

: Volume II, 1975 Speech Association of Minnesota Journal



JOURNAL

Speech Association of Minnesota

Volume II

1975

Published by Cornerstone: A Collection of Scholarly and Creative Works for Minnesota State

THE SPEECH ASSOCIATION OF MINNESOTA JOURNAL

Published by

The Speech Association of Minnesota

Editor

Timothy Y.C. Choy
Moorhead State College

Editorial Advisory Board

Mary Emily Hannah
St. Cloud State College

Delmar J. Hansen
Moorhead State College

Robert Heimerl
Stillwater High School

Linda Putnam
Normandale Community College

The Speech Association of Minnesota Journal is an annual Spring publication of the Speech Association of Minnesota. The Editorial Advisory Board welcomes manuscripts dealing with a wide variety of issues related to Speech Communications and the Dramatic Arts. Teachers, students and other interested individuals are encouraged to submit their manuscripts for consideration to the Editor.

Permission from the author constitutes permission to reproduce any article in this issue of this Journal. Reproduction must be credited to the author and to The Speech Association of Minnesota Journal by bibliographical reference or other suitable form.

THE SPEECH ASSOCIATION OF MINNESOTA JOURNAL

Volume II

1975

Contents

MINNESOTA SPEECH EDUCATION:
REVIEW AND PROSPECT

- Roger K. Mosvick 1
Dr. Mosvick reports on a comprehensive survey of the status of Minnesota Speech/Drama programs which he and Dr. Douglas P. Hatfield conducted in 1973.

THE SPIRIT OF SEDALIA

- Scott Nobles 6
Professor Nobles reacts to the 1974 Task Force Assembly of the National Development Conference on Forensics.

COLLECTIVE BARGAINING AND
EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

- Robert S. Reed 10
Dr. Reed discusses two problems in the area of collective bargaining and extra-curricular activities: the lack of bargaining power and determining compensation.

NEGOTIATION: AN OPPORTUNITY
FOR SPEECH SCHOLARS

- Constance M. Weimer 17
Ms. Weimer discusses the relevance of negotiator's communication skills and their possible effects on the outcome of the negotiation process. She considers how individuals with speech communication training can make contributions in the collective bargaining process.

COLLECTIVE BARGAINING AND ACTIVITY
ASSIGNMENTS FOR SPEECH-THEATRE FACULTY
IN MINNESOTA COMMUNITY COLLEGES

- Linda Putnam 23
Ms. Putnam describes the basis for speech/theatre activity assignments and discusses possible ramifications of collective bargaining in determining activity staffing.

MINNESOTA SPEECH EDUCATION REVIEW AND PROSPECT

Roger K. Mosvick

Survey designers perhaps lead the list of those who should embrace W.H. Auden's admonition to "never sit with a statistician or commit a social science" since they wreak such travail on all associated with the project. Nonetheless their compulsion to categorize is encouraged by those with understandable curiosity about the state of the field and often useful comparative data emerges from these efforts. Amidst the seemingly endless hours of collating, programming, and content-analyzing, they do have an occasional moment of perspective. Ours came from one instructor who upon receiving the seventeen page, 100-item questionnaire, simply wrote "Theatre of the Absurd" and returned it postpaid. Though this gentleman undoubtedly expressed a sentiment shared by a number of individuals, we did receive a very high rate of return (60%) from the total population of 488 Minnesota High Schools. To all who did complete and return this comprehensive survey with many equally creative comments, we wish to express our very genuine thanks. These collaborative efforts produced a great deal of interesting data which invites study for months to come. Compared with a similar survey conducted in 1958,¹ Minnesota speech-educators probably have a better picture of program evolution in the last fifteen years than any other state. These two surveys together with research into the status of other state programs during this period provides the data base and warrant for generalizations which follow. They will of necessity be selective and based primarily on the experiences of larger schools with presumably richer and more innovative curricular and co-curricular programs.²

In examining Minnesota Speech Education: Review and Prospect, I would first like to examine a few major generalizations about our field which I obtained from this survey, before proceeding to some recommendations which seem appropriate to this analysis. A more detailed report of all findings will appear in the pages of future editions of this and other speech journals.

The first two generalizations are clearly positive and answer two frequently voiced questions about the status of Minnesota Programs.

General Status. What is the comparative status of programs in Minnesota relative to programs in other states? The general answer is "good". By examining Brook's³ analysis of 16 states prior to 1969, plus four others including two surveys completed since 1970⁴, it is apparent by three key indices, the percentage of schools offering speech courses, the rigor of certification standards, and the strength of co-curricular programs, that Minnesota is at or near the top compared to other regions. To cite one aspect, Brooks reports that in general the percentage of American high schools offering speech for credit had increased to approximately 50% in the late fifties and to 80-90% in the late sixties. The 1958 Minnesota study reported 60% of our schools offering speech for credit, the highest percentage of any state reporting in this period. The 1973 survey shows 95% of the larger schools and 83% of all schools offering speech for credit. By this critical indicator, we see that in each era, Minnesota has kept pace with the experiences of other highest-ranked states so that it is probable that some of the following observations and self-criticism will apply equally or to a greater degree to other sections of the United States.

Dr. Roger K. Mosvick is Chairman of the Department of Speech Communication and Dramatic Arts at Macalester College.

Certification Standards. In Minnesota the certification battle is on the way to being won. Our data seems to reflect a general trend throughout the nation towards more comprehensive and appropriate preparatory study. In 1958 it was disturbing to find that only 25% of teachers in the field had Speech/Drama majors. The area of preparation for three fourths of Minnesota Speech/Drama directors was English or Social Studies. Few of these teachers had minors in our field and ninety teachers, approximately twenty-five percent, reported "absolutely no training" in the area of Speech or Drama. At that time the state required a wholly inappropriate and meager 15 credits in English to prepare one to teach speech in secondary systems. Since this time, due to the persistent efforts of members of the Speech Association of Minnesota working with administrators and officials of the state department, standards have been significantly raised, culminating in a strong certification requirement implemented three years ago. The requirement of 30 semester hours in Speech and/or Drama appears to be one of the two or three strongest certification requirements in the United States.⁵ Our data undoubtedly reflects these efforts. In 1973, 86% of the instructors in larger schools responsible for teaching the basic speech course were Speech/Drama majors; 14% of these had advanced degrees in the field. Less than 13% of subject field instructors in the large schools, and 37% of instructors in all schools were found to be English, Social Studies or other types of majors. These data represent a considerable positive shift in fifteen years although room for improvement remains, particularly in the smaller schools where only one-half of subject field instructors had Speech/Drama majors, 44% were English majors. This finding was corroborated by responses to another question concerning their "major field of teaching." Here, whereas 80% of instructors in large schools indicated "speech/drama", only 33% of instructors in smaller schools so categorized their major teaching emphasis with some 55% reporting "English."

While these first two trends seem to be unqualified major gains, some other trends appear to be either sufficiently negative or of such a mixed nature to require cautious interpretation.

Curricular Fragmentation and Curricular Proliferation. There is a clear trend toward an amazing degree of curricular fragmentation within the high school Speech-Drama curriculum; at once a cause for some hope and possibly some alarm. This is a relatively new phenomena of the last 5-7 years which has gone relatively undetected in speech education research. I refer to the massive shift toward restructuring courses around semester (18-week), trimester (12-week), or quarter (9-week) bases. This trend is possibly the most dynamic change uncovered in this survey since it has implications for so many aspects of speech education programs. To illustrate, 15 years ago in Minnesota, 85% of all schools which offered a speech fundamentals course did so for one entire year; today less than 22% of all schools do so. Fifty-one per cent of all schools offer it for a semester, 11% for 12-weeks, and 16% for only 9-weeks.

A concomitant of this shift to semester and trimester courses is the extensive growth of many different courses with multiple sections. While the number of schools offering speech fundamentals and the number of students enrolling in these courses show steady growth, the most dynamic shift is experienced in the advanced courses, illustrated by the following table.

Comparative Data from 1958 and 1973 Surveys
concerning percentages of all schools offering
courses, the average number of sections per course
and the total course enrollment.

Courses	% of schools		ave. no. of sections		total enrollment	
	1958	1973	1958	1973	1958	1973
Speech Fundamentals	60%	83%	1	4.0	7,895	37,480
Argumentation & Debate	9%	24%	1	1.4	260	850
Dramatic Arts	7%	86%?	1	2.6	715	7,821
Small Group Discussion	----	21%	1	3.9	----	3,465
Mass Media	3%	44%	1	4.2	255	10,614

In 1958 approximately 7% of all schools offered one or more courses beyond the basic fundamentals level, primarily in Drama, Radio and Debate. In 1973 approximately 45% of all schools offered courses in one or more of the above areas. Not only are more schools offering more Speech/Drama options, but also the average number of sections per course is expanding rapidly. This last point is best exemplified by data from the larger schools (over 500 students) which report an average of 6-mass media sections, five sections in small group communication and three in drama. One large school with an especially innovative curricula reported offering as many as 30 different related courses with a total of 53-sections!

These trends in expanded total enrollment, course options and number of sections per course are hopeful signs for a number of reasons beyond the sound educational advantage of offering more options to the student. Offering a greater variety of courses for shorter periods of time obviates part of the ongoing debate concerning the basics course, i.e. whether to survey everything or develop certain areas in greater depth. Then, too, the existence of these courses permits many high schools to offer them as electives within the English department under the title of "oral English" thereby fulfilling college entrance requirements for three years of instruction in English.

However, this curricular explosion raises at least one predictable question: how well are these new courses being staffed, structured and instructed? One wonders whether two instructors can profitably design and staff as many as ten drama courses ranging from basic stagecraft to such specialized courses as mime, puppetry and protest drama.

Since the 1973 survey did not examine these questions directly any inferences are necessarily speculative but some data underline the need to pursue these issues. For example, in the area of mass media, an area experiencing the largest growth in enrollments and courses since 1958, we find certification data running directly counter to certification trends in the other course areas. Nearly 60% of those responsible for instructing the mass media course are English majors, only 32% are Speech/Drama majors. Given this type of preparation one might suspect that these courses would reflect a dominant "print" vs "electronic media" bias, a literary rather than a rhetorical or public communication emphasis. On one hand experimenting with new courses constitutes an invigorating curricular breath which follows the recent broadening compass of our field. On the other hand the question of quality of instruction and appropriate preparation require some vigilance as do tendencies toward cooptation or re-ingestration of our field by English. It is important to stake and defend rightful claims to this burgeoning area or risk further dislocation of our mission to secondary education.

Programatic Impact, a Minority Emphasis. Traditionally the impact of our discipline has been measured by two factors; the percentage of schools offering and/or requiring an accredited speech course, and the percentage of total student population exposed to one or more courses or co-curricular activities.

A positive trend is revealed in the rise of the number of schools requiring a speech course for graduation, from 1% in 1958 to 36% in 1973. This figure is substantially

above the average of from 10-25% reported in other states. It is also heartening to note the rise from 60% to 83% of schools offering an accredited speech course but this figure cannot be confused with the best test of disciplinary impact, the percentage of all students exposed to one or more Speech/Drama courses. In 1958 we found approximately 6% of the total student population reported to be enrolled in at least one course in our field. In 1973 we found that 29% were so enrolled, an apparent significant increase. However, this 5-fold gain is promptly halved when one recognizes that the 1958 figures refer essentially to *year length* courses whereas the 1973 figures refer predominantly to courses of *18-weeks* or less. For further perspective one might compare to the field of English which typically enrolls 100% of the student body for 5-6 semesters. This approach obtains an impact ratio of nearly 10 to 1 in the exposure of students to English courses as compared to Speech/Drama courses in Minnesota High Schools.

Statistics on growth in student involvement in co-curricular activities over the last fifteen years are inferential and possibly spurious since survey queries in this area were not equivalent. In 1958 the actual reported participation of students as a percentage of student population was one-tenth of a percent in debate, nearly one percent in forensics and over 1% in dramatics. In 1973 faculty estimates of student participation over a 3-year period averaged 2% in debate, 12% in forensics and 30% in dramatic activities. This estimate is probably exaggerated in general as evidenced by one check with actual participation in forensics for a one year period which indicated approximately the same percentage of students engaged in that activity as in the 1958 period. The one area of exception is debate which shows a decline during this fifteen year period in both percentage of students enrolled in regular classes and in percentage of students engaged in interscholastic competition.

Exposure to co-curricular activities remains at best a marginal and supplementary test of programmatic impact due to the nature of these activities. Such exposure is often highly specialized, lacks continuity and is unusually uninformed by theoretical concepts underlying the activity. Reported growth of pupil involvement in co-curricular activities sometimes obscures this point. For example, last year the Minnesota State High School League reported a 10% gain in the number of pupils involved in state-wide forensic contests. However, we must remind ourselves that this figure refers to students involved in one narrow activity, e.g. Dramatic Prose Interpretation, for a relatively short period of time.

In sum we have seen that the general status of Minnesota speech education programs compared to those of other states is generally excellent in terms of percentage of schools offering accredited courses, percentage of schools requiring a basic course for graduation, and in terms of standards of teacher preparation. We have noted that in fifteen years there has been a striking degree of curricular proliferation which has broadened, diversified and invigorated our field consequently encouraging higher enrollments. Despite these healthy trends, speech communications and dramatic arts in Minnesota high schools remains a minority emphasis within the total school program. Our courses remain elective subjects to which a relatively small portion of each student body is exposed. Student exposure to co-curricular activities shows some gains but remains a poor test of programmatic impact. In Minnesota as throughout the nation a high percentage of high school students receive little or no qualified speech training and we have much unfinished business before us in the years to come.

FOOTNOTES

- 1 Roger K. Mosvick, "The Status of Speech Education in Minnesota High Schools", *Minnesota State High School League Bulletin*, 32, No. 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 (Dec. 1957 - April 1958).
- 2 Data Interpretation. The 1958 survey of grades 10-12 received a return rate of approximately 70% including 95% of the larger schools with secondary populations over 500 students. The 1973 survey received a return rate in grades 10-12 of 63% of the total universe of 488 public Minnesota high schools. Larger schools, again defined as having enrollments over 500 students in grades 10-12 produced a return rate of 85% (102 out of 120 schools in this category). Smaller schools with enrollments under 500 students returned at a rate of 55% (203 out of 368 schools in this category). These responses were evenly representative of all districts and regions, urban and rural areas of the state so that one might reasonably generalize conclusions to the entire state.
- 3 William D. Brooks, "The Status of Speech in Secondary Schools: A Summary of State Studies", *The Speech Teacher*, Vol. XVIII, (Nov. 1969), pp. 76-281.
- 4 Richard A. Sinzinger, "Speech Programs in Massachusetts High Schools", *The Speech Teacher*, 18 (Sept. 1969) pp. 213-216; Bobby R. Patton and David Cropp, "A Survey of Speech Activities in Secondary Schools in Kansas, 1969-70", *Central States Speech Journal*, 21 (Fall 1970), pp. 191-195; Ronald L. Applebaum and Ellis R. Hays, "Speech Education in California Public Schools: Implications for Teacher Preparation and Curriculum Trends", *Western Speech*, 35 (Winter 1971), pp. 56-62; Susan D. Carrel and Charles R. Petrie, "The Status of Speech Education in New York Public Senior High Schools, 1972-73", *Today's Speech*, 22 (Spring 1974), pp. 39-50.
- 5 William C. Davison, "A Summary of State Certification Standards in Speech, Communication, Speech-Communication, and Speech and Drama", *Long Range Goals and Priorities in Speech Communication* ed. by Robert C. Jeffrey and William Work, (July 12-14, 1973), pp. 97-102.

THE SPIRIT OF SEDALIA

Scott Nobles

On September 1-6, 1974, the Task Force Assembly of the National Development Conference on Forensics convened and deliberated at a remote Catholic "retreat house" in Sedalia, Colorado. This group of twenty-nine forensic teachers had been carefully selected to represent broad geographical areas, academic levels from secondary through four year colleges, institutions and programs of various sizes, differing emphases regarding debate and individual speech events, and varying forensic philosophies and teaching methods. The conference responded to a widely-felt need to assess collectively the strengths and weaknesses of contemporary forensic education, and it followed the general precedent of two other sub-groups in the speech-communication discipline which had conducted productive summer conferences. Financial support was provided by a modest grant from the Axe-Houghton Foundation and a more modest allocation from the American Forensic Association.

By the end of the Sedalia Conference, the participants were so stimulated by their five days of discussion, pleased with the number and substance of resolutions adopted, dedicated to constructive change, and optimistic about the future of forensic education, that participants and non-participants alike have since referred to this gestalt of attitudes as "the spirit of Sedalia." As a member of that conference, as President of the American Forensic Association, the organization most responsible for implementing conference recommendations, and as a firm supporter but very frequent critic of forensic education for over twenty-five years, I am interested in critical assessment of the impact of the Sedalia Conference and in speculation about the duration of the "spirit of Sedalia." I have, therefore, accepted readily the editor's invitation to conduct such critical speculation in the pages of this journal.

I entered the National Development Conference, as did apparently a number of other participants, with a mixture of guarded optimism and reflex skepticism. Those who regularly attend professional conventions will recall the frequent occasions upon which convention enthusiasm for constructive criticism has been lost in the return to business as usual and the reform impulse is scarce remembered.

Optimism about this particular conference was fueled early by the careful preparation done by the planning committee assembled by George Ziegelmueller, Conference Director. Both the delegate selection process and the assigned essays, consisting of fourteen position papers and twenty-one response papers, created confidence. These papers had been circulated among the participants through the summer months, and the willingness of position papers to delve into controversial areas, combined with the readiness of response papers to take issue, boded well for hours of searching discussion and frank and open debate. Still, reservations remained, several of which seemed important enough to be underlined in the opening address which I had been invited to present to the Development Conference. Viewed against the backdrop of my personal value judgments about what constitutes excellence in forensic education, a study of the position papers and of the participants' pre-conference responses to a battery of questionnaires led me to identify five possible problem areas for the Conference: (1) excessive defensiveness toward

Professor Scott Nobles is Director of Forensics at Macalester College and the current President of the American Forensic Association.

criticism; (2) inadequate emphasis upon audience-centered forensic activities; (3) insufficient stress upon our primary role as teachers of students; (4) insufficient stress upon a close relationship between forensics and the broader speech-communication discipline; and (5) too ready acceptance of a narrow range of forensic experiences for students.

In some of these areas, I am pleased to report that I had either exaggerated the potential problems or the conferees took them very seriously and resolved them constructively. As one studies the resolutions approved by the Development Conference, it becomes clear, for example, that the Conference responded well to criticisms of present forensic programs and practices. Participants demonstrated genuine concern about criticisms frequently voiced by educators, including many in speech-communication; they introduced and debated criticisms of their own; and they enacted a number of resolutions clearly designed to upgrade forensic education. It is not feasible here to recount each, or even most, of the sixty conference resolutions as evidence of the constructive attitudes and actions of Conference participants, nor have they yet been released for official publication. Allow me instead to cite four paragraphs from the excellent post-conference report provided by George Ziegelmueller for the AFA Convention in December, 1974. Under the heading "Selected Issues and Recommendations," Professor Ziegelmueller summarizes as follows:

An initial problem confronting Conference participants was the definition and delineation of forensics. At first, some Conference members wanted to draft a definition listing the contest activities customarily grouped under the term "forensics". Ultimately it was decided to focus on a definition which neither automatically included nor automatically excluded any competitive event, but instead designated a perspective from which to study communication. Thus, the Conference agreed that: "Forensics is an educational activity primarily concerned with using an argumentative perspective in examining problems and communicating with people. An argumentative perspective on communication involves the study of reason-giving by people as justification for acts, beliefs, attitudes, and values. Forensics activities, from this perspective, are laboratories for helping students to understand and communicate various forms of argument effectively in a variety of contexts to a variety of audiences."

A second fundamental issue addressed by the Conference was the question of the proper departmental base for argumentation and forensics. The Conference recognized that in individual cases this question is often resolved by peculiar local and institutional factors. Nevertheless, it unanimously accepted the idea that, because of strong historical and conceptual ties, forensics education properly belongs in departments of speech-communication. In order to provide for a mutually supportive relationship between departments of speech-communication and forensics educators, the Conference approved a number of specific recommendations. It called upon graduate departments of speech-communication to offer supervised instruction for future forensic directors and to offer course work and research opportunity in advanced argumentation theory and public decision-making. It asked all departments of speech-communication to seek full, continuous, and predictable funding of forensics programs and to recognize the direction of forensics as a regular teaching function. Individual forensics educators were encouraged to recognize both the rhetorical and dialectical dimensions of their work and to accept an obligation to contribute to the scholarship of the speech-communication discipline.

Concern about the future of a number of current forensics practices was expressed by many Conference participants. While the Conference endorsed efforts to establish codes of conduct and rules of procedure, it placed greater emphasis on the restructuring of forensics situations as a means of positively influencing practices. In order to encourage sound analysis and to discourage strategic approaches, three specific changes in the forensics scene were recommended: (1) the issuance of a statement of explanation by the topic selection committee, (2) the establishment of a series of early season seminars on the meaning of the year's debate resolution, and (3) the utilization of a system of pre-tournament case disclosure. In order to stimulate a better understanding of non-policy propositions, the use of these kinds of propositions in tournament situations was endorsed. The Conference also recommended that the National Debate Tournament immediately adopt the cross-examination format, and that other regional and national tournaments use a wider variety of formats. Several resolutions recognized the need for a less passive role on the part of the critic judges: greater use of oral critiques was called for; experimentation with judge's feedback during a round of debate was approved; and judges were asked to treat questions of forensic theory and strategy as arguable matters to be resolved in the debate through the process of argumentation.

Conference participants believed that the individual forensics director is the primary determinant of the quality and philosophy of a forensic program. They, therefore, established minimum preparation standards for the forensics educators. While the minimum standards which were endorsed differed according to the educational level, they all required at least (1) a major or minor in speech communication, (2) formal course work in argumentation — and preferably an additional course in the methods of directing forensics, and (3) undergraduate experience in forensics.

As this partial summary indicates, several resolutions responded to common criticisms, among them resolutions dealing with topicality interpretation, variety in propositions, variety in formats, and oral criticisms. The reader will notice, too, a reaffirmation of close disciplinary and departmental ties to the study of speech-communication, accompanied by a number of implementing proposals. Another resolution, one not reported in the Ziegelmueller summary, reflected the tenor of much of the group's deliberation by urging that forensic directors consider *teaching* their primary role and *students* their primary concern. In only two of the potential problem areas cited at the Development Conference opening session was this undoubtedly subjective observer disappointed. Despite language in one of more resolutions which alluded to "varied audiences" and to "varied forensic experiences," I was left with the feeling that too little encouragement toward (and I would have preferred *insistence upon*) public audience forensic activities had occurred. Also evident, it seemed to me, was a tendency to accept too easily programs which emphasized only one type of forensic experience to the neglect of others. This attitude was probably representative of the broad forensic community, so many of our institutional programs emphasizing as they do only tournament debate or only individual events, but stronger encouragement toward a wider range of activities for each program and each student might have resulted in fuller and more realistic rhetorical training. Such disappointments were minor; they dealt only with degrees of emphasis; and they were based upon specific value judgment. Despite such lesser reservations, I shared the general enthusiasm for the attitudes and accomplishments of the National Development Conference on Forensics, and I considered myself fully imbued with the "spirit of Sedalia."

Conferences and resolutions accomplish little or nothing, however, unless they change attitudes and improve programs. The ultimate worth of the Sedalia Conference will depend upon broad dissemination and faithful implementation of its recommendations by national and regional forensic organizations and by individual teachers and program directors. Some encouraging progress has been made and more is underway. At the December, 1974 AFA meetings, much of the discussion and many of the action proposals centered around Conference follow-up measures. Each AFA committee has been asked to study the summaries of the Sedalia resolutions and to take action in areas deemed appropriate to its function. Already the National Debate Tournament Committee has initiated cross examination debating into its 1976 tournament; the newly-formed Legal Communication Committee is devising contest formats for legal argumentation; the Intercollegiate Discussion and Debate Committee is issuing explanatory statements for the debate topics presented for annual selection, and it is considering value propositions among its options; the Educational Practices Committee is working with the High School Affairs Committee on guidelines for summer speech and debate institutes; the Research Committee is commissioning research designed to measure the effectiveness of teaching argumentation, debate, and other forensic skills; the Individual Events Committee is attempting to promote greater student interest and to provide educational and procedural guidelines for each contest; and the list could continue. The SCA Forensic Division is also disseminating information and promoting implementing actions, and it is expected that other organizations, including Delta Sigma Rho-Tau Kappa Alpha, Pi Kappa Delta, Phi Rho Pi, and the National Forensics League, will consider follow-up procedures when their national conferences are held in the coming months.

The Sedalia Conference has already stimulated discussion and action; its potential for upgrading forensic research, forensic theory, forensic pedagogy and forensic practice is presently high. That potential should receive added stimulus when the complete report of the Conference is published by National Textbook Corporation in September of this year. Ultimately, however, it will be up to individual forensic teachers to join and sustain organizational efforts toward improvement and reinvigoration of forensic education.

The "spirit of Sedalia" is to some forensic teachers a most happy metaphor, but the implementation of the recommendations of the National Development Conference on Forensics is a very literal and concrete challenge to all teachers and all students in the forensic community.

COLLECTIVE BARGAINING AND EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

Robert S. Reed

Collective bargaining has been part of the teacher-school board relationship, in one form or another, for many years. However, it has been the last several years which have seen the most advances toward a formal bargaining relationship. One of the areas which is receiving more attention as bargaining becomes more formalized is compensation for extra- or co-curricular activities.

This article will discuss two major problems that exist in this area. First, the lack of bargaining power, and secondly, determining compensation.

The number of teachers affected directly by extra-curricular activities generally is about 25 to 30% of the bargaining unit. This diminishes the bargaining power of the exclusive representative. The school board knows that this area does not affect a majority of teachers and that it is possible that the exclusive representative will not have the membership backing to strongly push its position.

There are several methods of dealing with this problem. The exclusive representative can develop a strong "one for all and all for one" attitude in its membership with regard to collective bargaining. Items in the contract which affect all members of the unit can be delayed until extra-curricular salaries are agreed to. Extra-curricular activities can be made voluntary on the part of the teacher. This places the burden on the school board to set salaries high enough to attract teachers to take positions. Finally, extra-curricular salaries can be tied by ratio to the basic salary schedule.

The other major problem is the determination of salaries for extra-curricular activities. The question of fair and equitable compensation for extra-curricular activities has not been examined closely by school districts and teachers. The patterns that exist are primarily based on tradition and past practice. The problem of sex discrimination which has come to the forefront in recent years, will cause a much closer examination of this question.

Following are examples of extra-curricular pay schedules presently in effect in Minnesota schools.

Example 1:

PAYMENT FOR EXTRA-CURRICULAR ASSIGNMENTS

Payment for extra-curricular assignments hereinafter stated shall be at the percentage indicated applied to the base pay of the teacher concerned.

Dr. Robert S. Reed is Director, Research-Negotiations for the Minnesota Education Association.

•*Group I*
 Head Football
 Head Basketball
 Wrestling Head
 Athletic Director

•*Group II*
 Asst. Football
 Asst. Basketball
 Asst. Wrestling
 Head Track
 Head Baseball
 Head Golf
 Head Tennis
 Debate
 Student Council,
 Sr. High
 Equipment Manager,
 Jr. & Sr. High
 Director, Musical
 Director, Extra-
 Curricular, Band

•*Group III*
 Annual
 Cross Country
 Asst. Baseball
 Asst. Track
 Jr. High Debate
 Director, Full
 Length Play
 Musical Director
 Asst. Musical Dir.
 Head Coach for each
 girl's Inter-
 scholastic Sport

•*Group IV*
 Jr. High Football
 Jr. High Basketball
 Jr. High Wrestling
 School Newspaper
 GAA Sr. High
 Cheerleaders (9-12)
 Asst. Director
 Full Length Play
 Musical Choreographer
 Asst. Girls' Volleyball
 Tech. Dir., Musical

•*Group V*
 Jr. High Track
 Jr. High Baseball
 Jr. High Tennis
 Jr. High Golf
 Ticket Manager
 Head Declamation
 FHA Advisor
 GAA Jr. High
 Program Publications
 Girls' Gymnastic
 Coach, Jr. & Sr.
 High
 Asst. Track, Girls

•*Group VI*
 One Act Play Director
 Asst. Declamation
 Jr. High Declamation
 Jr. Class Advisor
 Pep Club
 Cheerleaders (7-8)
 NHS Advisor

<u>Group</u>	<u>0-2 Years Experience</u>	<u>3-6 Years Experience</u>	<u>7 or more Years Experience</u>
Group I	13%	15%	17%
Group II (2/3 of Gr. I)	8.67%	10%	11.32%
Group III (1/2 of Gr. I)	6.5%	7.5%	8.5%
Group IV (45/100 of Gr. I)	5.85%	6.75%	7.65%
Group V (4/10 of Gr. I)	5.2%	6%	6.8%
Group VI (3/10 of Gr. I)	3.9%	4.5%	5.1%

Groups are reimbursed using the above percentage table applied against the base at the BA level.

Example 2:

EXTRA-CURRICULAR SALARY SCHEDULE

1974-75

Philosophy

There are many intrinsic values that may be derived from a comprehensive extra-curricular program. Such a program provides the student with an opportunity to extend his interests and abilities beyond the academic environment of the classroom.

The extra-curricular salary schedule is based upon an index number and a base unit of pay. The purpose of this method is to provide a more equitable method for determining the salary for extra curricular activities.

Definition of Terms

I. Index

A. The index is a number established by evaluating a specific activity in light of the following criteria:

1. Prior salaries
2. Comparative salaries in the schools of the Suburban Conference
3. The number of hours spent in a given activity
4. The number of students supervised
5. Administrative duties
6. Pressure (community interest, injuries, etc.)

B. Reasons for the Index

1. Simplicity - to ease computation and interpretation of the extra-curricular salary schedule
2. Equity - to insure that all measurable criteria are included in extra-curricular salary determination

II. Base Unit of Pay

A. Definition - a number that reflects the dollar value of one unit of the index. The base unit of pay has been set at \$45.00 for 1974-75

B. Example - Head Football Coach

1. The recommended index for the Head Football Coach is 40; therefore, (40 X the base unit of pay \$45.00) equals the salary of \$1,800.00 for 1974-75

III. Experience Factor

A. Experience Outside of the School District

1. Personnel with 0-3 years of experience will be hired at 90% of the established index the first year; at 95% of the established index the second year; and at 100% of the established index the third year.
2. Personnel with 4 or more years of experience will be hired at 95% of the established index the first year and at 100% of the established index the second year.

B. Experience Within the School District

1. Personnel with 0-3 years of experience will be hired at 90% of the established index the first year; at 95% of the established index the second year; and at 100% of the established index the third year.

2. Personnel with 4 or more years of experience will be hired at 95% of the established index the first year and at 100% of the established index the second year.

Activity	No. of Weeks	Index X \$45.00
Jr. High AV	39	15
<i>Band</i>	39	
Elementary Band		5
Jr. High Band		6
Marching Band		5.50
Sr. High Band		12
Cheerleaders Adv.	39	8
Chess Club Adv.	39	8
<i>Choir</i>	39	
Jr. High		6
Jr. High		6
Sr. High		12
<i>Debate and NFL</i>	18	
Jr. High		10
Sr. High		
NFL		6
Head Coach		24
Asst. Varsity		16
Asst. Sophomore		14
<i>Declamation</i>	18	
Head		15.50
Asst.		10.50
<i>Newspaper Adv.</i>	39	
Sr. High		19
Jr. High		12
<i>Patrol Supervisors</i>	39	
1 for each elem		11
<i>Plays</i>		
One Act Play Sr. High		7.50
Three Act Plays		
No. 1		11
No. 2		11
Stage Manager		
No. 1		4
No. 2		4
No. 3		4
For Other Activities		
Besides Plays	39	5
<i>Photographer</i>	39	
Head Photographer		18
<i>Sr. High Yearbook</i>	39	
Supervisor		23
Business Manager		7

Example 3:

17.042

Compensation Schedule.

17.0421

Philosophy. Compensation for the performance of athletic activities will be based on the concept of continuous experience with the EMPLOYER.

- 17.0422 Structure. Personnel will be compensated based on length of continuous experience with the EMPLOYER according to an Athletic Coaching Activity assignment and the following experience increments.
- (a) First year of coaching.
 - (b) Second through the sixth year of coaching.
 - (c) Seventh through the eleventh year of coaching or seven or more years of coaching.
 - (d) Twelve or more years of coaching.

17.0423 Compensation

ATHLETIC ACTIVITY	YEARS OF CONTINUOUS COACHING EXPERIENCE			
	1st.	2-6	7-11	12 & Over
<i>Head Coach</i>				
Basketball	1885	1925	1960	1990
Football	1887	1920	1950	1985
Hockey	1695	1740	1770	1800
Wrestling	1650	1695	1725	1760
Swimming	1650	1695	1725	1760
Track	1425	1465	1500	1530
Baseball	1425	1465	1500	1530
Gymnastics	1425	1465	1500	1530
Soccer	1035	1075	1110	1140
Cross Country	970	1015	1045	1075
Skiing	970	1015	1045	1075
Tennis	760	800	830	865
Golf	760	800	830	865
<i>Head Coach, Girls</i>				
Swimming	1070	1110	1145	1175
Track and Field	1070	1110	1145	1175
Gymnastics	1070	1110	1145	1175
Volleyball	1070	1110	1145	1175
Tennis	760	800	830	865
Slalom Skiing	760	800	830	865
Cross Country Skiing	760	800	830	865

17.043 Teachers assigned to and performing the following extra-curricular activities shall be compensated as follows:

Yearbook Advisors - Art, Makeup, Editorial, Write-up, and Business	\$1,430
Sr. High Newspaper Advisor	1,100
Plays (3 Act) Per Play	605
Debate Coach	1,020
Asst. Debate Coach	330
Jr. High Debate	275
Jr. High Drama (per hour)	5.50
Cavaliers	360
Cavalettes	360
Sr. High GAA	330
Jr. High GAA	385
Jr. Class Advisor	140
Sr. Class Advisor	165

Sophomore Class Advisor	55
Band Director	935
Pep Club	360
Warriorettes	360
Lindy's	360
Pom Pom Girl Advisor	275
Cheerleader Advisor	440
Art Club	110
AFS Club	440
Reading Consultant	440
Little Theater Director	660
Driver Training Coordinator	1,000
Driver Training Coordinator	1,250
Intramural Supervision (per hour)	5.50
Declamation	275
Radio Club (per hour)	5.50
Computer Supervisor	605
Supervisor After School Swimming	330
Student Council Advisor	440
Ticket Takers (per hour)	5.50
Ticket Sellers (per hour)	5.50
Announcers (per hour)	5.50
Time Keepers (per hour)	5.50

Example 4:

Senior High Activity Program Salary Schedule
1974-75

<i>Assignment</i>		<i>Assignment</i>	
Boys Athletics		Music	
Baseball, Head	\$1470	Concert Band Director	\$ 160
Baseball, Asst.	1134	Varsity Band Director	1200
Basketball, Head	1932	Varsity Band Asst. Dir.	270
Basketball, Asst. (2)	1470	Oriole Band Director	80
Football, Head	1932	Orchestra Director	210
Football, Asst (2)	1470	Vocal Music Director	763
Football, Jr. Varsity	1344		
Football, Sophomore (2)	1344	Girls Athletics - Intramural,	
Gymnastics, Head	1596	Extramural	
Gymnastics, Asst.	1218	Gymnastics	252
Hockey, Head	1764	Softball	252
Hockey, Asst.	1302	Special Events	598
Soccer, Head	1470	Cross Country, Head	924
Soccer, Asst. (2)	1134	Cross Country, Asst.	714
Swimming, Head	1596	Golf, Head	756
Swimming, Asst. (2)	1218	Golf, Asst.	546
Tennis, Head	924	Skiing, Head	924
Tennis, Asst.	714	Skiing, Asst. (2)	714
Track, Head	1470		
Track, Asst. (3)	1134	Other	
Wrestling, Head	1596	Club Sponsor (14)	252
Wrestling, Asst.	1218	Concessions Manager	980
Equipment Manager	1596	Literary Magazine Advisor	582
		Student Council Advisor	850
		Surfbelles	850

Girls Athletic Interscholastic		Dramatics and Speech	
Basketball	715	3 One Act Plays, Director	504
Cheerleader Advisor	665	2 One Act Plays & 1 Choral	504
Gymnastics, Head	1300	Reading - Director	
Gymnastics, Asst.	975		
Speed Swim	950		
Synchronized Swimming	1096	Fall Play Director	504
Tennis, Head	696	Winter Play Director	504
Tennis, Asst.	522	Spring Play Director	504
Track and Field, Head	1200	Drama Festival Play Dir.	294
Track and Field, Asst.	900	Musical Production Dir.	840
Volleyball	715	Technical Director	800
		Debate Coach, Head	966
		Debate Coach, Asst.	630

*The four examples listed above were compiled from four different contracts within the state.

The foregoing examples point out the wide range of practices in extra-curricular pay. Before a fair and equitable system can be developed, it will be necessary for school districts to define the role of extra-curricular activities within the total school program. Is an extra-curricular program as important as an academic program? If it is, should extra-curricular activities be treated only as additional assignments rather than a primary assignment?

The refinement of the collective bargaining process in public schools will require a much closer examination of extra-curricular activities. Teachers with extra-curricular activities must make their voices heard by the parties at the bargaining table.

NEGOTIATION: AN OPPORTUNITY FOR SPEECH SCHOLARS

Constance M. Weimer

Negotiation is a prominent method of resolving conflict non-violently. One of the major uses of negotiation is settling differences between employers and employees. Since the passage of the Wagner Act in 1935, the government has actively encouraged the use of collective bargaining for joint management-employee determination of the "wages, hours and other conditions of employment." Issues are settled during the "give and take" of negotiations. Decisions by the National Labor Relations Board and the courts provide explanations and guidelines for promoting industrial peace.

More recently, the practice of collective bargaining is rapidly expanding in the public sector. Maskow describes this trend in education:

Public education is one of the most rapidly developing sectors of public employee collective bargaining in the United States. Prior to 1962, no board of education in the United States was required by law to negotiate with its teachers, and only a handful of boards of education had signed written collective bargaining agreements. By early 1969, however, dramatic changes had taken place. Twelve states had passed laws requiring school boards to engage in some kind of negotiation with their teachers and over 1,500 boards had some type of written negotiation procedure.¹

Variations in state laws regulate the process and substance of collective bargaining. The Public Employees Labor Relations Act passed by the Minnesota State Legislature in 1971 encourages and guides public employees and employers to resolve their differences with the aid of meaningful negotiations.

Research results identify several factors that influence the outcome of collective bargaining. Many studies focus on the economic, political and environmental variables that determine the basic power relationships of the parties. Others, however, hypothesize that bargainers' skills are essential and therefore concentrate on the strategy and tactics employed in the process of negotiation. One researcher, Chester Karrass, suggests, "We who negotiate can learn much from those whose profession is to persuade."²

The following is an attempt to explore the relevance of negotiator's communication skills and their possible effects on the outcome of the negotiation process. If communication does indeed play a significant role in the negotiations, the individuals with speech-communication training and experience can make important contributions by integrating principles from several fields to facilitate the effectiveness of the collective bargaining process itself.

Several authors utilize the analytical framework Walton and McKersie pioneered to clarify four sub-processes of activity during labor negotiations. *Distributive Bargaining* involves the allocation of resources where the one party's gain is the other

Ms. Constance M. Weimer is a former high school teacher of speech, debate, theatre arts and government, and is currently working for a Masters of Arts Degree in Industrial Relations at the University of Minnesota.

party's loss. Karrass labels this "share bargaining" and explains that it is concerned with issues involving the "division" of money, property, power or status — a rationing process. *Integrative Bargaining* is important in meeting mutual objectives that are of common concern to the parties and promises a "shared" benefit to both parties. Karrass suggests the label "problem solving" for this joint assistance process. These two decision-making features pertain to economic issues and the rights and obligations of the parties. *Attitudinal Structuring* is a function of negotiation aimed at influencing the relationships between parties. Interaction is structured to produce desired attitudinal change affecting the relationship between the two parties. *Intra-Organizational Bargaining*, labeled "in-group negotiation" by Karrass, are those actions designed to reach consensus within the employee organization and the management/administration team. It is an attempt to bring the expectations of organizational members into alignment with those of the chief negotiator.³

These distinctions are helpful in understanding the stages of collective bargaining which divide into preparation for negotiation and the negotiation process itself. In *Collective Bargaining, a Worker's Manual*, the first stage is defined:

Before the bargaining conference begins, each side holds meetings to work out its attitude, draft the terms of its demands, and decide, so far as possible, the limit of the concessions it is prepared to make.⁴

During this intra-organizational bargaining, the parties must plan strategy, formulate demands, and prepare for potential concessions. Each party must determine its initial bargaining position (nominal position) that they will demand; their target point (preferred settlement); and resistance point (real position or minimum disposition)⁵ where they "dig their heels IN" and accept a strike rather than accept the offer. These positions are represented in the following diagram:

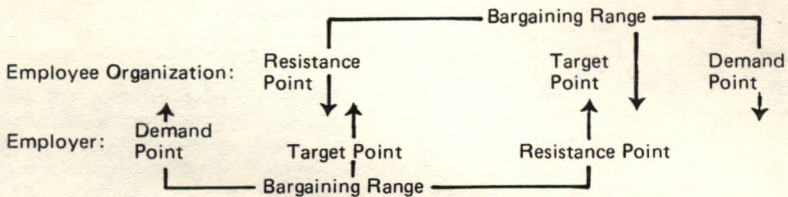


Chart of a Distributive Bargaining Situation - Peter Warr⁶

Knowledge of communication theories and the communication skills of speech faculty members appear relevant for this process. Understanding of the complexities of the task and social dimensions of small group discussion is essential to improved, productive sessions. Familiarity with Dewey's "reflective thinking" process of goal definition, information sharing, generation of alternatives and evaluation of advantages and disadvantages serve as a basis for rational decision-making.

An understanding of the implications of group dynamics may aid members to build and maintain cohesiveness. A discerning, flexible participant who is also aware of role developments may mold role specialization with appropriate reinforcement behaviors. Accurate perceptions of interpersonal relationships and adaptive behaviors may serve to encourage effective interaction and productive efforts toward task completion. Furthermore, an individual aware of Bormann's suggestions in *Workbook for Work Groups* may more effectively provide leadership and mobilize forces by introducing and formulating goals and procedures, eliciting participation, delegating and directing activities, and finally integrating and summarizing progress. Such skills

require a wealth of information.⁷ Tripp reports recent efforts that support this observation:

Elaborate preparations have been made by both unions and managements, involving research and accumulation of continuing data on relevant events and trends. To the extent that both parties are well informed, it may be expected that factual bargaining will have its own merits of persuasion and its appropriate place in the entire process. ⁸

Students of communication realize that inquiry precedes advocacy. Advocates have learned to establish reliable contentions through the use of evidence and reason. To make arguments compelling, a persuader must locate and carefully structure factual and authoritative proofs. The negotiator's ability to identify supporting data and the experience to conduct extensive research in preparation of speeches, discussion and debate will ultimately benefit the entire membership. Byrd emphasizes this crucial element in *Strategy in Labor Relations*:

Basic to all these strategies is the development of the facts and reasoning which the negotiators shall use to support each demand and counter-proposal and to oppose each objectional demand. Because these facts and this reasoning determine in large measure how effective negotiators will be, they are of the utmost importance.⁹

The parties initiate attitudinal structuring during the "in-group" preparation period when another aspect of message preparation — "audience analysis" — is applied to one's opponents. Adept communicators are able to read external indicators of their opponents' values, attitudes and positions and therefore develop arguments that will work most effectively. This ability to anticipate positions, based on collected information, may result in stronger initial positions for themselves. Karrass aptly concludes:

An analysis of the opponent's team structure from the standpoint of audience reaction can facilitate opinion change. Learning and acceptance are improved when a message is tailored for the listener. If a message fails to take account of the social forces at work, or of the facts, methods, goals, and values of the audience, it is likely to fall on deaf ears.¹⁰

In addition to facilitating strategic persuasive methods, these conditioning exercises have an impact on the membership. Although an employee organization seeks to inspire its members by promising improved conditions to promote loyalty and commitment, unrealistic expectations may backfire and commit the negotiator to impossible demands. When the negotiator fails to win them, a strike is often inevitable. Selective information sharing and persuasion will establish a supportive membership that understands, accepts and supports the position of the negotiator.

Clearly, individuals with speech-communication backgrounds are able to make valuable contributions during this preparation stage by promoting effective group discussion procedures that clarify goals, determine priorities, and compromises. Research expertise will also provide support for sound, rationale conclusions. In addition, audience analysis will stimulate appropriate message adaptation. Finally, persuasive techniques will develop realistic expectations to strengthen the position of the negotiator.

The second stage, the actual negotiations between the parties, is an exercise in persuasion:

A man who heads up the bargaining should be one who appreciates the art of communication, who respects the need not only to communicate at the level of facts but also at the level of feelings. He needs patience

and tact, but not too much. He is best if he has disciplined himself to listening, at the same time being somewhat adept at channeling thinking along constructive lines.¹¹

Karrass concluded from his research that the skill of the negotiator is frequently a determining factor on the outcome of negotiations. Of the seven traits he found most important, three of them — planning skill, verbal ability, and the ability to think clearly under stress, — develop with training in speech-communication.¹²

Negotiators may utilize several communication skills during distributive bargaining when each of the parties attempts to slice the pie in its favor. Sessions usually begin with the employee organization presenting a list of demands. Byrd suggests that this gives the employees the advantage of the offensive, since they set the tone of the conference that determines what topics shall be discussed and in what order. He recommends that management control both the “throttle and brakes” during the negotiations so it can emphasize the topics of its own choice, and reword ideas to stress the employer’s perspective. Haven’t negative debate teams been given similar advice and affirmative teams cautioned to resist? He concludes that “he who controls the mechanics of a meeting, can, as every experienced conference leader knows, normally control its outcome.”¹³ Familiarity with maneuvers may also aid in identification of appropriate counter moves. When preparing messages, advocates weigh the strength of ideas and select an appropriate, strategic order of presentation. An effective presentation of demands, therefore, coupled with maneuvers to control the agenda may result in the introduction of the most effective arguments at most opportune times. This strategy will facilitate agreement on difficult issues by beginning the discussion with matters that are less controversial.

In addition to previous choices, communication-conscious individuals should be in a position to handle questioning adeptly. Practice with cross-examination debating and interviewing promotes careful wording of questions and follow-up probes. Efforts to anticipate the questions of opponents likewise will be helpful for determining response positions.

Trotta notes that “the function of a negotiating team is to convince the other side of the soundness of its position, the reasonableness of its demands or counter-demands, and its sincerity in taking a positive position on an issue.”¹⁴ Previous preparation of informative and persuasive messages will be a valuable guide to formulating and delivering ideas in the negotiating setting. Concepts that students of speech have learned are used as suggestions for negotiators, as illustrated by Karrass’ suggestion:

A message that first arouses a need and then provides information to satisfy it is remembered best. However, when a need-arousal message is threatening, the listener has a tendency to reject it.¹⁵

Dramatics is another aspect of negotiation that experts refer to frequently. Trotta explains:

Experienced negotiators understand that at the negotiation sessions that members of the teams play roles. The sessions permit each individual to be an actor and the setting is a stage. The audience consists of the committee present. This infrequent opportunity to make speeches, emote, swear, argue and be recognized as a spokesman, a leader, is all part of the negotiation process.¹⁶

Anyone with experience in theatre and has a clear idea of how roles develop and emerge and are reinforced during discussion, should be in a good position to accurately perceive the roles others are playing and portray convincing characterizations themselves.

Non-verbal communication is another aspect of communication that is frequently emphasized for subtly influencing the negotiation process. The skills of interpersonal

communication can prove valuable, especially the sensitivity to non-verbal cues. The ability to recognize feedback and adapt can be of vital importance in noticing the willingness to make concessions and detecting the resistance point of the opponent. Byrd recognizes that "a negotiator should be able to sense and exploit shift in sentiment and temperament on the part of his opponents."¹⁷

Although some of the previously mentioned techniques will be valuable in both types of bargaining, the shift to integrative bargaining requires a change to a more cooperative attitude — a challenging task! The same group process facilitators will be of vital importance as the two parties focus on shared problems and search for mutually beneficial goals. Clear presentation of researched data, appropriate questions to identify the values and feelings of participants, sensitivity to role emergence, careful listening, and educated responses to non-verbal feedback will improve the effectiveness of this aspect of the bargaining process.

Maskow explains the importance of teacher participation in collective bargaining:

The essential point of this discussion of the interrelationship of educational policy, public policy and teacher working conditions is to show that bargaining on certain working conditions may decide policy matters. As the scope of the bargaining increases to these interrelated topics, teachers assume a voice in policy matters, a step that has implications far beyond problems associated with the scope of bargaining in private employment. Teachers also claim that increasing the scope of bargaining to policy areas is another step toward their becoming "true professionals."

Since the process of collective bargaining — throughout the stages of preparation and negotiation — requires intense verbal interaction, communication experts are in a position to influence both the procedures and outcomes of negotiation. In the education field, for example, one may serve as a consultant to the bargaining committee and/or chief negotiator; participate as a committee member; or accept the challenges of serving as spokesperson. Communication students may wisely consider the negotiation field for potential careers. Economics teachers survey and report on vital information; math teachers help compute wage scales; language arts teachers are responsible for informing their peers of procedures and progress through newsletters. Are communication teachers making a contribution to the process? The abilities to plan, to persuade, to manipulate perceptions, to mobilize bias, to analyze power and decision making are valuable resources. If we recognize that bargaining skill is power, communication scholars will create more effective negotiations by applying their skills to enhance their profession.

FOOTNOTES

- 1 Michael H. Moskow, J. Joseph Loerouberg, and Edward Clifford Koziara, *Collective Bargaining in Public Employment* (New York: Random House, Inc., 1970), p. 131.
- 2 Chester L. Karrass, *The Negotiating Game* (Cleveland: The World Publishing Company, 1970), p. 78.
- 3 Richard E. Walton and Robert B. McKersie, *A Behavioral Theory of Labor Negotiations* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1965).
- 4 *Collective Bargaining, A Worker's Manual* (International Labour Office Publication, Geneva, 1960), p. 31.
- 5 Patrick Wayne Dolan, *Minimum Disposition and Negotiation Success* Thesis: M.A., University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, 1972.
- 6 Peter Warr, *Psychology and Collective Bargaining* (London: Hutchinson and Co., LTD, 1973), p. 21.
- 7 Ernest G. Bormann, *Workbook for Work Groups* (Minneapolis: Gordon Press, 1966)
- 8 L. Reed Tripp, *Labor Problems and Processes - A Survey* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1961), p. 256.
- 9 Stephen F. Byrd, *Strategy in Labor Relations* (Waterford, Connecticut: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1963), p. 16.
- 10 Karrass, p. 86.
- 11 Donal G. Pyle, *Collective Bargaining in the Public Service - Theory and Practice*, Kenneth O. Warner, Ed. (Chicago: Public Personnel Assoc., 1967), p. 71.
- 12 Karrass, p. 36.
- 13 Byrd, p. 24.
- 14 Maurice S. Trotta, *Collective Bargaining - Principles, Practices, Issues* (New York: Simmons-Boardman Publishing Corporation, 1961), p. 68.
- 15 Karrass, p. 82.
- 16 Trotta, p. 77.
- 17 Byrd, p. 19.
- 18 Moskow, p. 155.

COLLECTIVE BARGAINING AND ACTIVITY
ASSIGNMENTS FOR SPEECH-THEATRE FACULTY
IN MINNESOTA COMMUNITY COLLEGES

Linda Putnam

Four years ago the Minnesota Community College Faculty Association affiliated with MEA/NEA and entered contract negotiations with the Community College State Board. Unlike collective bargaining at K-12 levels, the exclusive representative of community college faculty must negotiate a contract which governs working conditions, fringe benefits, and salaries for 18 schools that vary in size from 200 to 4,000 students. Discrepancies in college enrollment and in instructional-activity programs are major problems in determining load assignment for instructors. Whereas K-12 schools provide additional compensation for co-curricular activities, community colleges incorporate activity responsibilities into an instructor's teaching assignment. Hence, fair and equitable allocation of release time is a salient issue for activity directors. This article will describe the basis for speech-theatre activity assignments and discuss possible ramifications of collective bargaining in determining activity staffing.

One factor which facilitates the development of speech-theatre programs in community colleges is the state board's belief that activities are an essential and important element within an academic environment. The state purports that each student should have the privilege of participating as a performer or a spectator in the activity of his choice. In fact, several college presidents believe that each student should be involved in at least one activity or club during his community college years.

With this orientation, the state board establishes a minimum or a base level of staffing assignment which varies for each activity but is consistently applied throughout the college system. For instance, the minimum staffing allocation for theatre, based on an average of three productions yearly, is one-half position for each of the 18 community colleges. From this minimum provision, each campus assesses its needs, the size and importance of each program, and allocates additional faculty time to activities which request it. The state board, however, controls the maximum total number of activity positions allotted to each campus. In essence, the minimum and maximum numbers of activity positions for each campus are set by the state board and each college determines how much staffing a particular activity receives. Although the size of the program and the extent an individual campus supports it are the major criteria in assigning activity load, the state also recommends that programs be well-balanced and meet a variety of student needs for different age groups.

The question of fair and equitable load assignment for activity directors is primarily a local or campus decision, although the state board recommends a basis for determining these allocations. At first, a formula of one-hour release time for every two hours of activity contact served as a guideline for load assigned to an activity.

When this formula proved ineffective, administrators based release time on the proportion of an instructor's job devoted to activity responsibilities. According to Banning Hanscom, Assistant to the Chancellor for Student Affairs, the proportion of

Ms. Linda Putnam is an instructor in speech-communications at Normandale Community College. She is an assistant forensics coach and is currently completing requirements for a Ph.D. in speech at the University of Minnesota.

an instructor's activity time differs from college to college, but the following averages represent these allocations:

- Athletics - 25%
- Theatre, Vocal Music, Instrumental Music - 15%
- Forensics, Newspaper and Student Publication - 10%

These percentages translate into credits which, in turn, are subtracted from a full-time instructional load of 45 units. An activity director then has a lighter class load than other instructors. Credit equivalence for the following percentages are:

- 25% = 11.25 credits per year
- 15% = 6.75 credits per year
- 10% = 4.50 credits per year

If a theatre director's annual salary is \$15,000, based on these percentages, he makes \$12,750 for classroom duties and \$2,250 for an activity assignment.

These averages misrepresent the disparity that exists between colleges. In theatre, for example, the percentage of full-time load for a production varies from 9% to 33% and for forensics, from 4% to 26%. Equity in load assignment is not only a problem between campuses but also within each school. Several colleges allocate over 60% of the total number of activity positions to athletics.

Compensation of part-time instructors is another option for staffing activities; however, less than 10% of the community colleges use this alternative. The 1974-75 pay scale for part-time staff assigned to activities is:

1974-75 Part-time Instructor Activity Compensation

<i>Position</i>	<i>Compensation</i>
Men's Head Football	\$1700
Cross Country	600
Men's Head Basketball	1700
Men' Wrestling	1700
Men's Hockey	1700
Men's Baseball	1000
Women's Volleyball	850
Women's Basketball	850
Women's Softball	650
Golf	600
Tennis	600
Cheerleading	250
Theatre - Director	1000
Theatre - Technical	300

Directors of forensics, band, choir, newspaper and yearbook are paid \$100 for one assigned hour per week for one quarter.¹

Recent negotiations between the Community College Board and the Minnesota Community College Faculty Association clarified how activity assignments should be made and emphasized the role of equity in determining these allocations.

Student activity assignments shall be given an equitable credit equivalence on each campus. The employee shall have responsibility for scheduling the activity in cooperation with the college administration. However, the annual contact hours of the activity will not be counted in the determination of the employee's classroom contact hour limitation, instead the annual classroom contact hour limitation for employees assigned activities will be reduced by the same proportion that the equated credits are of 45. The classroom contact hours

reduction shall be applied in total to the quarter in which the activity assignment occurs. The administration will endeavor to schedule classes for employees having student activity assignments at such times that the combination of classes and activities will result in reasonable elapsed time. 2

Jim Norman, President of the Minnesota Community College Faculty Association, explains that assignment of credit equivalence for each activity is a local rather than state decision. In fact, this contract provision replicates the state board policy on activity assignments. The key difference though lies in the interpretation of the term "equitable." Norman contends that equitability for credit equivalence is based on comparison of activity programs within a college. Each campus then must establish criteria for comparing activities in determining what constitutes an equitable amount of release time. On campuses where activity directors feel administrators are not following the contract, an instructor can file a grievance which would lead to comparison of credit equivalence between colleges.

One of the major problems in this contract provision seems to be the exclusion of criteria for determining *equitable* credit equivalence. Is equitability based on number of students involved in an activity or on amount of time spent in activity preparation and performances? How does the nature of an activity (i.e. individualized vs. group training) effect equitable release time? If a local administrator employs the criterion of number of students in an activity and vocal music receives 15 credit hours and forensics only 3, is this equitable? These issues are crucial in administering this provision.

Norman anticipates that a definition of "equitable credit equivalence" will be resolved through grievance procedures. However, the grievance process tends to produce a leveling effect which can lower credit allocations of one program in order to raise that of another. In essence, if one school provides 21 credits release time for forensics and another college with a similar forensics program receives only 6 credits, the grievance process might reach a compromise of 14 credits for both schools.

Moreover, Norman argues that credits for release time should not be based solely on time spent in performing activity functions. Coaching styles can account for different amounts of time in preparing students for productions. One of the problems in providing a state-wide formula for activity release time is assessing the minimum amount of contact hours needed to produce a quality activity program. Another problem in developing a state-wide formula is the balance between instructional and activity assignment. Norman feels that the focal point of local inequities is tied to a shortage of available staff; hence instructors and administrators hassle as to how faculty time is spent.

The dilemma of equitable credit equivalence is complex and multi-dimensional. For collective bargaining to be effective in this area, faculty, local administration, and association representatives must confront their respective definitions of the term "equitable." If this is done through the grievance process, it could reduce the release time presently allotted to effective forensics and theatre programs.

Activity directors must become more directly involved in formal negotiations. We need to collect data regarding problems with the allocation of release time in speech/theatre activities and to provide the bargaining unit with evidence that supports our needs. We need to practice negotiation skills at the local level and to justify our claims of inequity with concrete evidence. Above all, activity directors need to unite and support one another rather than struggle to receive more or as much release time as other directors. Negotiations based on a preconception of fixed-sum rewards or a total pre-set amount of credit equivalence perpetuates in-fighting among activity directors instead of confrontation with an administration or the state board.

For most of us, "equity" connotes fairness and freedom from prejudicial policies in assigning activity loads. Indeed, this is an admirable aim, but in striving for this goal, we should not be forced to sacrifice quality speech-theatre programs. Even though we should try to rectify gross injustices in establishing credit equivalence, such resolutions should allow for campus flexibility and for support of outstanding activity programs. If we attain equity at the cost of mediocrity, what have we gained?

FOOTNOTES

- 1 Interview with Dr. Banning Hanscom, Assistant to the Chancellor for Student Affairs, Minnesota Community College System, March 1975.
- 2 *Professional Staff Contract Between Minnesota State Board for Community Colleges and Minnesota Community College Faculty Association*, Article IX, Section 4, 1975-77.

Speech Department
Moorhead State College
Moorhead, Minnesota 56560

Non-Profit Organization
U.S. Postage Paid
Permit No. 23
Moorhead, Minnesota 56560

