced the affluent student's efforts, thereby increasing the disparity between various classes.[15]

Presaging Jencks by a decade, Patricia Sexton documented evidence which led Kenneth Clark to state that schools were anything but social class facilitators.[16] In modern America children from the poverty area simply could not compete with the offspring of the elite. It was no mystery that children from the so-called houses of intellect, exposed to books, ideas, and travel, had a unique advantage. If there were opportunities for the lower class, they were relatively few. If the door of opportunity was open, it was not very wide. It was recently estimated that three percent of the working class children were able to ascend to a higher social standard. That the percentage was even this high was partially due to the unrestrictive ethnic policies of such professions as music and athletics.[17]

By the mid-sixties, this education-social class manifestation gained notable acceptance. The Coleman Report statistically supported the basic theories of Counts, Curti, and Sexton. Soon to follow were a series of research papers by Daniel B. Moynihan, Thomas Pettigrew, and others, describing the relationship involved in education and class structure.[18] An H.E.W. survey, released in 1974, confirmed the speculation of these individuals. In this four-year study it was found that in families with less than $3,000 annual income nearly fifteen percent of the youths were illiterate.[19] In this atmosphere, it was not unusual that schools were accused of being an imperfect panacea. It was not unusual that schools were accused of sorting and certifying students, a process which tended to doom the lower-class child.

It was quite evident then that the poor were not benefiting from schools. Jencks, however, includes not only the poor but other social classes as well. According to him, economic success cannot be determined by the cognitive skill or the degrees attained. Thus why some middle class students are successful and others are not has very little to do with schools or schooling.[20] Yet James Coleman, whose document was the foundation of Jencks' Report, accuses him of overinterpreting the data. Social skills, entrepreneurial skills, and managerial capabilities were not measured; thus, notes Coleman, no one is sure how schools affect these traits. It cannot, therefore, be uncategorically stated that schools are unresponsive to all social classes.[21]

While other critics have realized many of these same problems, they did not abandon their faith in schools. Educational difficulties were thought to be endemic, problems that through tampering, manipulating, or even adding a "head start program or two," could be corrected. But Jencks has totally ruled out these possibilities. Even complete reorganization, notes Jencks, in which the primary concern of the educational process was for the lower-class students would not promote any beneficial change.[22]

With the schools set aside, he has decided that equality is a problem of the entire society and that the only solution is to revamp completely the economic system and adopt socialism. With anything less, progress would ultimately be glacial.[23] In suggesting this, Jencks is reinstituting a time-honored goal of an extinct pedagogical movement. During the depression years, a group of educators supported this very objective. Known as the Social Reconstructionists, they too pointed to the failure of the educational system and advocated dramatic social change. Philosophically, the vanguard ranged from those who favored communism to those who wanted an intense system of regulated capitalism.[24]

George S. Counts was the leader of the former faction. His speeches savoring the Russian experiment and his continual denunciation of American social practices prompted a unique form of pedagogical revolutionary zeal.[25] Similar to Jencks, he believed that the only promise for the future was in the adoption of socialism. The root cause of suffering and deprivation was the system. He differed from Jencks in that he sustained his faith in the efficacy of the teaching process. Given the right commitment, schools could not only teach the poor, they could effectively promote equality. To accomplish such a task, Counts toyed with the idea of indoctrination. In education, he stated, indoctrination was an unavoidable tool. Even neutrality with respect to basic issues was tantamount to giving support to the forces of conservatism.[26]

Given the proper commitment, noted Counts, teachers could prepare the coming generation for economic change. Instead of studying the aristocracy, they could concentrate on how men struggled to find economic security. They could point out that inflation, depression, poverty, and corruption were the by-products of a laissez-faire Capitalism. In general, stated Counts, no idea was to be kept from the student on the grounds that it was dangerous. Each child was expected to have an opportunity to examine critically communism, fascism, socialism as possible social alternatives.[27]

Jencks advocates socialism as an end, yet fails to provide any hint of possible means. He notes that a successful campaign for reducing economic inequality requires a change in the game plan, but he fails to state to what degree and how. Two things must be apparent, he states: first, those with low incomes must begin requesting a new disposition, and second, those with high incomes must begin to feel ashamed of economic inequality.[28] The only inclination as to how this change is going to take place is through some form of political manipulation, all of which, by the author's own confession, will inevitably be slow. Schools under these circumstances are considered by Jencks to be no more than "marginal institutions." Yet, if socialism is the objective, then rugged individualism must be afforded a place of lesser value. Under a centrally planned economy, marketing decisions are ultimately subordinated to the desired goal. It follows then that with a reduction of entrepreneural decisions, certain political rights are also enjoined. Thus, in such a system a willingness to cooperate and to develop a community spirit takes on added importance. Under these circumstances schools would assume more responsibility, not less. In the countries that practice socialism, and the term is a bit vague, schools are thought to be vital. Scandinavian schools are looked upon as the training ground for the development of *samfundslaere*, an understanding of the society.[29] The promotion of the new proletarian man has been a long term goal of the Russian educational system. To nurture such attitudes, schools, by the very nature of the



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system, would have to be more than just "marginal institutions."

That schools perpetuate the status quo is an established principle. If the status quo is the defense of rugged individualism, then schools tend to favor that position. Once socialism is adopted, then it is probable that schools will see to it that the word from the top is properly disseminated. If schools don't count, it is in the narrow sense that they are ineffective promoters of dramatic social change. That schools were a manifestation of the status quo was a lesson that was quite apparent to the social reconstructionists. While Counts was discussing how instructors would change society, make it better and more wonderful, teachers were still making posters, ordering supplies, and yelling "quiet students." The fact that educators have not substantially changed society or promoted egalitarianism could be a virtue, but that does not mean that schools are inept.

It is a certainty that in comparison to home life as an influence upon achievement schools take a back seat. In America this is possibly a proper thing. Yet this does not totally eliminate the effectiveness of the educational process. It has been demonstrated, in a massive United Nations study, covering thousands of students in twenty-two countries, that the influence of the home background is reduced in specific study areas. In such subjects as literature, science, and foreign language, indications are that the influence of what happens in school is significant; hence the conclusion that schools do, in fact, matter.[30]

It is understandable that Jencks foresees no effective role for the schools to play in the promotion of new social and economic planning. The issues involved are debatable ones which would conjure a wide variety of opinions. Many individuals believe that, even given the chance, schools should not take any active part in social engineering. Why should children be forced to assume a responsibility of such magnitude? If social change is needed, let it be the task of adults, not children.

Since schools do not or cannot function as primary developers of equality, Jencks wants them to be places where each individual may find something of interest. Schools should function not to fulfill some future objectives, but simply to render services to those individuals in desire of some form of instruction. If a family feels the need to prepare their child for Harvard, then they should be allowed to choose freely a high school which would prepare that child. Above all, notes Jencks, the schools should be pleasant places to be.[31] At the present time, in Alum Rock United Schools District, San Jose, California, educators are experimenting with this exact type of administrative thinking. After receiving a federal grant, this district established several diversified school programs. Parents receive vouchers with which they may purchase the style of educational program appropriate for their children. Open classrooms, special subjects, and a school for the future are some of the curricular programs available.[32]

Except for the point that schools do not serve the middle class and upper class child, a fact which, according to Coleman, has not been well substantiated, Jencks has added very little new to the views of the past critics. His ingenuity has been in his ability to synthesize items which were most obvious. However, he does tend to go beyond his data when he states that the teaching profession is actually incapable of making any constructive contribution to the education of the lower class child, now or in the future. The inability of schools to promote achievement among the poor, he notes, has led him to the conclusion that most educators just don't know how to instruct these individuals properly. Furthermore, this situation is not just a condition of malice but simply one of ignorance; and until we know, no amount of money or pressure could correct it.[33]

By this condemnation, the author has debased the teaching profession. That teachers make mistakes, that they are mindless is not altogether a highly kept secret. Yet this personal inadequacy is not monopolized by the educational institution. Indeed, notes Charles Silberman, this problem is diffused remarkably well throughout the entire society.[34] One need not look beyond newspapers to see a blatant example of this in Watergate. But unlike other professions, teachers are condemned to suffer forever this malady. By carefully removing the teacher from any future plans, Jencks has removed the pathways for effective professional improvement. Evidently teachers are to withdraw into limbo until, through some stroke of luck or other metaphysical means, it is suddenly discovered how to teach children of the poor.

Although it cannot be documented, it appears that educators are becoming more aware of their responsibilities to the lower class child. This is not a concerted effort on the part of any state or higher educational insitutions but, more so, a manifestation of the economic situation. With the decline in the birth rate and the unavailability of jobs, a better quality of teaching candidate is being brought into the ranks. Thus, educators are upgrading the profession with the addition of talented, responsible teachers.

In addition, a recent study indicates that when a concerted effort is made, children of the poor can learn. Two University of California psychologists, Howard Adelman and Seymour Freshbach, have completed a study involving sixty students, all black males, a year and a half or more behind their age group, whose families make less than $3,000 a year. The students were sent to a special enrichment school oriented toward reading improvement. It was found that these students can substantially raise their achievement scores through properly administered enrichment programs.[35]

In Michigan, Ronald Edmonds, assistant superintendent of public instruction, has indicated that schools do count if the teacher makes a commitment to that end. State financial incentives are offered to the schools which are responsive to lower class children. These schools receive additional funds for each student who is able to break out of the lower achievement level. The result has been gratifying. Students who were formerly categorized as poor achievers are making substantial progress.[36]

There is no issue that teachers are not doing an adequate job educating the lower class child. In fact, Willy will most likely drop out of school by the tenth grade. This is well documented by a variety of studies. Yet, it does not mean that given the proper dedication, this situation could not be remedied. If there are lessons from the experiments of Freshback, Adelman, and Edmonds, it is that with well administered programs individuals like Willy can learn.

In final analysis Christopher Jencks' *Inequality A Reassessment of the Effect of Family and Schooling in America* represents a new form of educational criticism. Filled

with statistical data, this report assumes added significance. Although many of his theories are in the speculative area, his condemnation of the schools' inability to teach the lower class child is of concern. Despite the relative truth of many of his proposals, one fact is apparent; government officials are using Jencks' Report to bolster their position on key educational issues. For that reason the Jencks' Report is of monumental importance.[37]

With the end of the Vietnam War, the conclusion of the Watergate affair, inflation, recession, and the energy crisis, it is likely that the honeymoon which educators have been enjoying is quickly coming to an end. When money is in short supply, when Americans are frustrated, and when taxpayers are upset, schools are inevitably one of the first public institutions to receive the brunt of renewed criticism. In this instance the Jencks' Report is a landmark and may well be the first of an avalanche. Without a doubt, Pandora's door is open; schools are not the golden stairway they are thought to be. Willy will not have an overwhelming chance of making it into the barbecue, crabgrass set. Thus, in this case, the sophisticated criticism as fashioned by Jencks cannot be avoided by the old ostrich trick or a little limerick such as:

I do not like thee Christopher Jencks
For reasons I am unable to think,
But this I know and know by instinct
I do not like thee Christopher Jencks.

For the most part, educational criticism through the years has *not* been based primarily upon sound irreducible facts. The critics who were anti-Dewey lashed out with information borrowed from the stresses and strains of the era. These critics never conducted massive surveys or gathered statistical information before declaring that progressives were replacing education with politics for all or worse pablum for all. Until B.J. Day, educational criticism was primarily a manifestation of emotionalism and romanticism, and educators could successfully snub the critics with any reliable slogan. The Jencks' Report has elevated the practice of criticism to a new level of sophistication. Never before have so many facts been cited to substantiate ideas which were anything but novel.

**FOOTNOTES**

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3. *The Atlanta Constitution*, May 4, 1974.
4. Bernard Iddings Bell, *Crisis in Education* (New York: McGraw-Hill Co., 1949), p. 17.
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7. William H. Kilpatrick, "A Note From Professor Kilpatrick," *School and Society*, 55, (February 7, 1949), 159.
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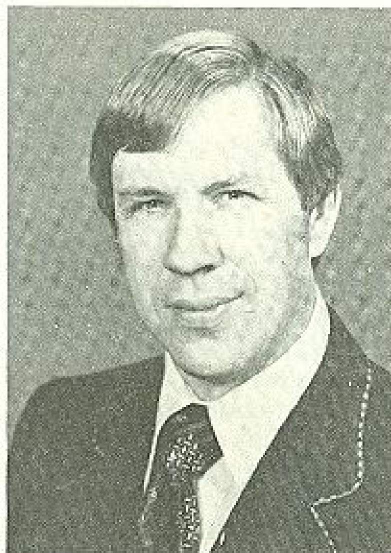
An unusual program in a small, rural school uses individualized instruction, student self-scheduling, freedom, an outdoor classroom, teachers-as-advisers, learning centers rather than classrooms, and a library which is the true heart of the school.

# model for change: a rural elementary school

by Gerald C. Ubben



A prime consultant in the development of the Oliver Springs program, Gerald C. Ubben is associate professor of educational administration and supervision at the University of Tennessee. He has also taught at the Universities of Minnesota and Nebraska. His professional background includes service as a teacher, supervisor and principal in Minnesota. He was one of the first interns with the NASSP Administrative Internship Project in the mid-1960's.

This is a story of educational change in a rural American community. In that community hums a beautiful elementary school that is an open space, open curriculum school dedicated to providing an up-to-date, exciting, educational program for its children. Individualized instruction is the basis for its program design with multi-aged groups of children and team teaching. While not yet achieving many of its goals, its instructional program is moving rapidly toward effective individualization; its staff is functioning with the principal to cooperatively reach instructional decisions within the school; and the climate among the students and staff is one of excitement about learning.

Oliver Springs is a small village located in an economically depressed area in rural Appalachia. Strip mining has provided a major economic base; unemployment is basically high; average personal income is very low (under $5,000 per year); drop-out rates high (over 50 percent by grade twelve), and the overall educational level of the population averages around grade eight. The Oliver Springs Elementary School building is over 30 years old and built for self-contained classrooms. A few of the teachers have taught in the building almost since it opened, a few of the teachers are beginners, and a few of the teachers have yet to complete bachelors degrees. Nevertheless, the climate for learning is fantastic.

### Learning Centers

The curriculum for the Oliver Springs School ranges from an outdoor environmental education center to typing and ballet. Broadly based, it draws on the many strengths of the teaching teams combined with the wide interests of the elementary student. Learning centers are operated as self-instructional, topical resource centers which allow students to interact with many more curricular areas and allow the teachers to supervise many more activities than would be possible if teacher direction were necessary for all student learning.

In addition to those subjects mentioned and the normal subjects of the elementary school, one can find at Oliver Springs such activities as sewing, dramatics, "take-a-part activities," educational games, weather surveillance, nature studies, creative crafts, and recreational reading. The full curriculum for each of the groups of students and their teachers would include approximately 20 different offerings. The great majority of the activities have been prepared and set out in advance by the teachers so the children can engage in a variety of learning activities with a minimum of teacher

direction. In this manner, the teachers are free to work with small groups of children, as well as to supervise several centers simultaneously. The materials used in these learning centers must be many and diverse including both commercially prepared and teacher-made items. However, with the shortage of funds with which to purchase materials at Oliver Springs, the great majority are teacher-made items such as task cards and learning packages.

**Outdoor Classroom**

One phase of the individualized program is the use of an "outdoor classroom." Trails are being constructed on property owned by the school. One trail follows the contour of a small creek. Here the children see and study the effects of wind and water on soil.

Natural springs, wildlife, trees, plants, rocks, and soil become the springboards to investigation, research, and new discoveries.

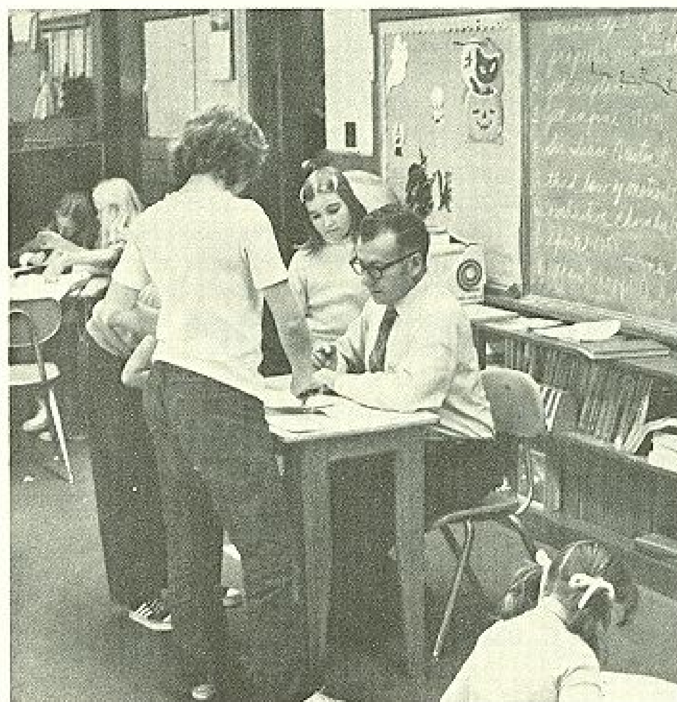
**Library**

The library at Oliver Springs Elementary School functions as an integral part of school, but is unique enough in its function to be worth mentioning separately. The teachers, restricted only by a team student quota to prevent overloading, use the library as one of their learning centers. A child can go to the library for recreational reading, to do research on special projects, to engage in a game of chess, to construct models for a group project in any subject area, to listen to tape-recorded stories, to receive instruction in library use, to check out materials or equipment to take back to the classroom or home, to work a jigsaw puzzle, to work on teacher-constructed games or work sheets, etc. The only regularly scheduled library class is a special story time for kindergarten and first grade; but even when this is going on, students are free to use the remainder of the library in the ways mentioned above. It truly functions as the "center" of the school.

**Student Self-Scheduling**

Reliance on student self-initiative and interest in learning is a major tenet of the program. The students at Oliver Springs are expected to schedule themselves into learning centers for their contact with instruction. The centers they choose to attend and the length of time they stay depends largely on the self-felt needs of the child and the professional judgement of his adviser. Student interest becomes a major tool for personalizing the curriculum. Each student in the complex, therefore, operates on his own schedule which is not exactly like that of any of his classmates.

There is teacher supervision of this student scheduling. One of the most novel features of the Oliver Springs program is the personal contact between the teachers and each student. Each student has had the opportunity to select his own adviser from among the members of the team. Each week in an individual conference the student and his teacher-adviser review the individual student's schedule, as well as the materials produced during that week by the student. These conferences take on the average of ten minutes each. The teacher-advisers quite often suggest modifications in the student's program if they feel change is necessary. The teachers have found that some students must be counseled more than once a week in order to keep them actively



*Individual help is provided away from the centers.*

participating in a learning program, while others could be seen less often.

The students through this adviser-student arrangement have definitely made progress in assuming more responsibility for their own learning. (This is one of the stated objectives of the Oliver Springs program). For example, when the program first began a number of students, used to the "heavy hand" of a teacher upon them, simply could not settle down to any concentrated study when they knew they were free to move to another learning center if they wished. The teachers began to refer to them as the flitters as they would "flit" from one activity to another looking for excitement, quite often creating their own. After the novelty of the new-found freedom wore off, many children settled down to their learning tasks of their own accord; however, others needed a great deal of teacher help through temporary use of a more constrained environment before they could function with self-direction as desired. The reward of freedom, something very coveted by most elementary children, became a powerful tool in bringing about the desired results.

**Group Activities**

The schedule for each student really is not quite as open as it might seem at first glance. Each student participates in several scheduled group activities each day. For most, this means a reading skills group, a math group, P.E. and probably a large-group presentation, called by one of the teachers, relative to their learning center activity. These learning center presentations vary from day to day and are scheduled and announced by the teams as they feel they are needed.

**Cooperative Teaching**

The teaching teams at Oliver Springs Elementary vary in size from two to four teachers. No magic formula was used to arrive at team size, but rather existing spaces in an old building dictated it. Last year one team using two spaces included



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*A small skill group serves for reading instruction.*

*An improvised listening center captivates its users.*

seven members, but that was found to be too large for good teacher and student communication so this year it was reorganized. A variety of approaches to the use of teacher aides have also been tried, depending on their availability. Some paid aides have been used as well as volunteers. The teachers have agreed that aides are extremely important in making a learning center program work well.

**Team Organization**

On most teams each member teaches five or six subjects including reading and math. Reading and math are organized around skill groups created by bringing together children for instruction who have been assessed as having very similar achievement levels on a skills continuum in that subject. These groups change in composition every few days as children move along on their own personal skill ladder. In order to keep these instructional groups small (ten to fifteen), each teacher works with two or three separate groups in both reading and math each day. The other subjects—social studies, science, health, spelling, plus many other areas as mentioned earlier are taught in learning centers through a self-instructional orientation with each teacher responsible for three to five different centers. Her responsibility is to plan, prepare, set up, monitor, support, and evaluate each of the centers in her jurisdiction. The teachers try to change the materials in the centers at least every two weeks, but with the heavy reliance they have fallen behind that two-week schedule, particularly when they try to strive for a range of materials that will meet the children's various ability levels.

Whenever a teacher feels that a particular learning goal must be supported by a teacher-directed activity as part of the instruction in a center, she will schedule with the team several group meetings for the children, usually spaced out over several days so that all the children working in that activity will have time to build it into their own schedules.

The five to seven separate assignments that each teacher has represent fewer preparations than she would have in a self-contained classroom, but still provide her with a good opportunity to observe the whole child. This alleviates the problem that seems to plague the departmentalized programs designed around teachers teaching in only one specific discipline. A bonus feature of a team approach, of course, is the opportunity to match students and teachers on a student's choice base for the advisement function of the program.

**Program Beginnings**

How did a program like this get started in a small rural town of Appalachia? Many people were involved before the project really could get underway—the superintendent, the principal, the community, the teachers, the school board—but the basic idea generated from the federal project officer of the Roane County School System, Mr. Roy Bowen. Teamed with several professors from The University of Tennessee, they put together a basic proposal designed to do two things:

1. To identify and prepare the staffs of several of the elementary schools of Roane County to implement open space, open curriculum schools.*
2. To further the professional graduate training of the staffs of these two schools to a more accepted level and do it with a program tailored to the needs of their local school district.

Funding was received from the Appalachian Regional Commission ETDD to assist in the upgrading of the teachers as public employees in an amount large enough to pay for their participation in a nine-graduate-hour course through the Extension Division at The University of Tennessee. A professor from the Department of Educational Administration and Supervision was engaged as a consultant to train the staff and advise them regarding the organization of their program. He also directed the preparation of the individualized instructional materials and continued work with the program approximately once a month for a year after it was first implemented.

The Board of Education for Roane County as well as the Superintendent, Dr. Ed Williams, was behind the programs with extra financial and political support. Captial outlay funds were appropriated for necessary building

* Two elementary schools in the county, Midtown and Oliver Springs, were identified to participate in the program. Largely because of a principal who was eager to try some new ideas, Midtown is also operating today with an organization very much like that of the Oliver Springs School.

A quiet game center in the library

Two students work on their own in a social studies center.

modifications. Numerous walls were taken out of the Oliver Springs building in order to create the desired sizes for instructional spaces and each of the new areas was carpeted. The superintendent and board also provided a necessary protective shield from the small but vocal dissident community groups that did not understand or did not like the program.

The community, generally, was quite supportive of the program. Presentations were given at several PTA meetings and the principal, Richard Davis, worked very hard to be open with his community. Even so, some opposition to the new school developed. Mr. Davis found that one of the best ways to counter the opposition was to invite these people into the school for a first-hand look. He honestly shared with them some of the problems of implementing the new program and then asked if they might help him and teachers by working in one phase or another of the parent volunteer program that had been implemented. This seemed to work most of the time; however, there are still a few— —.

All of the problems were not external, however. A number of crisis situations developed the first year internal to the Oliver Springs staff. The largest team, seven teachers, three aides, and 210 fourth, fifth and sixth grade students, found its size too large for good effective communication and coordination. It stayed together all year, but it was very rocky. Another team of four teachers, grades two and three, had so many personality and philosophic conflicts that by Christmas the only solution left was to split it in two. After several end-of-the-year resignations and realignment of the teams, the second year was much smoother but not totally without conflict. The third year—well, it was better.

The principal at the Oliver Springs school still has the drive and enthusiasm he had when the project began. Teachers are beginning to assume greater leadership in the implementation of the school-wide instructional goals, and the community is assuming greater involvement in the project. Best of all the staff has found vast improvements in student attitudes toward school and in many cases this is beginning to have a positive effect on student learning.

Has the school yet arrived? No, a program like this probably takes from three to five years before it starts to look good. However, when you think of the oil floors, the chairs in straight rows, the limited graded curriculum, and many unhappy children, Oliver Springs has come a long way.



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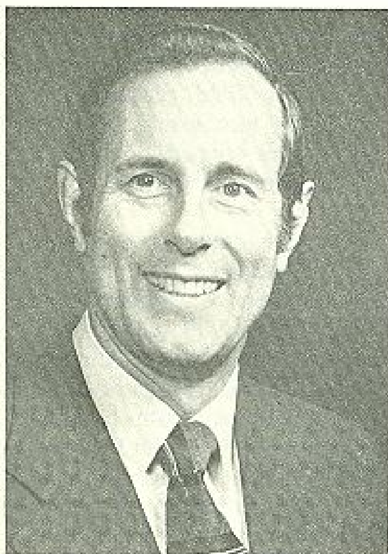
The response at a large university to a recent fund request to 10,000 Education alumni was answered by only 150, and one person sent a cryptic message by pledging 12 cents. What's the real meaning behind that message?

# the college of education and its students— until death do us part

by Edgar L. Sagan



Edgar L. Sagan is assistant dean for administration, College of Education, University of Kentucky. At present he is involved in a national research effort relating to higher education consortia. Over 800 institutions are involved in the study which covers 80 consortia. As assistant dean and previously as assistant to the dean for academic affairs, and director of admissions and records for Hartwick College, he has faced all levels of administrative problems in higher education. At Ohio State University he received his Ph.D. in higher education. His master's was from the University of Wisconsin and his bachelor's from Hartwick College.

The relationship between alumni and their alma mater has been cultivated for many decades in American higher education. This relationship was conceptualized as having two distinct phases. One was the college attendance phase where the future alumnus was exposed to the milieu of ideas, faculty, athletics, bull-sessions, and often a future marriage partner. The second phase was the alumni role, wherein the former student has been seen as perpetually expressing his gratitude in the form of cash for all the meaningful experiences provided by the alma mater during the attendance phase. In this model there has been very little overlap between phases: that is, the student has been seen as a recipient, and once an alumnus, the flow moves in the opposite direction to one of giver.

### The One-Way Model

There have been some basic problems with this model. For example, not every student has had a pleasant or profitable experience in college. National statistics indicate that over half of all entering college students eventually drop out permanently or at least do not graduate on schedule. The likelihood of dissatisfaction and bitterness with the college experience seems quite high—hardly the type of experience to foster fond memories and cash contributions!

Another problem has been the lack of any ongoing benefits flowing from the institutions to the alumni. Mail and phone contacts from alma mater have been mainly requests for money, and the alumnus who felt he already overpaid for what he got asked, "What's in it for me?"

In addition to these general problems, Colleges of Education have been at an even greater disadvantage. They have had so little contact with their students during 'phase one' that the alumnus has been much less inclined to contribute specifically to them during 'phase two.' Most teacher education programs have been heavily grounded in the arts and sciences, and often less than a quarter of the total program has been taken in education. Even that portion contained a high percentage of student teaching, during which a college-based coordinator may have visited only once or twice. After graduation, the new first year teacher has found that much of what was learned is not applicable in the real teaching situation. The net result from this traditional model has been one of mutual disinterest at best and outright antagonism at worst. That is why the response at a large university to a recent fund request to 10,000 Education alumni was answered by only 150, and one person sent a cryptic message by pledging 12 cents!

**A Model Based on Interaction**

As funds from state legislatures and federal sources become more limited and as inflation diminishes the impact of those amounts that are forthcoming, monies from other sources take on crucial importance. In fact, in-kind contributions of expertise, time, and data can be of equal value. In order to tap these resources from alumni, institutions of higher education will have to abandon the traditional model and move to one which features an ongoing two-way interaction between alma mater and alumni. In such a model, benefits and resources flow in both directions, and the line between student and alumnus status becomes vague indeed.

**Service to Graduates**

Since a new model of alumni relations must feature continuous service by the institution to its graduates, it might be well to discuss this aspect first.

Any program of ongoing service to graduates should have its introduction and orientation among the students. The students should be informed of those services they can expect to receive, and they should also be appraised of ways in which they can help their alma mater after graduation. A logical beginning is the job placement function. It is during the senior year that students should initiate their placement credentials and learn how to update them periodically. A continuing placement service to alumni is a vital link and should be cultivated. It gives purpose to early contacts during the student years, and it demonstrates a continuing concern on the part of the college. A positive side effect is that appropriate job placements result in job satisfaction, persistence in the profession, higher salaries, and therefore greater likelihood of substantial alumni support for the institution.

A second program of help to the alumni is one of professional support during the first year of teaching. This is a frightening time for many new teachers, and those who are placed in unfamiliar surroundings often need help in simply surviving. This program would have college of education faculty members work on an in-service basis with first-year teachers within a reasonable geographic range. Graduates of other institutions might also be included. It is easiest to implement in those schools where undergraduate field placements already exist. Visitations of undergraduates can then be expanded to the first year teacher group. Such a program does require extra time and resources, but it is in line with a national emphasis on continuing and in-service education. If some graduate course credit can be associated with this activity, it can serve as a dual benefit to the teacher and can also generate student credit hour production for institutions whose budgets are predicated on such figures.

A third benefit a college can provide its graduates is closely linked to efforts with first year teachers, and it actually picks up where the other program stops. It involves an ongoing, periodic contact with all graduates in the form of a fact sheet or newsletter which would report on the latest major research findings in education, new techniques, new materials, and suggestions on quality articles and books. Along with this there can be programs on tape or delivered in person concerning new techniques and theories pertaining to various jobs in education. These are the very things a faculty knows best and can do best. It is based on the philosophy that the alumni never stop being students with their alma mater.

**Benefits to the Institution**

The more familiar side of the coin is what the alumni can do for the institution. It should already be clear from the discussion so far that energies flow in both directions between college and alumni once a continuous interaction has been initiated. One needs to reinforce the other. Both must feel they are receiving some benefits. If they do not, the interaction will end.

The most common benefit to the institution is financial—the alumni fund. Appeals are made, and responses are expected. But as pointed out above, alumni interest in giving cannot be sustained indefinitely without some benefits provided in return. Therefore, the importance of institution-to-alumni contacts and commitment cannot be overemphasized.

Alumni can be of help to their college by participating in data-gathering, follow-up studies. In order for colleges to appropriately update and revise their programs, they need to have facts and perceptions from alumni concerning their ability to function on the job and how this relates to their program of preparation. Such studies often yield very low rates of questionnaire return. Teachers should feel an obligation to assist their alma mater in the vital effort of revising its programs through monitoring its products.

A third way in which alumni can help their college is to participate in field placement programs. If geographically possible, they should volunteer to work with student teachers and other students requiring field experiences. Not only does this broaden the base for quality field placement opportunities of the institution, but it also expresses a commitment on the part of the alumnus to participate in the important process of preparing new candidates for the profession.

A fourth area of alumni activity could be in student recruitment. In an era of tight job markets it is not necessary or advisable to attract large numbers of students to the teaching profession. However, there will always be a desparate need for quality people. In this regard alumni can be alert to the identification of promising candidates for educational roles and encourage these candidates to explore program options at the institution where they did their work.

There is some movement lately in the direction of broader involvement in the governance of teacher education. Teachers, parents, and others are being given a voice in how programs will be administered and structured. This is happening in colleges of education, in individual schools, and in special units created for the purpose of preparing teachers. Alumni should be encouraged to participate on these governing groups. They can do so with the depth of understanding of having been through the program—a quality no other group can bring to the process.

A sixth area of alumni support is in the political arena. This is a time when institutions of higher education are not faring well in public esteem. This feeling is reflected by legislatures which vote to cut budgets and eliminate programs. While it is true that many colleges need to improve their cost/benefit ratios and operate more efficiently, it is generally difficult to innovate and develop quality programs in a climate of shrinking resources. Every alumnus should do whatever possible to influence the public, state department officials, and legislators to support higher education adequately. Excellent programs need to be kept that way, and mediocre



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programs need to be given the incentive and the resources to improve. Several thousand alumni speaking as one voice can have surprising influence on both those who control the resources and those who use them.

The final area to be discussed here is probably the most difficult to deal with. It is difficult because it concerns the professional integrity of the individual. Every institution has a reputation, and it is created by a variety of factors such as research output, field service activities, and the "quality" of the graduates. Quality is an elusive term because it is perceived differently by different people, who in turn have their own sets of criteria. So the practical result is that different behaviors are valued differentially according to location and personnel. In some schools change and innovation are encouraged, while in other schools these may be perceived as radical and unsettling. So an alumnus with certain qualities may be perceived as successful in one setting and unsuccessful in another. However, assuming the match between place and person has been a good one, it should be the personal responsibility of every educator to perform with integrity and with a high standard of excellence. Beyond the benefits such performance has for pupils and for society, there is a residual benefit to the status of the individual's alma mater. Perhaps it is out of date to do a job well for the sake of some greater cause—personal fulfillment has become paramount. However, there can be benefits to several sources resulting from quality performance—personal, societal, and institutional. The successful alumnus does provide a benefit to his college, and this has to do with status, reputation, and good feelings. Thus, as these factors improve for the institution, each individual's association with the institution is enhanced. The pursuit of excellence then becomes the well-trodden pathway, and the choices at the forks in the road become much clearer.

# a definition of education

Education is a lifetime process
Whereby young and old are encouraged,
challenged,
and
rewarded
to question,
search,
discover,
and
incorporate
wisdom,
experience,
and
skills
leading toward a
deeper understanding and appreciation
of various dimensions of the universe
including all forms of matter,
life,
relationship,
and
mystery.

Duane Parker
Graduate Student in Education
Kansas State University
Philosophy of Education Class,
February 11, 1975

In this day of accountability and short budgets, research and program evaluation is necessary to reach penny-conscious publics and fiscally wary federal agencies.

# research and evaluation in education: a means of economic survival

by Robert Leonetti

Robert Leonetti is Director of Directed Studies at Trinidad State Junior College, Trinidad, Colorado. His educational experience has focused on multi-cultural and bilingual education. He has served as a principal and coordinator for a program to upgrade rural schools (SPURS) in Colorado. He also has served as a university counselor and evaluator for the Las Cruces Bilingual Project at New Mexico State University. In this position he was involved in test development and administration, data analysis, and served as a liaison between personnel in the research schools and project evaluators. He has also consulted with the La Tuna Federal Prison, Texas, as psychometrist and group counselor.

It is quite obvious that public education, and all its federally funded ancillary components, is presently being lambasted by a vindictive and reactionary tax-paying public. The present state of our national, state, and local economy has placed a financial guillotine on our public institutions of education at all levels. Consequently, there is a distinct paucity of tax dollars to support our public schools.

A reactionary movement on the part of the tax-payers to reduce, or at least curtail taxes, is quite evident. The recalcitrant paying element of public school finance is readily discernible if one peruses trends in school bond elections in the last five to seven years in this country. A significant number of those elections are currently being defeated, whereas not too long ago a great majority of them were easily passed.

Additionally, total current dollar expenditures for education have increased 591% (computed on purchasing power of 1967 dollars) between the years 1929 and 1968 (Johns and Morphet, 1969). If educational growth continues at approximately the same pace, it has been estimated that public education will comprise 12% of the gross national product by 1980. The lay public, and funding agencies in general, want to know what is being done with these monies. From this perspective, educators are beginning to ask the question, "Will the funds be forthcoming?" Assuming that more educational funds will be available, it appears that precise explanations of educational expenditures are the trend in our "immediate" pedagogical future.

### Accountability

The above mentioned factors have contributed to some degree to the demand for "accountability" implicit in our contemporary education institutions. Accountability has been defined by Felix M. Lopez (1970), as:

> The process of expecting each member of an organization to answer to someone for doing specific things according to specific plans and against certain timetables to accomplish tangible performance results. It assumes that everyone who joins an organization does so presumably to help in the achievement of its purposes; it assumes that individual behavior which contributes to these purposes is functional and that which does not is dysfunctional. Accountability is intended, therefore, to insure that the behavior of every member of an organization is largely functional (p. 231).





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The "functional" component of accountability, as Lopez intimates, is a significant aspect of this definition. It is, in essence, a disguised prelude of a definitive trend toward "objectivism."

Concomitant to the concept of accountability, then, are the concepts of "objectivity" and "measurability." Reduced federal budgets and expenditures have compounded educational financial problems. Educators must now prove and "account" for the need for federal monies. One's needs must be proven greater than another's. Competition from various private organizations and institutions (RCA for example) for the educational dollar via programmed instruction is further accelerating the demand for the preparation and incorporation of measurable instructional objectives. Thus, the terms "accountability" and "evaluation" quite often presently being heard in numerous educational circles are well established cliches. Many articles and speeches on the subject are presently being perpetuated. With the dissemination of myriad information regarding the large amount of money being spent in education today, approximately ninety billion dollars annually (Ginzburg, 1973), the general public, along with federal, state, and local officials, is clamoring to know where and how their tax dollars are being spent. The day for educators to "stand and be counted" relative to the provision of concrete evidence regarding outcomes appears to be just around the financial corner.

**Evaluation**

There are many references concerning materials and models in the area of educational research and evaluation. Most, if not all, are still in the experimental stage.

Mager (1962) suggests some appropriate measurable means to an educational end. Beatty (1971), Wallace (1970), and Stufflebeam (1971), are excellent references that might be consulted in the research and writing of educational strategies and objectives. Arnold and McNamara (1971) advocate a problem defining/problem solving model referred to as a Systems Approach to Educational Planning. In essence, this model: (1) Begins with general statements of the problems and objectives, and (2) Explicitly defines environmental constraints, such as finances, time, policy, etc. Thus, program expenditures are more easily defined and controlled.

Jacob J. Kaufman (1963), a contemporary leader in research and evaluation in the realm of vocational education, has done much work with the Cost-Benefit Analysis model. This basic paradigm appears to contain many of the qualities which contemporary advocates of educational research and evaluation deem necessary. As such, the Cost-Benefit Analysis system will be discussed in detail.

Kaufman attempts to establish the equivalent of a system of market principles for various types of activities (government, education, etc.). Again, "specificity" and "objectivity" are key terms in this article. Even though methods of analysis are crude and adequate data are not yet available, Kaufman's assumption is that this approach is much better than having no data.

To Kaufman, Cost-Benefit Analysis is a "way of thinking" because it forces the administrator to think through objectives. One cannot discuss the need for, or the payoff from, education without relating them to costs. Evaluation objectives most commonly stated today are too broad. They must be stated much more specifically.

Kaufman (1963), discussed a cost-effectiveness study conducted at Penn State University which compared vocational and non-vocational high schools. Benefit data was collected via questionnaires from a sample of high school graduates. Labor market histories regarding earnings and employment were collected. The study revealed that: (1) After six years, the vocational-technical students earned more money ($3,456) and worked for longer periods of time (4.3 months); (2) For dropouts from both programs, vocational-technical students were employed 11.6 months longer; (3) Students from the vocational-technical program had to have less on-the-job training (12-64 weeks), and their wage rate was higher while they were in training because they cost approximately $245 less. Some non-monetary and economic factors were: (4) The vocational-technical curriculum did not decrease citizenship qualities and social participation; (5) In the area of career satisfaction, the vocational-technical graduates had .28 fewer jobs that did not fit with their career interests than did non-vocational-technical graduates. The assumption behind this finding is that the vocational-education curriculum prepared workers for employment in specific skill areas, so workers do in fact find employment in their areas of training.

Kaufman concluded that, because of the presentation of hard data, additional funds would be allocated to the vocational-technical curriculum. His approach provides the kinds of results that are palatable to those individuals and agencies who will be disseminating educational funds in the future. By indicating further benefits accruing to the vocational-technical curriculum which had not previously been taken into account, one can present a substantive rationale for additional funding.

At present, the Program Planning Budgeting System, although quite similar to Cost-Benefit Analysis and other various evaluation models, appears to be in possession of the most "clout" in regard to ways and means of establishing accountability. McGivney (1971), also writing in the area of vocational education, provides a precise and succinct summary of a viable PPBS model. This approach requires the analyst to ask: (1) What the objectives and outputs are; (2) What and how information should be created, organized, and utilized in order to properly assess the potential and actual achievement of those objectives and their alternatives. The degree of success achieved in the above criteria will determine the degree of success achieved in making enlightened decisions that would be, in contrast to traditional budgeting techniques, economically feasible.

The PPBS system places new emphasis on what the educational process is supposed to "produce" and not be solely concerned with resource inputs. Thus, this approach places more importance on: (1) quantifiable objectives and alternatives: (2) their costs and benefits; (3) an adequate time period for analysis. Methodologies related to the PPBS model entail program budgeting, benefit/cost, cost effectiveness, cost/utility, operations research, and system analysis.

McGivney (1971) further states that the most distinctive characteristics of the PPBS model are:

> (1) It assures a choice of valid alternatives; builds in a time dimension that sees today's decisions in terms of their longer-term consequences; considers all pertinent

costs and benefits (actual and/or estimated); and helps to institutionalize change by providing continuing analysis of goals, objectives and programs. (2) The major contributions of PPBS over traditional budgeting lies in its potential for integrating the planning, programming, and budgeting processes. (p. 165-166).

McGivney's message to vocational educators is to be aware of the new evaluative framework which all levels of government will be imposing on educational institutions seeking public resources. His concern for the "competitive" factor is implicit in his writing. The new trend, due to galloping inflation and concomitantly tightening fiscal policies, is for public education programs to be compared with such federally funded projects as low income housing, health programs, etc. Further, public education will be forced to compete with private corporations for the shrinking educational dollar. RCA's interest in the field of education has been suggested earlier. McGivney (1971) discusses the General Learning Corporation in the same vein.

Johns and Morphet (1969) also make reference to the emerging role of the PPBS. The innovative utilization of the PPBS is of value to them because of the fact that current educational expenditure systems are not consistent with modern and future needs. Their basic assumption is that "minimum returns for dollars expended for education cannot be obtained without adequate planning (p. 475)." Adequate planning includes "long-range" emphases, or essentially a "plan for planning." This, apparently, is the means to an end; the emergence of education from its contemporary financial wilderness.

**Summary**

It appears that the synchronous emphasis on accountability in public education is imperative relative to the various sources of public school finance. The contemporary state of our social-physiological environment is such that, rather than constraining the evaluation process, a demand is being manifested by our tax-paying society for the immediate implementation of an evaluation paradigm or a combination of paradigms readily available to educational researchers.

As a means of imposing accountability measures on the federal bureaucracy, the system of systems analysis (PPBS) was created by the federal government during McNamara's tenure as Secretary of State. The advent of the present conservative Republican administration, the curtailment of federal spending for public education, the accelerating rate of inflation, and the current public demand for accountability, have done much to force analysis paradigms onto our monolithic educational system.

The fiscal survival of our educational institutions is becoming more and more dependent on good planning and on "observable" and "measurable" learning outcomes. Due to our present environmental construct, policy makers must begin to implement various evaluation strategies. The contemporary "values and ideologies" evident in our society dictate the need for educators to "account" for the many dollars being pumped into the system. A manifestation of reticence regarding such decisions could prove debilitating to the process of education.

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An educational sociologist looks at bureaucracy and red tape in educational systems.

# schools and school systems as formal organizations

by Frederick M. Schultz

Author of the book, *Social-Philosophical Foundations of Education*, Fred M. Schultz has long been a student of both the sociology and the philosophy of education. An associate professor of education at The University of Akron, he received his Ph.D. as well as his master's and bachelor's from Indiana University. He is currently president-elect of the Ohio Valley Philosophy of Education Society and a guest lecturer at Kent State University and Oberlin College.

Any school, whether it be a public school or a privately controlled one, is forced to formally organize its staff around the basic educational objectives which constitute the reasons for its existence. Many people (teachers, students, laymen) complain about "educational bureaucracies"; yet many people who complain about "bureaucratic red tape" in the performance of educational services fail to realize that "bureaucracy" is but one name for any legally constituted organization which has a formal set of objectives to achieve which require some sort of hierarchically ordered levels of functions.

"Bureaucracy" is a concept which relates to the need to formally organize the talents, interests, and efforts of the staff of an organization for the most efficient performance of services for the clients of the organization; in our case as educators our clients are our students. There are productive and efficient educational systems and there are inefficient and less productive ones. The reasons for effectiveness or ineffectiveness in such organizations will be more evident if we define the basic elements which operate in any formally structured educational system. It is not bureaucratic structure, as such, which is the enemy of efficient student-centered educational services, for any school system must formally organize its talents and interests in a hierarchy to achieve its educational goals. The problem is not whether to have or not to have some form of organizational structure in a school, but rather *how best* to understand and organize that structure for the achievement of maximum service to our clients.

"Bureaucracy" is derived from a French term "bureau" which was a piece of furniture in which documents were stored. The great sociologist Max Weber wrote on the nature of "bureaucracies"; his ideas on this subject were most influential in subsequent discussion of the nature and functions of those formal human social organizations with fixed roles and hierarchies of functions to which this term applies. Yet there are many people today who question some of his views on this matter.[1]

"Bureaucracy" is often used in a negative sense to refer to the complexities of rules and procedures in corporations, military organizations, government agencies, or school systems. Much has been said about the "red tape" and "conformity" dominant in such complex types of social organizations. As societies become more complex they seem to require more complexly structured social organizations to achieve their aims. As a society's technology develops and as

the society becomes more urbanized more and more new sorts of jobs and labor functions develop.

**Formal and Informal Bureaucracies**

A bureaucratic (or "formal") organization has carefully defined all of the functions of each member of the organization in terms of the *position* or *office* that person holds in the organization. Weber believed in rational or reasoned structures for the attainment of the organized goals of an institution. By an "office" in this context, we don't mean a room or cubicle where a person works but a series of *functions* assigned to the person who holds a particular "office" in the organization. The person doesn't hold the authority as much as the defined *roles* of the office allow the person the privilege of *carrying out its functions*. The leaders of the organization define the functions of each "office" in its organizational structure. Weber's vision of a bureaucracy was that of the beehive in which, from the queen bee on down, there are definite roles for each bee in the hive. The beehive could be said to represent what Weber would have referred to as an "ideal type" of bureaucracy in the sense that the beehive and the Prussian civil bureaucracies of Weber's time represented for him the typical and most characteristic forms of "bureaucracy."

In recent times social theorists have noted that in addition to the *formally* legislated roles and functions of the "offices" of a bureaucratic organization, there are *informal* influences and roles in such organizations. One way of explaining this is to note that the "offices" of any "bureaucracy" are obviously *held or performed* by people, and people exhibit both rational and irrational behaviors. The behaviors of people, as we all know, are not perfectly predictable. Hence, no matter how *rational* or clearly reasoned the *formally legislated* role structure of an organization may be, people can interact with their co-workers in an organization in *personal* as well as *impersonal* ways.

There is always an informal organizational structure in any formal organization. For instance, the people who hold the various "offices" in an organization have those formal, enacted or legislated work functions assigned to them; but they also develop informal social relationships with co-workers at the same organizational level as themselves. There is also the possibility that they will be able to develop informal contacts with certain subordinates or super-ordinates to themselves. They may and do, in other words, develop some informal contacts with one or more of their superiors in the organization as well as with some of the people holding positions at lower levels of the organizational structure than their own.

This means that Weber's "ideal type" of "bureaucracy" may not in fact ever exist today, although there is no question that the Prussian bureaucracies of his day were as highly formalized, rigid, and purely rational in their structure and operation as Weber described them. In school systems there always exists the *formal* bureaucratic organizational structure *and some form of informal* organizational structure. For instance, in a particular school some teachers, whatever their specifically *defined teaching roles*, enjoy greater respect and status with some of their colleagues or administrators than do other teachers. This is true because of length of service in the school, greater than average competency as a teacher, past personal friendships with one or more of the administrators, or from any other reason. Only in a new school just starting operations or in an older school with a totally new professional and secretarial staff would this not be the case, and even in such new or completely "restaffed" school situations an *informal organizational structure of some sort will be well under way to development by the end of the first term*.

The informal organizational structure usually interacts with the formally enacted one; this works to the advantage of some teachers and to the disadvantage of others. But contemporary urban-industrial social-orders *rarely* have any bureaucractic organizational structures that are *purely rational in their actual operation*. They may have been rationally conceived, but they will be operated by people who will perform their respective functions in terms of both formal and informal relationships. It is, for instance, not totally unheard of that a school secretary or custodian in an American school will have more "influence" with the principal or headmaster than any of the first or second year teachers in the building.

**Bureaucracy and Change**

For Weber, bureaucratic organizations were very difficult to change; it was almost impossible to change them because the functions of *positions* or *offices* remained the same regardless of the persons who occupied them. Hodgkinson points out that in contemporary bureaucracies it is easier for one person in command of an organization to change its bureaucratic structure than it is when authority is shared by a group or conflicting groups of people.[2] Hodgkinson asserts that when power is shared by several groups their respective efforts may conflict causing them to preserve the *status quo* in the organization rather than to change it. Yet he also noted the increasing *decentralization* of bureaucratic structures in many organizations. This trend, as he notes, can allow for greater flexibility in the operation of the organization.[3]

David A. Goslin speaks of the characterizing features of bureaucratic structures in education systems as consisting of:

> ". . . (A) hierarchy of formally defined positions each having a well-defined role and status as well as a specialized function in the organization. Bureaucratization and the concomitant increase in the size of organizations throughout the society (including education) has resulted from two related factors: the search for greater efficiency in the accomplishment of fairly complex tasks (such as the production of automobiles or electronic computers) and the growing degree of technical proficiency required at every stage in the process."[4]

Goslin also notes that educational systems are called upon to do more than teach general intellectual skills or to train people to perform specific vocational functions. The school functions to transmit cherished values and standards of conduct of the society which created it as well as to teach the accepted social behaviors of the society.

**Bureaucracy and Schools**

We can give a very brief overview of the nature of schools as formal organizations possessing characteristics common of all bureaucratic structures. A summary is given below of the basic structural components typical of "paradigm" uses of bureaucratic structure in educational institutions:



https://newprairiepress.org/edconsiderations/vol3/iss1/12
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1. There are sets of formally defined roles to be performed and responsibilities to be carried out which are located in the "offices" or "positions" specified in an organization's structure.
2. These "offices" or "positions" are arranged in hierarchical order from the top administrative leaders down to the lowest "positions" or "offices" in the structure.
3. There are levels of formally defined offices in this hierarchical structure; thus there may be several "positions" or "offices" parallel to each other at each "level" of the organization's structure. For instance, there may be several "directors" of secondary or elementary education in a school system located under the superintendent or assistant superintendents of schools with *each* of these "directors" having administrative authority over some of the "principals" of schools in the system. At the level of the "office" of "teacher" there can be hundreds or even thousands of teachers in a school system with each teacher possessing similar authorities and responsibilities in the *formal* organizational structure of the systems. Likewise, there are several school principals and assistant principals at the level of administration of particular schools in the system each of whom has defined *formal* authorities and responsibilities. Similar parallel "levels" of offices in the school system hierarchy could be noted concerning school guidance personnel, department chairmen, subject matter supervisors of instruction working out of the central administrative "offices" of the system to guide, evaluate and supervise classroom instruction, *etc.*
4. There is a "rule system" or an explicitly defined set of operational procedures formally defined with reference to the "offices" at each level of the organizational hierarchy from superintendent of schools to the "office" of "student."
5. There are, in conjunction with, or as a component subcategory of, the "rule system" of the bureaucratic structure, other *impersonal* guidelines formally written and prescribed for all *foreseeable* behavioral contingencies or possibilities in the human interactions among the people holding the various "positions" or "offices" in the system. There is, in other words, a conscious effort to provide a rational structure for all officially approved or expected human relationships within the organizational structure.
6. There are thus explicitly stated guidelines to provide *stability of patterns of behavior* among the various "levels" of positions in the organizational structure.
7. There are finely defined *formal* "power bases" or prescribed and carefully *delimited boundaries of formal authorities* in the organizational structure which are broadest at the *highest* "office" in the organizational structure ranging down to highly *constricted or narrow* spheres of formal influence or authority at the *lowest* level of the structure.
8. Finally, but not the least in significance, there are explicitly defined or "manifest" functions and goals for the organizational structure, and there are "latent" functions or goals for the organizational structure which are often most difficult to define or verify with certitude. The "latent" functions reflect, in part, the emergence of the *informal* and often *implicitly informal* individual and group dynamics in the unofficial extension and/or contraction of role or "office" definitions in the operation of the educational system in question over time. Many social, political, and economic factors also influence the emergence of an organization's "latent" functions, factors which have their origins outside of the formal organizational structure in the specific societal context of which the organization is a part.

### Conclusion

Criticisms (positive or negative) of the schools cannot proceed intelligently without accurate understanding of the above various distinguishing features of educational bureaucracies. This is the case whether readers of this paper support the concept of formally organized school systems or whether they support other private and informal sorts of learning environments. It is a further conclusion of the present writer that it is *really not* very productive for so much contemporary criticism of "bureaucracy," as such, to proceed in such generalized terms as many contemporary romantic critics of the schools display in their writings. We must, rather, look critically and incisively at the various component interpersonal dynamics of formal educational organizations. For the great generality of the forms of argument used by many romantic critics of the schools achieves little more than a spirit of highly emotive fatalism conducive only to the production of varying degrees of emotional depression and lack of self-confidence among teachers. We are probably all aware that fear or loss of self-confidence is not productive of *either* "self-transcendance" *or* the quest for each individual teacher's fundamentally best identity (or "deep self") as a person in general or a teacher in particular. Therefore, I say that there has been enough journalistic rhetoric among critics of the schools *and* that the time has come, rather, for truly *incisive* and *specific,* creative alternative criticisms of the interpersonal dynamics within schools. Such criticism will not emerge until we learn to think of formal educational organizations in terms of their specific distinguishing features.

**FOOTNOTES**

1. Harold L. Hodgkinson has a very good discussion of the nature of bureaucracies, and educational bureaucracies in particular, in his volume *Education, Interaction, and Social Change* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967), see Chapter 2: "Bureaucratic Structure and Personality," pp. 25-47.
2. *Ibid.,* p. 38
3. *Ibid.,* p. 31
4. David A. Goslin, *The School in Contemporary Society;* (Chicago: Scott Foresman, 1965), pp. 46-47.

Individualization is only a point on a continuum between totally teacher-directed instruction and totally student-determined learning. The variables and the extent of individualization are manipulated to fit student outcomes.

# new perspectives in individualized instruction

by L. James Walter and H. James Funk

Project evaluation and individualized instruction are two major areas of interest for Larry J. Walter, assistant professor of education at Indiana University at South Bend. He has also taught at the University of Nebraska and served as assistant research professor for the Oregon State System of Higher Education. Author of numerous articles and papers, he also writes on cost analysis, performance objectives, computer-based instruction and test development, and information processing.

A frequent consultant with Larry Walters is Harold J. Funk, also on the faculty of the College of Education at Indiana University at South Bend. Together they have served as consultants on individualizing instruction for continuing education programs and public and private school systems. Funk also has written a number of papers and articles on test construction, open education, performance-based inservice training, and science education.

How can the schools effectively educate the children of a democratic society? This question has pervaded American educational thought since the origin of free, public education. Public education for the masses of the population has been advocated to support the contention that a democratic form of government requires an educated populace. Because of this philosophic orientation, schools have endeavored to provide programs to meet the needs of all students. While critics of American education argue that schools are not effectively meeting the needs of all students, there is continuing support to identify new approaches that will effectively educate children of the democracy.

Recent approaches in education have combined with advancements in the media and communications areas to form a new technology of education. Flexible, modular-scheduling, differentiated staffing, open education, various patterns of individualization, and numerous other innovations represent efforts toward achieving the goal of educating all students.

Individualized instruction, while not a panacea, provides a means for making the educational system more responsive to the particular needs of individual students. In individualization students are given more control over the instruction they receive: What they learn; how they learn it; and how they are evaluated. Students have increased responsibility for managing the accompanying instructional variables such as time, materials, and the learning environment.

Schools adopting individualization as a pattern of instruction realize the following benefits:

1. Alternatives for learning are developed for individual students giving formal recognition to the concept that it is not necessary for two individuals to share the same abilities, interests, or learning styles.
2. Students become more actively involved in decisions affecting their learning. Students have increased opportunities to learn and practice responsibility as a formal part of their education.
3. Learning becomes more relevant to students. They have the opportunity to pursue resources that fit their diverse interests.
4. Teachers' roles change from the patterning of content toward roles in which teachers are supporting the learning outcomes of individuals.



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5. Instruction becomes more efficient. Students only pursue and learn the knowledge and skills they have yet to master.
6. Students are able to develop a more positive self-concept. Students have sufficient time and access to instructional alternatives to master the skills needed to develop a positive identity.

While there is little doubt that most teachers feel that individualization of instruction is educationally desirable, there are some serious obstacles preventing immediate implementation. As a task, individualization requires a great deal of time, training, and energy. In light of the enormity of the task, many programs have adopted the jargon of individualization without making any real changes in the learning that students experience. Because no one teacher can completely individualize instruction immediately, a more prudent approach would be to gradually and systematically individualize parts of the curriculum. In the initial stages of individualization, teachers and learners alike are learning new behaviors. Teachers are developing skills in organizing, managing and supporting an individualized instructional environment; students are learning the skills that enable them to function within that environment. If students are to take a more active role in selecting and managing their learning, they must have opportunity to learn and practice those behaviors. As teachers gain the necessary experience in managing instruction and the students adjust to new routines, further progress toward individualization can be pursued.

How can the variables in an individualized instructional setting be examined? Individualization has two major groups of variables, instruction and roles. Because individualization is an extension of a systems model of instruction, the first group of variables can be classified using the four major components of a systems model of instruction—objectives, diagnosis, instruction and evaluation.

Objectives→Diagnosis→Instruction→Evaluation→

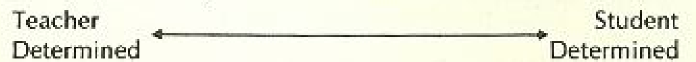
**Objectives**—The determination of learning expectations

**Diagnosis**—The determination of the learner's instructional needs

**Instruction**—The prescription of instructional activities

**Evaluation**—The determination that the objectives are mastered

The second major group of variables can be examined by identifying the roles the teacher and learner play with respect to each component of the model. Each component (objective through evaluation) has the potential of being totally teacher-determined, jointly-determined by teacher and student, or totally student-determined.




By arranging the two groups of variables, instruction and roles, into cross-partition, a model for examining the continuum of individualization can be formed.

**CONTINUUM OF INDIVIDUALIZATION**

**Teacher-Determined (TD)** .......... **Student-Determined (SD)**

| COMPONENTS OF INSTRUCTION | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Objectives** | All objectives (if specified) are Teacher-Determined (TD). All students achieve the same objectives. | All objectives are TD. All students achieve the same objectives. | All objectives are TD. Some objectives are optional. | Objectives are TD and SD. | Objectives are SD with teacher input. |
| **Diagnosis** | No formal diagnosis is conducted. All students are assumed to have same repertoire of entry behaviors. | Pretest is administered over objectives to adjust the instruction. | Pretest is administered over required TD objectives. Diagnosis may be SD over optional objectives. | Diagnosis is TD and SD. | SD with teacher assistance. |
| **Instruction** | All students receive the same instruction at the same time. Choices of instruction and materials are made by the teacher. | Activities are TD. Students have options of activities and the time spent on activities. | Activities for required objectives are TD. Students have options of activities and time. Students may use TD activities or design their own. | Some activities are TD; some activities are SD. Students control time, materials, and methods. | Activities are SD with teacher assistance. |
| **Evaluation** | All students are tested over the same objectives at the same time by the same method. | All students are tested over the same objectives. Time and method of testing may be varied. | Evaluation is TD for required objectives. Students have option of method and time. Evaluation may be TD and/or SD for optional objectives. | Evaluation is TD and SD. | Evaluation is SD with teacher. |

Individualization can be viewed as a point on a continuum between a totally teacher-determined and directed instructional setting and a totally student-determined and directed instructional setting. In the totally teacher-determined setting, the teachers manage (as best they can) all the major components of the instructional program and the accompanying variables. The choices of objectives, materials, and amount of time allotted to instructional activities are controlled by teachers. In a totally student-determined setting, students manage the major components of instruction and accompanying variables. They decide what to do, when to do it, and how to do it.

How is it possible to implement an individualized program? Individualization is an extension of a systems approach to planning. A prerequisite for an individualized program is the determination of student outcomes in the form of goals and specific objectives. Once this is accomplished, it is possible to design alternative instructional patterns and assess their effectiveness. By identifying student outcomes an essential first step is taken toward the goal of individualization. In the earlier stages of individualization, the teacher determines and controls the variables of instruction. The teacher determines the objectives. Diagnosis, if conducted, is only used to adjust instruction to the level of the class. All students receive the same instruction and evaluation. In the intermediate stages of individualization, as more objectives are formulated and instructional alternatives developed, diagnosis is used to group students on the basis of common deficiencies. Optional objectives and enrichment activities are provided for students who have mastered the required objectives. In the final stages of individualization, students assume responsibility for determining objectives, learning experiences and evaluation. The teacher's role is to provide assistance in selecting appropriate objectives; locating and selecting appropriate learning experiences; and evaluating student learning.

In summary, to develop an individualized program teachers would: (1) decide where they are; (2) decide the extent to which they wish to individualize aspects of the curriculum; and (3) design a plan to systematically develop the requisites for the individualized system they wish to implement.

## the bay of funding

Luckily for those who give money to the various claimants (an act known as funding: with foundation offices in the buildings that tower over the harbor, New York is the Bay of Funding), there is a certain comity in the social sciences. Suppose, however, that the money ran short and the various centers and institutes saw their existence endangered?

Some might make a better case than others, but suppose they all said they wanted to set up ongoing ad hoc mechanisms for option assessment and constructive and creative response? Suppose they all wanted to draft programmatic proposals that could later be implemented on the basis of a meaningful ethos able to supply definitive answers to fundamental value questions and identify dangerous fallout? Suppose—the ultimate horror—they all claimed not only the same set of concerns but the same constituency within which an informed dialogue would resonate? What price cross-fertilization at the interface then?

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Educational issues should be considered not only in light of their efficiency, but also their morality. Morality is the hard question and it challenges us to put aside intellectual laziness and mind-sets of habit.

# education and a question of morality

by Edmund C. Short

Philosophy and educational inquiry concern Edmund C. Short, associate professor of education at Pennsylvania State University. He is co-editor of the book *Contemporary Thought on Public School Curriculum* and has published articles in the area of knowledge production and utilization. He also has taught at the University of Toledo and Ball State University. His Ed.D. is from Teachers College, Columbia University, while his master's is from Texas Christian University and bachelor's from Purdue University.

"Education is both a purposive and a moral enterprise." Those who guide its processes are prone to take this commonplace for granted. They tend to believe their own view of the enterprise to be above reproach with respect to "good," "better," or "worse" options toward which education may be directed. They also consider their own actions within the routines of the educational process to be beyond question with respect to their being "right" or "wrong," "just" or "unjust."

Educators seldom give thought to the implications of this readily accepted commonplace about education. Action which they suppose is in keeping with the principle of a purposive and moral enterprise is carried on daily. The impact of whatever action is taken is felt by every person involved. Seldom, however, are educators called upon to make explicit what is meant by this statement and to furnish sound arguments for the particular meaning set forth.

It would appear that the problem of what shall be the valued purpose of the educational enterprise is an enormously pervasive one, one from which no one can prudently escape, especially those intimately engaged in the enterprise as pupils, teachers, or administrators. The question of how to make the conduct of the enterprise both effective and moral is likewise a complex one, one which neither learners nor teachers can easily avoid.

Could it be that the common-sense notions held by each individual educator on these questions are the only ones operating in the educational enterprise? How often are controversies over differences on these matters brought to public discussion in a particular educational situation in order that some deliberate stance on the purpose and character of the educational system might be taken? How frequently have educators considered whether moral and purposive integrity of the educational enterprise should be left a matter of indifference or whether there are compelling reasons for putting their concerted energies to work in support of actualizing such integrity? What is involved in coping with the implications of value and moral questions in the design of educational systems? How may educators equip themselves to lead in the resolution of differences over these matters rather than simply becoming the unwitting accomplices of some influential force whose own assumptions might prevail in these debates? What lies behind the achievement of some skill in facilitating the determination of satisfactory purposive and moral integrity for the educational enterprise?

**Four Dimensions of Intellectual Commitment**

First of all, it must be recognized that this endeavor requires an intellectual aggressiveness of the first order. Those who have not grasped the issues, the alternatives, or the significance of choices among them, either in a particular context or more generally from recognizing these ideas repeated throughout educational history, are simply not equipped to cope with the existential situations with which they will be confronted. Some people have not made, or will not make, the necessary effort to be in command of these essential intellectual tools. These tools are not easy to master, but the claim to be capable of being an educator carries with it the obligation to master these intellectual tools. They are available to be mastered and they can be mastered. No one need remain ignorant in this realm. If they are willing to apply themselves to the task of learning about these matters, educators will discover that the moral and value issues of a particular situation have a ring of familiarity in them and that the significance of getting them resolved can more readily be detected.

Secondly, educators must apply their own powers of logic to assess the intellectual merit of various alternative purposes and educational procedures. If they cannot determine the positions that can stand the test of reason, they are not very far along the road toward sorting out viable preferences among alternatives. Again intellectual laziness can be a hard villain in this area, as well as in the first aspect mentioned, but it can be overcome. There is no road to consensus on such issues save through reason. This exercise in logic, therefore, must not be avoided. There are other necessary roads as well, to be cited a little later, but if reason is neglected, the common characteristics of minds, by which we can recognize each other's arguments, are put aside in favor of mental capabilities that are not inherently common to all, and the difficulty in seeing eye-to-eye is increased exponentially.

In the third place, educators have to recognize their own unique value positions and moral stance. Such views and predelections, it must be recognized, are acquired by everyone through the experiences of their own unique environment from birth until the present. No two persons could be expected to hold the same points of view on such matters, and they, in fact, do not. To the extent that they can account for the particular influences that helped to build the hierarchies of value and moral imperatives that they now adhere to, educators may better understand and make intelligible their positions to others. But even if they cannot trace this explicitly or fully, there will be present these strongly held views and dispositions to act which need to be recognized for what they are. When one is ready to admit that personal biases respecting purposive and moral integrity of the educational enterprise may not be the biases that others hold or prefer, then one is forced to check into this stance to see how firmly it should be held in view of the fact that no one person is going to be able to impose biases on the school and that some reason for subscribing jointly to a value orientation or to a moral perspective must be sought. One is often compelled to recast personal positions in order to be able to support new ones with reasons believed to have some chance of being taken by others as acceptable when an operational consensus is required. This rethinking is difficult again, and some people refuse to budge from long-held views or perspectives and willingly attempt to revitalize their stance in light of new knowledge, new reasons, or newly perceived realities. Nevertheless, they are likely to be badly prepared to join the fray over institutional purposes and moral integrity unless they have done this kind of self-examination.

The fourth stage brings together all parties concerned with determining what's best for a particular educational enterprise. The task is then to formulate the most satisfactory statements of educational purpose and the most adequate guidelines to ensure moral educational practice that can be adjudicated out of the varieties of input. Each person contributes from personal analysis of the issue and from an assessment of the reasonableness of various positions on them (as indicated in stages one and two). Each person also admits inexplicable adherence to certain hierarchies of values and to certain moral imperatives (as indicated in stage three).

But the discussions will consist of more than the expression of the various preferences and perspectives of the person involved. They will even consist of more than attempts to get others to come around to one's position. Such deliberations require consideration of what's desirable for the educational enterprise as a whole, with all of its participants and all of the influences it has upon it.

This is a big order, even when all parties willingly pursue the common good rather than their own biases. It requires skill in the arts of deliberation. More importantly, it requires the developing of a consensus through gradually coming to a mutual recognition of certain higher values that can supply acceptable reasons for whatever statements of purpose and moral guidelines are formulated. To suggest an instance of this, recall how a dispute over whether schools should be predominantly utilitarian in purpose or boldly liberating of human potential was resolved when people began to recognize that they all valued their children's becoming capable of performing in life in ways not dictated by necessity.

**Does Higher Education Develop Integrity?**

In conclusion, it should be apparent that if education is to be a purposive and moral enterprise, and if educators are to have any special ability in making it so, the preparation of educators must entail study and experience in each of the four dimensions just discussed. Do colleges of education set such an expectation for the preparation of qualified educators? Are we demanding intellectual competence in the analysis and significance of perennial educational issues and of the character and logic of alternative positons on them? Are we requiring educators to clarify their own value positions and moral imperatives on educational matters so that they are above being advocates of unexamined doctrines and above being stubbornly provincial in light of the general needs of the common enterprise of education? And finally, are we requiring them to gain experience and skill in the arts of public deliberation in a context of a group's having to formulate statements setting forth clearly the hierarchies of value and of action that they wish to have govern a particular educational enterprise?

And incidentally, does the enterprise in which colleges of education themselves are engaged possess purposive and moral integrity?



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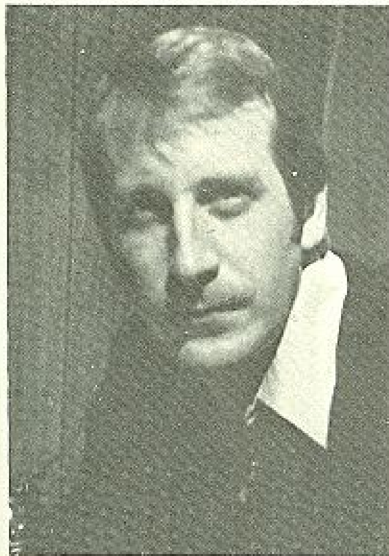
The use of instructional technology means the media director must serve as an agent of change in an already complex educational environment. It's not an easy task to make technology everyman's tool rather than every man's master.

# the media director and administrative competence

by Bruce Petty



Bruce Petty is director of Instructional Media and Technology for the College of Education at the University of Kentucky. He earned his master's and Ph.D. from Kansas State University in instructional media. He has taught art in public schools in Kansas. His areas of interest are instructional design and program development, in addition to administration of educational media programs.

> "Many people react negatively toward change. A few, the emotionally disturbed, defend themselves against it through the psychological process of denial. Others, in the same category, who are more normal but no less negative, view it as an unhappy departure from the "good old days," and go through life trying to turn back the clock. Many in a second category are more fatalistic than negative toward change. Their position is: "Since you cannot avoid it, go along with it." A third category includes individuals who see change as not only inevitable but basically positive. Their position is: "Because it is basically good, incorporate it into your pattern of life."
>
> This last position . . . (is) a telelogical (one) that presumes man to be intrinsically positive and the universe to be basically orderly. Not blind to such negative forces as pain, hunger, bigotry, disease, and physical holocausts, it conceives them more as issues that challenge the best in man than as forces of evil over which he has no control. The position commits man to pursue his destiny in a world that refuses to stand still."

This statement by Gail M. Inlow at the outset of his text, *Education: Mirror and Agent of Change* (1970) reflects upon the nature of man and his reaction to the phenomenon of change in society. No greater change has affected man and society than the development and application of technology to everyday life. It has altered lifestyles and created new and uncharted directions for institutions. It has caused social and political upheavals and changed the face of civilization.

Nothing has escaped the technological revolution, including the process by which man transmits culture and tradition from generation to generation. The changes that technological advances have initiated in education are enormous. They have affected the body of knowledge to be taught, methodologies of teaching, and the very theoretical bases upon which society's educative processes are founded. Nowhere is the phenomenon more evident than in the application of instructional media to education. That application has experienced such a tremendous growth over the past two decades as to create the need for an addition to the heirarchy of educational administration—that of an administrator of instructional media and technology.

The question arises, then, of the function of the program director. What is his role within the structure of the organization? And what kind of person does he need to be in order for him to be effective in that role?

The nature of the administrative process is basically concerned with two functions, namely, leadership and management. Leadership is that creative activity concerned with helping an organization or an institution discover, identify, and define new directions and purposes, or to alter and re-define old ones. Management is the act of implementing pre-determined plans and procedures. The establishment or modification of policy is a leadership action, whereas the execution of policy can be more properly defined as management.

Burton and Brueckner (1955) define the administrative act as "... an expert technical service primarily aimed at studying and improving cooperatively all factors which affect child growth and development ...". Wiles (1967) states that it "... consists of all the activities leading to the improvement of instruction, activities related to morale, improving human relations, in-service education, and curriculum development."

Obviously administrators of an educational media program must be highly competent in technological matters. To the problems of prescribing and advising individuals, groups, and institutions in the application of media and technology to instruction, they must bring a broad range of knowledge and experience. They must have a working knowledge of audio and video systems design and effective utilization. Their interests and skills must range from photography to electronics to compatibility standards. Even though they must often delegate responsibility, they still must be skilled media designers and producers of media software. They must have an artist's eye—including knowledge of color, form, and composition.

But it is not enough for media administrators to be technological experts. They must also be educators with a firm foundation in curriculum and curriculum change—cognizant of the forces affecting change, and fully capable of making sound judgments concerning the many and varied aspects of the teaching-learning process. They must be skilled in the development of educational objectives and in the attainment of those objectives systematically and humanistically. They must bring to the position a desire for innovation in educational method and, hopefully, a philosophical insight into cultural values. Although the working day may seem to consist primarily of innumerable forms and reports, budget shuffling, and political maneuvering, the program director cannot lose sight of the role as an educator and the ultimate aim which is the improvement of instruction.

In order to successfully fulfill that obligation, media program directors must possess a finely tuned set of interpersonal skills. They are, or should be, in continual contact with a wide variety of people within the organization with whom they must work toward desired ends. These colleagues, and their institution, will greatly benefit from the director who brings to the office a sense of respect and regard for others, a sense of critical reason, an ability to focus energies toward democratic decisions and well-planned objectives, and a passion for the logic and ethics upon which shared value depends.

In the final analysis technology is, in effect, applied science. It tends to embrace machines and automated devices—tape recorders, television, electronic programming, data manipulation, microfilm, computers, and digital readouts. Its hardware is dramatic and the plethora of its product is staggering. Fundamentally the world of technology is a world of things, and as such holds within itself the possibility of posing serious threat to intellectual and personal growth. Program directors must guard against becoming so entranced with the wondrous gadgets that they forget the people they are serving. Paul R. Mort (1946) provides an incisive reminder:

> "Attitudes toward educational policy are influenced by considerations that are a heritage of the culture. ... Some of these considerations are humanitarian. The public are concerned not only with ends to be achieved, but with democratic, just egalitarian treatment of persons affected by the process of achieving them ... Other considerations are prudential: The public are concerned that the ends to be achieved are met without outraging the sense of the practical that they have built up in their business relationships, at work, or in the operation of their homes. They are concerned with economy: they believe that the really important things are simple; they are suspicious of cleverness; they want schools to achieve their ends in ways that appeal to their sense of the practical, of the common sense ..."

The supreme value of life is man's individuality and his right to strive to be an uncommon man. Technology in education will be a positive force only to the extent that it enhances the basic dignity of each student, teacher, and parent. I believe that administrators of instructional media and technology programs will find this to be their ultimate challenge, and the measure by which the application of technology to education will finally be judged.

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Where does the difference lie, really, in individual differences? French has developed a matrix to display the learning differences as well as guide teaching strategies.

# teaching strategies and learning processes

by Russell L. French

The philosophy of education is a major interest of Russell French, particularly the communication behavior of both students and teachers. An associate professor at the University of Tennessee and director of the pilot program in teacher education, French has also taught at the Capital University in Columbus, Ohio, and Ohio State University as well as in Cincinnati public schools. He received his Ph.D. from Ohio State University and his bachelor's and master's degrees from the University of Cincinnati.

Teaching is not learning, and learning is not teaching. The two processes are different in nature, and each is controlled by a different individual. Yet, the teacher, while not being able to control the learning process, cannot develop the instructional process (objectives, strategies and activities, measurement, evaluation) without regard to what he/she presumes to be happening within the learner. In order to plan instruction, the teacher must have a personal answer to three crucial questions: "What is instruction? How do people learn? What is significantly different about different learners?" While the teacher's response to the first question is terribly important, in fact, basic to all successful instruction, this paper focuses on some appropriate, practical responses to the latter two questions.

### How Do People Learn?

When an educator approaches the question, "How do people learn?", he is aware that there are different schools of thought regarding the answer. If a teacher has several years of classroom experience, his/her response to the question is probably tempered by that experience. Most experienced teachers are quick to suggest that there may possibly be differences between a child and a rat and between thirty children aggregated and a single rat. The implication is, of course, that learning theory and research leave something to be desired. Whatever the problems existing in learning theory and related research, the individual educator does not have the option of ignoring the question, "How do people learn?" In order to develop or select teaching strategies, methods or techniques, the teacher must have some notion of what he *thinks* will happen in the learning process.

One intriguing model of the learning process is offered by Asahel Woodruff (1951): Figure one presents a simplified version of that model.

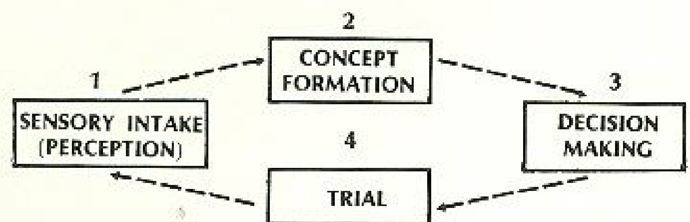


*Figure 1.* Woodruff's Model of Learning

Stages three and four of Woodruff's model hold particular implications for the development and selection of instructional strategies. If, indeed, the learning process is incomplete without the learner's participation in relevant decision-making and trial experiences appropriate to his decisions, the teacher must employ in the instructional

process strategies which provide such opportunities. Role-play, simulation, critical-incident processes, games and case studies offer a few possible approaches to the instructional problem.

If the teacher views learning as a process different from Woodruff's conceptualization, other issues and problems present themselves. However, the point remains the same. Without personal responses to the question, "How do people learn?", our perspectives on instruction are limited and our practices insufficient.

### What's Different About Different Learners?

A concern for individual differences in learners is nothing new. Indeed, individual differences are mentioned often in the best educational literature. Most educators read and hear and use the term so often that they begin to assume that meaning is inherent in it. Few of us give enough thought to the nature of individual differences and their relationship to instructional methodology.

One way of responding to the question of individual differences is to suggest that every human being has a personal learning style. If this is true, it may mean that the survival of learners in the public schools (particularly at the elementary level) is directly related to the correlation between *my* teaching strategies and *their* learning style. Obviously, some conceptual model of learning styles is essential to the teacher engaged in instructional planning and implementation.

This writer's observations of learners at all levels suggest that one might consider learning styles from a sensory-intake point of view. Within this framework, a list of personal learning styles might include:

| Style | Characteristic |
|---|---|
| Print-Oriented | Dependency on reading and writing |
| Aural | A listener; doesn't say much |
| Oral (Interactive) | A talker; learns through discussion |
| Visual | Must have many visual stimuli and visual representations |
| Tactile | Has to touch everything and everyone |
| Motor | Has to move about while learning anything |
| Olfactory | Learns through taste and smell. |

There may be combinations of these, thereby forming as yet undefined styles, but most of us can name at least one student who fits into each of the categories listed. Indeed, each of us can probably place ourselves somewhere in this list.

Another view is offered by those who perceive learning styles as:

| Style | Characteristic |
|---|---|
| Sequential | Must perceive orderly relationships (B follows A) |
| Logical | Uses processes of reasoning to reach conclusions |
| Intuitive | Perceives truths and facts directly without benefit of extensive reasoning |
| Spontaneous | Relies on impulse |
| Open | Uses combinations of the above or different ones of the above at different times. |

Probably, neither of these views is wholly right or wholly wrong. Perhaps the assessment of learning style is a matter of diagnosing and locating the learner on a matrix something like that presented in Figure Two.

### Relating Teaching Strategies to Learning Styles

If the notion of learning styles and the specific styles outlined here reflect valid differences among learners, what are the implications for development and selection of teaching strategies? The first obvious conclusion to be drawn is that the teacher must select strategies congruent with the learning styles of those individuals he/she is trying to teach.

| | Sequential | Logical | Intuitive | Spontaneous | Open |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| PRINT-ORIENTED | | | | | |
| AURAL | | | | | |
| ORAL (INTERACTIVE) | | | | | |
| VISUAL | | | | | |
| TACTILE | | | | | |
| MOTOR | | | | | |
| OLFACTORY | | | | | |

*Figure 2.* Matrix of Personal Learning Styles

Selection of strategies will have to be based on diagnosis of learning style. Diagnosis can best be accomplished through observation of the learner in a range and variety of experiences. Once diagnosis is accomplished, the match-up of teaching strategy and learning style can proceed in a logical, orderly manner. For example, strategies and techniques deemed most appropriate to sensory-input styles suggested here might be as follows:

| Style | Most Appropriate Technique |
|---|---|
| Print-Oriented | Reading, writing about, book-based discussion |
| Aural | Lecture, listen to panel discussion, sound film television, audiotape |
| Oral (Interactive) | Socratic discussion, panel discussion colloquy, dramatization, dialogue, interview, debate, T-group, role play, student verbal presentation, games, student demonstration |
| Visual | Slides, motion picture, filmstrips, television, still pictures, observer of dramatization, nonverbal exercises, demonstration, trips, exhibits |
| Motor | Role play, games, action mazes, nonverbal exercises, student demonstration, learning centers |
| Olfactory | Trips, exhibits, addition of taste and smell experiences to daily activity. |

Teaching is not learning, and learning is not teaching. But, teaching strategies cannot be developed or selected in any meaningful fashion unless the teacher draws upon clearly defined concepts of learning process and learning styles.

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# in the winter issue:

The forthcoming Winter issue of *Educational Considerations* will be a single theme edition focusing on school plant and capital improvement planning. Prominent individuals with expertise relating to the topic from both university and public school perspectives are preparing articles. The editorial intent is to provide a discussion on current ideas and trends in this particular field. Subjects to be considered include five-year capital improvements planning, energy conservation in school plant design, and school building utilization in a period of student decline.