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FOREWORD

The Stephen F. Austin State University *Journal of Education* is published by the University's School of Education in Nacogdoches, Texas. Our purpose is to provide a forum for the interchange of ideas concerning the improvement of educational opportunities for the citizens of the State of Texas as well as the nation.

The editor solicits for publication manuscripts of any length which will assist in the improvement of education at all levels. Personal experiences, desciptions of techniques, research, theory development, reviews of research and books, or position papers may be submitted.

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Teaching Disadvantaged Children

Mary Appleberry

Disadvantaged children are frequently the victims of poverty. (5) Living in substandard, crowded housing with constant noise, they often learn not to listen. Because their parents use either non-standard English or a foreign language in the home, disadvantaged children usually are deficient in language development. They tend to be shy or suspicious of strangers. Their families may be supported by public welfare, or by the menial jobs at which both parents must work because of their lack of education and skills. If the father does not live with the family, the boys may lack a male figure with whom to identify.

Most disadvantaged children lack the common background of experiences familiar to middle class children of their age: playing in parks, attending concerts and plays, enjoying farm life, visiting large department stores (or even supermarkets), traveling. Since much comprehension in reading must be interpreted through children's prior background of experience, one of the first tasks of the school should be compensatory enrichment experiences which familiarize disadvantaged pupils with an expanded environment through field trips to large stores, parks, farms, plays, concerts, industries, and various modes of transportation. (5)

Since many disadvantaged children begin school with little or no English speaking ability, their greatest need is the ability to understand and to express themselves adequately in standard English. In many schools bilingual classes are available to help the children to begin reading in their dominant language at kindergarten or first grade level, while gradually developing proficiency in speaking and later in reading English. Many of the children are able to function quite well in making the transition to English by the end of third grade.

Another teaching approach is ESL (English as a Second Language). By using objects, pictures, and other visual aids with gestures, simple words, and sentences, plus an aide or a "buddy" who speaks the child's own language, an ESL teacher or the regular classroom teacher can cope with polyglot languages in their classes. Nearly all disadvantaged children need to learn to speak and read standard English almost as if it were a foreign language, so the ESL approach is appropriate for them also. At the same time their own home dialect must be respected while they are being taught "school language."

Because listening and comprehension ability are closely correlated, much directed practice in listening and responding is essential. Singing games, tapes, records, listening centers, and teacher directed activities all should be utilized to increase disadvantaged pupils' listening skills. Young children can improve their auditory discrimination by trying to sort shaker jars filled with popcorn, rice, bolts, etc. into pairs with the same sound. Teachers may make cassette tapes of common sounds heard around the house, on the street, at school or elsewhere for children to identify. Other helpful methods of developing listening skills are word games, rhyming, "listen and clap for the wrong sound", making charts and scrap books by collecting pictures beginning with certain sounds, sorting pictures into containers for long and short vowel sounds.

One of the best ways to begin helping disadvantaged children is to involve their parents, who may avoid visiting school because of their own feelings of inadequacy, language problems, or a low regard for education. They can be involved through pleasant home visits by other parents, bilingual aides, teachers, and social workers. The next step is for the school to conduct meetings for the parents, with care for young children provided to encourage attendance. At these meetings the school program is explained to the parents as a means of providing economic and social advantages to their children through adequate education. If the parents are shown practical ways to help their children by improving study conditions, making games and simple study aids from scrap, attending to their physical needs for proper nutrition and sufficient rest, etc., families usually are willing to cooperate with the schools.

Since many disadvantaged children have little play space or opportunity for developing gross motor skills, an excellent physical education program is important for them. In order to develop fine eye-hand coordination they need to be taught to handle pencils, crayons, markers, scissors, paste, and books. Many of them lack concepts of size, shape, and kind, as well as the understanding of prepositions. Dramatizing and many Montessori-type experiences, sorting and classifying with discussion of choices, directly and indirectly will teach them to understand the concepts they lack. Disadvantaged children learn most effectively through a multi-media, multi-sensory approach which includes many concrete experiences, music, art, and much physical involvement. To overcome the low self-concept which often plagues disadvantaged learners, they need tasks in which they can succeed daily. Well earned, frequent praise is essential!

One of the most enjoyable and effective methods of enriching children's vocabulary and preparing them for reading is daily reading aloud by the teacher from children's literature. Picture books teaching the alphabet, numbers, colors, shapes, concepts, rhymes, stories with much repetition, and the familiar folk and fairy tales are particularly helpful. With the children pointing to pictures, repeating words after the teacher, responding in chorus, and predicting what will happen next, the teacher is helping them to develop a feeling for story form and grammar.

An effective approach to formal reading with disadvantaged children is language experience, in three different forms: (1) experience charts, composed by a small group, with the teacher printing their words on a large chart; (2) dictated stories, with children telling

the teacher what to print or type in their individual books; (3) key words, in which the teacher prints on a flash card and gives to each child a daily word that he requests. Gradually they move into reading basal textbooks, which now portray all ethnic groups and urban as well as rural settings. (6) Such books as the Bank Street and Chandler Readers were developed specifically to meet the experiential needs and interests of city children. (2) Disadvantaged children enjoy action stories and those which are imaginative enough to take them away vicariously from their everyday lives. With programs such as RIF (Reading Is Fundamental) and other inexpensive, appealing paperbacks, many children take pride and satisfaction in collecting their own personal libraries. Teachers and librarians can help them make selections through book lists recommended for high interest-easy readability, special subjects of interest to individual readers, or bibliotherapy, reading selected to improve mental health and attitudes toward coping with problems. (1) All the best techniques and strategies of teaching apply to disadvantaged pupils.

Motivation and encouragement are essential to the progress of disadvantaged children. Regardless of their problems and deficiencies, such youngsters can be taught successfully by dedicated, well trained teachers who believe in the potential ability of each individual.

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Ode to Marva Collins

Cecilia Tilmon

She had a dream — a gossamer dream
And a faith that rainbows were real;
She molded her dream with patience and love
And the gift of her teaching skill.

Her pupils were Chicago's rejects -
The failures who could not cope;
She made them believe they could only succeed
She found their embers of hope.

Ah! Anyone can make a dollar
Anyone can accumulate wealth
But only someone who believes rainbows are real
Can bring forth a child's best self!

What higher calling is there?
What price can be placed on a dream?
Where liveth the man who would argue
That money can buy self-esteem?

'Tis not Marva Collins, I tell you
She stands with her head held high
For she believed in America's ghetto child
And a dream that would not die!

So, listen America's teachers
Believe that rainbows are real;

With love and determination
Use your teaching skill!

Reach out to America's future
It sits in your classroom each day
It thrives and grows and blossoms in truth
Marva Collins has paved the way!

Wealth you'll never assemble;
Your personal road will always be rough,
But perhaps finding that rainbows are real
For a teacher will be enough.

For material wealth is fragile
While knowledge is forever burning,
Socrates was a citizen of the world
Teachers are citizens of learning.

For where cometh America's doctors,
Her lawmakers, scientists, engineers?
They were born in America's classrooms
By a teacher's love, patience and tears.

Her labor of love taught them reading
Their struggles were her's learning math;
She gave them her hope and lighted their dreams
As each one chose his path.

Yes, many who leave her classroom
Gain their share of America's wealth
While a teacher has only her rainbow
And the peace within herself.

So, as America spurns her teachers,
Take a moment to think if you will
Would rainbows and dreams die tomorrow
Without teachers who taught you skills?

Would doctors and lawyers vanish?
Would poets and novelists write?
Would the gloom of illiteracy o'erwhelm us?
Would the daybreak of dreams be night?

Perhaps, God willing, these questions
Will never be subjected to test
And America's beleaguered teachers
Will continue to give their best.

Continue to believe that dreams should not die.
That knowledge lies close to God.
That rainbows are real, and children are safe
Because of the path teachers trod.

Yes, Socrates was a citizen of the world
Marva Collins' dreams are an inner burning
To be shared by America's teachers
Who are truly the citizens of learning!

Alleviating Stress in Mainstreamed Programs

Gloria Durr and Camille G. Bell

Coping effectively with a mainstreamed handicapped student can be a highly rewarding experience; it can also be the cause of undue stress and tension for the Vocational Home Economics teacher. Since Public Law 94-142, mainstreaming in the public schools across the nation has become a reality. Thus, thousands of handicapped students are spending a portion or all of the school day in regular classrooms. How teachers are coping in this type of situation is a major issue that should be addressed.

Vocational home economics deals with everyday living and generally is considered necessary and appropriate for the handicapped student. Therefore, several unique needs of vocational home economics teachers have emerged which necessitate assistance and solutions if the handicapped student who is mainstreamed is to be served effectively and the teacher is to experience positive reinforcement. The determination of problems encountered and the development of appropriate materials and support systems are issues that must be addressed if stress is to be alleviated.

Attitudes of Teachers

Rumble (13) suggested that the most formidable problem in implementing Public Law 94-142 may be in changing teachers' attitudes. He conducted a survey of the attitudes of secondary vocational teachers toward the mainstreaming of handicapped students. Some of the findings in this study included a clear relationship between contact with the handicapped and teacher comfort; concern about personal liability in working with the handicapped; and an indication of the need for support personnel, training in instructional methods, and curriculum development.

In a related study, Dahl (5) found that one of the major concerns of vocational educators is the creation of a positive attitudinal climate. He also indicated that fear among teachers is often generated by lack of knowledge and familiarity about handicapping conditions. Therefore, educators should arm themselves with cognitive and affective knowledge about

the handicapped. Proponents advocating the creating of PL 94-142 argued that as handicapped persons are mainstreamed, feelings of ignorance, fear, and confusion will be reduced. It is a generally accepted fact that attitudes cannot be mandated; however, positive attitudes can be nurtured, reinforced, and directed by counselors, administrators, teachers, and others.

Dahl (5) related that a flux of information has been published to meet the needs of those working with handicapped students. However, the ultimate responsibility is with the classroom teacher who must actually teach the student. The classroom teacher who will deal effectively with mainstreamed students will:

— possess a positive outlook toward life and mainstreaming;
— be equipped with cognitive knowledge of handicapping conditions;
— utilize resources of all types;
— facilitate positive classroom environment and interaction between all students;
— be adept at modifying curriculum to motivate and meet students' needs; and
— utilize good personal and professional management skills.

Vocational educators have made considerable progress in the development of vocational programs to serve handicapped students (4). Much of this progress is a direct result of research related to PL 94-142 and has occurred all over the nation.

Preparation of Teachers

Five hundred seventy-nine vocational home economics teachers participated in a study conducted in Texas in 1980 (6). Findings revealed that professional preparation of the teacher for teaching handicapped students varied but that less than one percent indicated adequate pre-service preparation. In the same study teachers were asked to designate the type of handicaps of the students who were mainstreamed in their classes. The majority of mainstreamed students reported in the study were in the mentally and emotionally handicapped category. Most of the mainstreamed handicapped students were enrolled in Home Economics I; the smallest number was enrolled in Home Economics III.

Mainstreaming Strategies in Home Economics (7), was a product of the Texas study. The handicapping conditions treated were those considered to be most common at the secondary level. They included: 1) mental and emotionally handicapped; 2) deaf, hard of hearing, and speech impaired; 3) blind and visually impaired; 4) physically handicapped; 5) health impaired; and 6) multiple handicapped. However, students with mental and emotional handicaps outnumbered students with all other handicaps by a 3.1 to 1 ratio. Effectively teaching these students can be a source of continual stress and tension for home economics teachers.

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Characteristics of the Mentally Handicapped.

Mentally handicapped refers to below average functioning in the areas of intellectual, physical and emotional development. In general, an individual must meet selected criteria to be classified in this category (14). These include:

- intellectual development is below average;
- condition existed during the developmental stage of the individual; and
- individual is less able to take care of self than average person.

Characteristics of mentally handicapped students are listed below (14). The student may:

- be of average physical size, but be uncoordinated and awkward.
- have a lower resistance to disease and infection.
- possess handicapping conditions varying from mild to severe or profound and may have multiple handicaps.
- be easily frustrated due to repeated failures.
- have short attention span and have a lower capacity for learning.
- function poorly in school and present behavior problems.
- be "street-wise" but perform poorly on intelligence tests.
- handle concrete learning more effectively than abstract.
- learn to do skilled and unskilled work.
- be employable.

Coping Strategies for the Teacher of the Mentally Handicapped

To alleviate stress, the teacher of the mentally handicapped student should ask counselors and special education personnel for help in determining the degree of mental retardation. In addition, the teacher should be as positive as possible with students.

In coping with inhibiting learning behavior the teacher must provide materials that are relevant to the student. Some specific suggestions are listed below.

- Limit use of written materials.
- Select materials with appropriate reading level.
- Provide materials that are relevant to the student.
- Utilize visuals and audio-visual information.

Teaching Strategies for the Mentally Handicapped

The utilization of effective methods of learning can be a major factor of alleviating stress for both the teacher and student. Generally recognized methods used are:

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- sequence learning activities;
- work from concrete to abstract concepts;
- attempt task progressing from simple to complex;
- provide for practice and repetition;
- supply a variety of experiences to include some active and concentrated work;
- utilize motivational techniques;
- build instruction on previous student experience when possible;
- provide short periods of work;
- practice "overlearning" or continue to practice beyond the initial mastery of a task;
- utilize "hands-on" experience as much as possible;
- emphasize accuracy instead of speed;
- utilize community resources to increase relevance of teaching;
- ask clearly stated questions frequently;
- demonstrate what the student is to do in addition to verbal instructions;
- be organized in presenting information; information should be clear and in logical order;
- point out relationships to assure a transfer of learning;
- practice tasks in situations in which they will normally be used;
- plan instruction that allows students to experience frequent success;
- utilize small, progressive steps that indicate accomplishment;
- concentrate on strengths of student.

Teach socially acceptable behavior by the following ways:
- expect students to do well;
- praise accomplishments no matter how small;
- be consistent and fair with students;
- supply role models;
- provide acceptable energy outlets;
- involve all students as much as possible;
- emphasize student participation in class, school, community, and youth organizations and activities;
- stress importance of grooming and social skills;
- utilize techniques recommended by counselors and resource persons in dealing with anti-social behavior;
- investigate for physical causes of unacceptable behavior;
- utilize role plays and socio-metric techniques to portray socially acceptable behavior;
- be prepared for some ups and down in behavior; and
- reinforce desirable behavior of student.

Characteristics of the Emotionally Handicapped

The emotionally handicapped can generally be defined in view of the effect of the

behavior of the individual on self and others. The behavior of the individual may be unacceptable for the age level and may interfere with the growth and development of the individual and the well-being of associates. For instance, one who seems withdrawn from the environment is inhibiting individual growth and development. One who is in constant conflict with associates is disrupting the lives of others. And the inability to demonstrate acceptable behavior is a common problem for the emotionally handicapped student. As an educator, one must not overlook the trauma and inner suffering of the student and the problems that contribute to this condition. Characteristics of emotionally handicapped students are listed below. The student may:

- not handle stress well;
- demonstrate explosive behavior;
- have a negative self image and exhibit hostility;
- have a short attention span and be difficult to motivate;
- use demonstrative behavior (kick chairs, slam doors, use obscene language) or be extremely quiet and withdrawn;
- be easily frustrated due to many years of failure;
- need positive reinforcement;
- function more effectively in a structured but flexible environment.

Coping Strategies for the Teacher of the Emotionally Handicapped

To alleviate stress, the teacher of the emotionally handicapped student should seek assistance from resource persons including counselors and special education personnel. In addition, the teacher should be as positive as possible with students. In coping with inhibiting learning behavior the following specific strategies will be helpful.

- Use moderate pace in the classroom and allow adequate time for completion of tasks.
- Use simple verbal direction to reinforce written materials.
- Provide realistic goals and set realistic expectations for individual behavior.
- Reward acceptable behavior and accomplishments.
- Use grading system to reflect progress and use conduct grade to reflect behavior.
- Provide privacy for student who loses composure.
- Be firm and persistent in demanding acceptable behavior.
- Use student input in planning learning experiences.
- Vary learning experiences frequently.
- Provide opportunity for group interaction.

Conclusion

The basic intent of this article is to provide positive support and assistance to teachers of handicapped students and to suggest ways to relieve stress and tension. Vocational Home

economic administrators must be sensitive to the needs of teachers as well as students. For example, no one is served if the teacher has neither professional preparation nor assistance to meet the unique needs of handicapped students. It is readily evident, then, that if stress and tension are to be minimized, teachers must be provided with assistance in the form of materials, services, guidelines, and moral support.

The suggested coping strategies may be utilized by parents, peers and others who live and work with people with problems. Frequently, stress on the part of the educator stems from the realization that students are experiencing tension and stress in the learning environment. An understanding of the individual with problems should result in the establishment of realistic expectations and create a climate where all people can live and work effectively.

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Elementary Curriculum in the United States:
Eighty Years of Change

Sherry Rulfs

Early Influences on the Twentieth Century

The modern American elementary school draws its curriculum theory and instructional practice from European philosophers such as Froebel, Herbart, and especially Pestalozzi, but these schools are uniquely American. Good and Teller (9) state that "every borrowed idea was quickly changed to fit local conditions, and our elementary school is a thoroughly American institution." Power (15) notes that by the twentieth century American education was complete, beginning with primary schools and ending with universities; he also comments that the system was very nearly democratic.

Parker and Dewey

In order to be complete, any discussion of curriculum must be prefaced by mention of the philosophies and leaders who have influenced it. Until the last quarter of the nineteenth century, American education was patterned after that of Europe. Schooling consisted of traditional curricula available to a limited segment of the population. A theory and practice more American in nature was introduced by Col. Francis Parker, the superintendent of schools in Quincy, Massachusetts (15). Parker's Quincy method represented a break with classroom formalism. Under this novel method "living and learning would be made to complement each other," (15). According to Power (15) and Cremin (4) there was criticism of the program, and people of Quincy were unwilling to allow the new system to go unchallenged. An exhaustive investigation revealed that children learned as well, if not better, than those who had been taught under the old method with its set curriculum and rote memorization (4).

Although American educator and philosopher John Dewey was often called the father of progressive education, Parker's work in the last quarter of the nineteenth century led Dewey to give that title to Parker (4). Parker had planted a seed, but before he had an op-

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portunity to cultivate it he died in 1902. Working from his experiments in the Laboratory School in Chicago, Dewey expanded Parker's Quincy method into a philosophy which later became known as progressive education (15). Dewey and his followers first instituted progressive education in private schools, and it was not until after the turn of the century that public education began to feel its impact. Power (15) emphasizes the impact of progressive education when he states that, "In a word, the schools were turned back to the children, and, in the best progressive terminology, they were to be places that stressed living rather than learning" (15).

Throughout the century, elementary curriculum has been greatly influenced by the beliefs of progressive education or by the reactions to those beliefs. This paper will examine the factors which influenced elementary education and curricular trends which occurred as a result of them. It will also seek to evaluate trends in terms of their impacts on American society.

Progressive Education

One early influence on the development of curriculum was the formation of the Progressive Education Association. With its inception, a loosely organized movement working against the formalism and mental discipline approach in education became an organized movement (20) which would greatly influence the character of elementary schools and their curricula. Hass (10) notes that as the century began, the major emphasis of schooling was on the transmission of knowledge. Curriculum and its planning were simple as teachers needed only to ascertain what had been taught previously and continue the tradition (10).

The original view of the school as a medium for the transmission of knowledge was given a new focus during the early 1900s. The character of education was changing: More immigrants than ever flowed into the country and began to fill the cities, making a once rural country distinctly urban. Responding to a social demand which was a result of the "immigrant problem," school curriculum began to emphasize the socialization of students (10). Cremin (14) notes that Ellwood P. Cubberly called for the Americanization (which to him meant Anglicizing) of immigrants. Cubberly's views echoed those of many Americans, and schools soon found themselves socializing students.

The first twenty years of the century brought a slight shift in the locus of control of the curriculum. Power (15) says that the early years of the century saw a great demand for a uniform curriculum, and some states passed laws regulating the subjects to be taught and sometimes even the methods used to teach them. The State of Nebraska had such a law serving to forbid schools to teach any language other than English to children below eighth grade level. In 1923 the law was challenged, and the case Meyer v. Nebraska rendered the law unconstitutional. Power states that "the court's ruling thus protected the right of parents to determine what their children should study." (15)

Progressive Education Becomes The Norm

The rise of totalitarianism in the 1930's further stressed the goal of socialization when

school curricula began to emphasize the use of democratic processes in the school (10). In summarizing the first thirty years of the century, Hass (10) says that industrialization, urbanization, immigration, and compulsory education which put the children of the working class into the public school all served to drastically alter the curriculum content. The early years of the century had seen a classical curriculum centered on the subject matter to be taught. The enormous changes in society caused the 1920's curriculum to reflect societal needs as its highest priority. By the 1930's public schools had added a third emphasis. The child-centered curriculum of progressive education which had flourished in private experimental schools had gradually become a part of the public elementary school (10).

Curriculum Advances

Curricular changes and goals espoused by progressive education became the norm for elementary schools during the fifteen years following the stock market crash of 1929. One event antecedent to this widespread implementation occurred at about the same time that the right of parents to influence curriculum was affirmed when Superintendent of Schools Jesse Newlon presented the Denver, Colorado, Board of Education with a novel plan (4). Newlon firmly believed that the success of any program depended upon its teachers. Because of his great faith in average classroom teachers, Newlon asked to implement a plan to provide released time for teachers to meet with subject field and curriculum specialists and college teachers of education to write the curriculum for the Denver schools (4). Newlon's plan was highly successful, and the syllabi and/or the Denver method were quickly adopted by schools in the United States and abroad (4). This marked the beginning of teacher involvement in the direct writing of curriculum documents, and according to Cremin, "Far more significant were the long-range gains in teacher growth, enthusiasm, and morale," (4).

Shepherd and Ragan (18) point out that the 1930's and 1940's saw many clear changes in curriculum, some of which had their beginnings in the 1920's:

1. Elementary school curriculum became more unified. Instead of nearly twenty subjects taught separate and apart, schools began to consolidate subjects into broad fields such as language arts and social studies.
2. There was an increased emphasis on democratic processes in the classroom.
3. The subjects taught in school were more directly related to life outside the classroom. Students were taken out into the community on field trips and the community came to them through resource persons.
4. Much more attention was given to individual indifferences, downplaying rigid standards for promotion and grade standards. Nongraded schools became increasingly common.
5. Teacher preparation became more specialized and teachers began to actively participate in curriculum writing.

6. The single textbook-recitation method was slowly abandoned and replaced by varied methods from many sources. Pupils themselves began helping to plan and carry out activities.
7. The child-centered classroom continued to increase in importance, and student interest became a direct influence on curriculum.
8. The life-centered movement continued to replace subject matter with emphasis on various aspects of living.

Special Needs

Another positive trend of this time period was a moderate amount of progress in the education of handicapped children; however, Shepherd and Ragan (18) point out that the period of the 1930's to the mid-1940's ended with a certain amount of unrest and dissatisfaction regarding schools. This unrest was hardly surprising considering the impact of two periods of national emergency.

The Great Depression and World War II "stimulated new developments in science and technology, brought about changes in policies of the national government, and placed increased responsibilities on the public schools" (18). The wartime demand for manpower and the Selective Service records brought Americans to the realization that "an amazing number of young men were physically and mentally unfit to serve in the armed forces" (18). In summarizing this period, Shepherd and Ragan conclude that "although many of the proposals for curriculum change were not implemented, they did serve to focus attention on the need for a school program more in harmony with the demands of society" (18).

New Directions

Elementary curriculum made significant gains in three areas and was influenced by a secondary curriculum trend in the decade following the end of World War II. Shepherd and Ragan (18) state that the elementary school's resources for learning expanded and became more varied than ever before. The world outside the classroom received even more stress through radio, television, motion pictures, and resource persons. By 1954, centralized elementary school libraries were found in fifty-seven percent of the cities with a population of 100,000 or more, 49.61 percent of those with a population of 9,999 to 25,000 and in 41.93 percent of the cities with populations between 5,000 and 9,999. These libraries served to broaden and enrich elementary curriculum (18).

A second area of elementary curriculum which greatly expanded was the inclusion of foreign language at the kindergarten through sixth grade level. The number of students in these grades receiving foreign language instruction grew from 5,000 in 1941 to 300,000 in 1957 (18). A third curriculum change brought a great deal of progress in providing programs for the physically and mentally handicapped, the gifted, and social deviates. Shepherd and Ragan (18) point out that there was an eighty-three percent increase in the number of schools offering special education subjects.

The Life Adjustment Movement

The life adjustment movement which originated with the Vocational Education Division of the United States Office of Education (18) took the position set forth by Dr. Charles Prosser, a lobbyist for the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education (4). In his unanimously adopted statement (4) Prosser noted that twenty percent of all high school students should be prepared for college and that an additional twenty percent could be prepared for skilled occupations. The remaining sixty percent were in need of life adjustment training to help them cope with the world (4). Although the life adjustment movement addressed itself to secondary schools, the implications were far broader because no real changes could be accomplished without "adjusting" the lives of pupils of all ages.

The Demise of Progressive Education

Unruh (20) says that from its earliest days, the life adjustment movement had its critics. Arthur Bestor's 1959 work *Educational Wastelands* echoed the feelings of academicians who had long criticized the immense gulf between public schools and the professional teacher preparation programs and the academic community and its standards for the various disciplines (20). Other concerns expressed by Bestor were that the elementary schools were not teaching the traditional culture and wisdom of American society (20). No facet of American education escaped Bestor's criticism: Secondary schools were felt to be coddling rather than developing the minds of students, and colleges had neglected intellect in favor of utility (20). Bestor and others prompted a backlash to the life adjustment movement which proved to be the undoing of a number of curriculum changes which had resulted from the beliefs set forth by progressive educators and the life adjustment movement itself (19).

Back To Basics And Sputnik Panic

A back to basics cry arose, and a new curriculum reform movement was well underway by the 1950's through the cooperative efforts of professional educators and academicians (18). This pre-Sputnik curriculum reform was moving at a moderate pace, and the public was not involved to an overwhelming degree, but the historic October 1957 launch greatly increased the concern of the American public and the financing and speed at which the reform proceeded (18). Critics such as Bestor and Admiral Hyman Rickover took full advantage of America's "humiliation" at the hands of the Soviet Union and the subsequent near hysteria of the American public (18). Tanner and Tanner (19) note that these attacks, coupled with the cold war and space race, provoked numerous attacks on American schools.

Federal Government Involvement

Not surprisingly, the federal government responded with measures designed to heal its

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own wounded pride as well as answer these attacks. The back to basics movement begun in the early 1950's received diminished attention as schools set out to pursue academic excellence (19). Mathematics, science, and foreign language were especially stressed, and large sums of money from federal and private sources gave added impetus to these projects (18). In 1958 the National Defense Education Act (NDEA) provided federal funds to improve instruction in mathematics, science, and modern foreign language. This act also provided testing and guidance programs to discover the most able students and develop their talents to the fullest (19). Gifted students were sought out, and these elementary children (and their older counterparts) were placed in intensive programs to develop their abilities in the three critical areas which were deemed essential for the present and future security of the United States as world power (18).

According to Tanner and Tanner (19) this was an abrupt change from the philosophy of education which sought education for all students and aimed at development of the individual and which was espoused by the Progressive Education Association and the life adjustment movement. The post-Sputnik era in education sought to serve the country instead of the individual and was far more concerned with the elite college-bound student than with the masses (20). Predictably, ability grouping which had been popular during the 1920's was employed to facilitate teaching advanced material to these children (20).

Funding To Achieve Excellence

Because the task of curriculum revision to meet the new demands was enormous,the federal government and private foundations spent large sums of money to have university level scholars design programs (19). These knowledge purists did not acknowledge the limitations of disciplinarity which had long been recognized by educators, yet the educators left curriculum to be dominated by purist academicians for over a decade (19). The unfortunate effect of their domination was the diminution of "notable efforts which had been made prior to mid-century to counter the tendency toward curricular fragmentation and to develop curricular coherence," (19). Tanner and Tanner (19, p. 520) further state:

> Such efforts stemmed from a rationale premised on the need to consider curriculum development the interrelationships of organized knowledge, the nature of the learner, and the problems of society. In sharp contrast is the countercurrent of knowledge specialism and disciplinarity in which knowledge for its own sake takes precedence over the practical applications of knowledge and the nature of the learner.

Hilda Taba says that during the 1930's prevailing thought stressed the need for attention to the child, but the 1950's brought a quest for disciplined content, leaving unresolved the problem of curriculum balance (20).

While the curriculum reforms of the 1950's and 1960's may have brought an unbalanced curriculum to public schools, Unruh (20) and Shepherd and Ragan (18) say that they can

be credited with making the inquiry method a continuing part of school practice. When used, this method does encourage problem solving and higher order thinking (20), and few educators would deny the value of the vast array of media and materials now available due to those curriculum reforms. A less positive effect is that of the separation of disciplines which resulted in diminished attention to curriculum as a whole.

The Pendulum Begins To Swing

The thrust toward academic excellence created another critical problem. In its quest for experts to write curriculum, public education had failed to make its teachings relevant to young people (20). The resulting flame of discontent became a fire fanned by the civil rights movement and fueled by the emerging New Left of education with publications such as *Death at an Early Age* (Jonathan Kozol, 1967), *How Children Fail* (John Holt, 1964), and *Lives of Children* (George Dennison, 1967) (20). Unruh (20) says that these authors and others were joined by affluent young whites and militant blacks demanding drastic changes in schooling which carried well into the 1970's.

Demands for Relevance

Kozol, Holt, and Dennison were joined in their criticisms by a number of equally concerned (if less radical educators), and in only a few years demands upon educators changed drastically (20). Schools which had once struggled to meet demands for strict adherence to standards set by academicians now struggled to give students a curriculum which would be relevant and child-centered (20).

Although the protests during this new era took place largely in secondary schools and colleges, elementary schools were also greatly affected (18). No member of the teaching profession and no school remained unaffected by the protests and subsequent unrest and even violence which characterized the late 1960's and 1970's. Elementary schools experimented with open education, and the needs of the learner began to resurface as an important concern (18).

Unruh (20) states that one solution to arise from the quest for relevance sought by so many protesters was that of the alternative school. Although they were outnumbered by their secondary counterparts, alternative elementary schools did have a definite impact on American education (20). Open schools or open classrooms left students free to pursue individual interests with the guidance of a teacher and selected interest centers. This British model gave students a significant voice in determining curriculum. Schools without walls stressed the total community as a learning resource and were often located in places other than the traditional school building. Free schools in non-public settings or as entities within public schools offered much greater intellectual and social freedom than the traditional models (20).

Unfortunately, the new demands for curricular relevance were not answered by the outpouring of federal money which had assisted in writing curricula in the 1950's (19) because the federal government was now concerned with social programs championed by

Presidents Kennedy and Johnson. Between 1963 and 1968 Congress enacted twenty-four major pieces of legislation which affected early childhood education, compensatory education, and the handicapped and otherwise disadvantaged (20). Shepherd and Ragan (18) point out that instructional materials became highly diverse and individualized and that many were specifically designed for minority groups. Textbooks were revised in attempts to eliminate racist and sexist stereotypes. In only a decade the curricular guidelines which had called for academic excellence seemed curiously dated.

A Swing In The Other Direction

Since the late 1970's until the present time curriculum has been increasingly influenced by the economy and the political conservatism which has sought to abate double-digit inflation. Shepherd and Ragan (18) say that in keeping with the national mood of conservatism, two curriculum trends have arisen: the first of these is accountability (including competency-based testing), and the second is an updated version of back to basics. A related factor affecting curriculum must also be noted: the New Right is an ultra-conservative movement largely led by religious fundamentalists (3).

Accountability

The crusade for accountability had its beginning in the early 1970's after declining test scores led many to believe that schools were producing an inferior product. It gained additional impetus when the flagging economy caused the public to demand its money's worth from education (20). One unfortunate result of the drive for accountability is the tendency to view the student as a raw product to be sent through a factory called a school to be molded and shaped by a teacher whose tools are narrow, pre-determined behavioral objectives. Unruh (20) also maintains that "Accountability, in a comprehensive view has important implications for curriculum developments; a limited view will again reveal the need for a broad base for curriculum development." The unfortunate aspect of accountability is the tendency of teachers and administrators to become so concerned with test scores that they fail to deal with children as individuals with highly diverse needs (17).

Back to Basics and the New Right

Like the accountability movement, back to basics has been influenced by declining test scores (17). At the elementary level its proposed changes for curriculum are extensive. Although the groups advocating it do vary, the back to basics movement's aims for curriculum may be summarized as follows: 1. Devoting most of the elementary school day to reading, writing, and arithmetic; 2. Using instructional procedures that stress drill, homework, and frequent testing; 3. Adopting textbooks that reflect patriotism and rejecting those that challenge traditional values; 4. Eliminating electives, frills and innovations.

The new version of back to basics has a far more widespread appeal than its predecessor

of two decades (17). One reason for this, say Sadker and Sadker (17), lies in the decline in test scores which began in 1964, but in looking beyond the school, other factors must be considered (17). The breakdown of traditional family roles, the permissiveness of society and school, and the upheavels caused by the counter-culture, Watergate, and Viet Nam have all given rise to the desire to return to the good old days (17). Given this frame of reference, back to basics is a much deeper issue than just school curriculum, and is closely aligned with the New Right.

Brodinski (3) summarizes the aims of the New Right as follows: The New Right seeks to remove from textbooks and curricula any influence of what it calls secular humanism and to inject fundamentalist " ... morality, Godliness, Americanism, patriotism, and free enterprise." The New Right is a network of conservative organizations ranging from the Moral Majority to the Heritage Foundation (3). These and other New right organizations have considerable influence on American education and can be expected to attempt to increase their power through lobbying and well-publicized attacks on public education and its curriculum (3).

A Challenge For The Eighties

Conflict has marked American elementary curriculum in this century. At the root of the conflict lie two opposing philosophies of education. Traditional educators tend to center curriculum around subject matter, feeling that it will provide a means to achieve a societal end which calls for young people to be capable and willing to serve society. At the opposite end of the educational scale, progressive educators call for a child-centered curriculum which will develop young people to their fullest potential in a dynamic society which calls for change and flexibility.

The pendulum swings which have resulted from this conflict have caused American education to be plagued by excesses. These excesses serve only to weaken curriculum and the educational system as a whole. Both schools of thought are of great value, but American children will benefit from and receive a well-rounded education only when school curriculum leaders take a stand and strike a balance.

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The Other Side of Extracurricular Activities

Francis Baccigalopi, Carole Dyer, and Lynn Luther

"Play ball!" "Dunk that basket!" "Burn up the track!" "Spike the ball!" These familiar cries are echoed throughout America's schools on a daily basis. Yet, are the sports associated with such extracurricular activities a valuable asset to America's educational system?

Education is a process of human growth and development by which an individual obtains a greater understanding and control over himself and his environment. One of the ways this can be accomplished is through the skills learned and reinforced through extracurricular activities. Any extracurricular activity that offers the student something that he or she does not get in an academic class or reinforces some positive developmental characteristic is worthy of being a part of the school's curriculum.

A student involved in an extracurricular activity will have an added reinforcement of skills that other students do not have. First, extracurricular activities give students the opportunity to make decisions and commitments and to learn to live with them. Secondly, they teach the importance of setting goals and striving to achieve those goals, in spite of hardships. Thirdly, extracurricular activities aid in the development of a student's morals and values. These qualities, inherent in most extracurricular activities, all contribute to the growth and development of the student and help him to gain a greater understanding of himself and his environment.

Because each student is unique it is imperative that schools provide within the educational framework a variety of systematically organized programs. Success at anything is very important to the individual, and the extracurricular activity offers the student the chance for success that he may not find in an academic class. Success can take many forms: acceptance as part of a team, scholastic achievement, or recognition for an outstanding talent. The student who is not academically inclined must find positive motivation toward school somewhere, and extracurricular activities can fullfill this need for some students. There is no single, uniform program for all students, no defined body of curriculum for all, nor is there a body of skills which all can achieve with uniform excellence.

Consequently, some students must have the opportunity to achieve outside the academic area and thus fullfill a need shared by all.

However, as important as the extracurricular activity is to the school's curriculum program, there must be a balance between these activities and the academic program. The kinds of activities offered need to be looked at in the light of the overall educational picture. Extracurricular activities should complement the academic programs, not overshadow them. Therefore, special care should be taken to ensure that time devoted to the extracurricular activity does not infringe upon the academic needs of the student.

Our current educational system, containing both academics and extracurricular activities, offer the student the opportunity to enlarge and develop to the fullest potential his own special interests, abilities and talents. Extracurricular activities contribute to the development of these qualities and skills. They help the student to become a well-rounded member of society. When participating in an extracurricular activity, students have the opportunity to learn sportsmanship, leadership, compromise, loyalty, responsibility, and the values of working with others.

As professional educators, our deepest convictions compel us to foster individual growth and development. We desire that each individual become a healthy, contributing member of his environment. And, we wish for each student the promise of success that is in him. Therefore, we have no choice but to recognize the important contributions of extracurricular activities to the school's overall curriculum and to support them.

Censorship: A Strategy for the English Teacher

Missy Corley

Censorship — a chilling thought, but one that each high school English teacher will come up against sooner or later; and given the growing conservative political climate it will probably be sooner. A mounting wave of "book banning" and protests over textbook content is sweeping the nation. Librarians and teachers call it censorship and interference with a student's basic right to read and freedom of expression. The would-be censors, however, call their reviews, "critiquing", cleansing, a return to basic American values. How, as an English teacher, can you understand, prevent, or respond to these challenges?

Understanding your position as a teacher is difficult when the highest court in the nation, the Supreme Court, vacillates between confirming the First Amendment's freedom of expression interpretation and the school board's right of local authority over what material will be used in the curriculum. The liberal trend of the 1960's and 1970's has been reversed in the last few years by decisions in favor of school boards wishing to remove or restrict access to certain books. The Supreme Court has neatly side-stepped the "right-to-read" issue and instead, concentrates on the right of local authorities to select textbooks. The courts, while agreeing in principle with the idea that schools should provide a wide range of thought provoking material, are ruling against this in practice.

Most teachers feel that a censorship issue could never arise in their quiet school district. However, the new statistics are eye-openers! Morton Hunt reports: "... three times as many incidents of school censorship (were documented) between 1975 and 1979 as in the preceding ten years — and since the beginning of 1980, the rate has tripled again. In 1980 there were 1,000 reported attempts to ban or restrict books in public schools."[1] The American Library Association estimates that only 10 to 20 percent of censorship attempts are even reported. "In nearly one-third of the attempts reported, the censors succeeded in their purpose to have books restricted, removed or destroyed."[2]

What kinds of books are being challenged as profane, obscene, politically dangerous or "just plain filth"? *The Diary of Anne Frank, Catch-22, Huckleberry Finn,* the *American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language, Robin Hood,* virtually all Kurt Vonnegut

works, *Soul on Ice, 1984,* and *Mary Poppins,* to name a very few. The censors focus on only one aspect of the book, such as, an offensive passage, profanity, sexuality, or a non-democratic point of view, and ignore the value of the work as a whole.

Many times the censors do not bother to even read the rest of the book. Why do they take such violent offense to these books? As a pamphlet published by Mel and Norma Gabler warns: "... there is no possibility that crime, violence, veneral disease and abortion rates will decrease"[3] unless textbooks and library shelves are reformed to meet their all-American standards. Liberal textbooks have become the new "root of all evil". These are not isolated voices crying in the wilderness, either. Mr. and Mrs. Gabler head the very powerful and very organized Education Research Analysts, the country's largest textbook review service.

Several options are available for the English teacher to prevent such challenges from arising, the most important of these being communication. Communication with administration, parents and the community, and students is the key to prevention.

In dealing with the administration it becomes essential to know the school's book selection policies and procedures. It is not wise to overstep established bounds. The principal should be provided with a list of and guide to the works that will be used in the classroom. Be prepared to explain the choices made. This is an invaluable back-up for the principal and the teacher if confronted by a concerned parent. Administration should be a partner in education, not an adversary.

Involving parents and the community in their children's education is not the formidable task it may appear. Notices of impending curriculum hearings and solicitation of parental input go a long way in community public relations. One school in New York conducts a night workshop for parents to review and study the same literature that will be presented to their children. Consider keeping on hand a list of comparable, alternate selections in case a need for change becomes apparent. Again, parents should also be partners in the educational process. An informed community is less likely to be suspicious of what goes on behind the school's closed doors.

One important partner often neglected in the selection process is the student. The students have valid opinions, too. How do they feel about profanity, sexual or racial references, or controversial "hot potatoes"? If the material makes them so uncomfortable that it will interfere with or override learning, then its purpose is defeated. Some books may just be too adult, even for the more sophisticated students of today. Is there a novel that they are curious to read and learn about this semester? Here, again, the alternate reading list comes in handy. Encourage students to stretch their minds, but don't make the mistake of stuffing material down their throats.

In spite of all your good intentions and communication, a challenge may still be presented. The school district should have a formal, explicit procedure to be followed in these cases. First, a materials selection procedure should be on file and available. Once a book has been established as properly selected, the challenger should be asked to fill out a "review request" stating specific objections and concerns. No further action should be taken until the formal complaint form has been filled out and recorded. Then, have the

complaint referred to a review committee that has been created for this specific purpose. The committee should be a representative sampling of parents, students, school personnel and community. No restrictions should be placed on the book until the entire procedure has been completed. The public should be informed of the book's challenge and all hearings should be conducted openly. Seek support for the school, both moral and legal, through the many agencies formed to offer assistance, such as the American Library Association or the ACLU. Lastly, once a decision has been reached, stick to it. By now, a majority decision whether to keep or remove the book has been formed, not a minority one. What is the effect of an established review procedure? According to a survey by the Association of American Publishers (AAP): "Half of all reported censorship attacks that succeed do so without formal hearings or the use of any established procedure for examining and evaluating a book. School authorities simply cave in to placate the censors."[4] Prevention of needless censorship threats can be averted by a common-sense review procedure and proper preparation before a challenge arises.

English teachers cannot bury their heads in the sand and hope that the censorship problem will go away. "Censorship is based on the notion that if people can be kept ignorant, they can be kept pure."[5] Communication along with parental and community involvement will prevent many needless confrontations. Communication between partners is the key to tolerance and understanding.

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A Primer For New Principals:
Inservice Education For Middle Management Personnel

William Heeney and David Nelson

Many school districts fail to fully appreciate and utilize one of their most important organization resources — middle management administrators. This situation has evolved because the responsibilities, expectations, and powers of the building principal are inherently different from those of the central administration staff and the faculty. The former have a wider frame-of-reference while the latter have a narrower, more individualistic, perspective. Traditionally, the middle-management administrator creates and maintains the appropriate institutional identity for the school unit or campus. In fulfilling the dual role of instructional leader and administrative manager, the principal frequently discovers that his or her individual identity is in question.

Selection of a new principal may often heighten the dilemma. The new middle-manager is in the uneasy and unstable point of administrative interface, maintaining (or enforcing) institutional goals while supporting individual faculty needs. Some new principals will profess a special loyalty to the faculty while others will encounter apprehension in the performance of district policy. At minimum, the position of middle-manager is one of conflict between administrative concerns about productivity and faculty expectations of advocacy. The effective principal must do more than steer a middle course in satisfying these diverse and conflicting expectations.

Notwithstanding the importance of the position and despite the fact that most school superintendents have themselves served as middle-manager, newly-appointed principals often suffer from a lack of training, communication, reinforcement, evaluation, and knowledge about budget matters. With moderate effort and minimal expense, school districts can make adjustments in these five critical areas that will yield a dramatic improvement in the overall effectiveness of their new middle-management personnel.

The American Association of School Administrators has long recognized that the responsibility for selection and assignment of principals should reside in the superintendency. The roles of middle-management administrators are determined largely by the duties

assigned by the superintendent, the perceptions of the principal, and the attitudes of the staff and the community. The middle-management administrator and the faculty are expected, therefore, to administer and execute the educational program at the individual school center within the broad framework of policy established by the Board of Education and interpreted by the superintendent and central office staff. Quite often, however, the implications and applications of such a charge are unclear or unstated.

Training

The traditional welcome to the position of school principal typically includes a copy of the budget, a key to the building, and a congratulatory handshake. More often than not, middle-managers find themselves floundering and thrashing about while learning on the job. Educational institutions and school districts should offer a more efficient procedure to introduce principals to the requirements and opportunities of the position.

One means to train a new middle-manager is to formally or informally assign experienced and helpful principals as advisors to new ones. Manuals and policy materials prepared specifically for middle-managers should contain an outline of the defined duties and responsibilities of the building administrator, a schedule of procedural deadlines, a summary of personnel practices, and other important matters of administrative protocol. Periodic, perhaps weekly, meetings can update new principals on institutional policies, budgetary issues, curricular matters, and personnel concerns. Off-campus workshops and professional seminars can also assist new middle-managers to understand the dimensions and responsibilities of the position. In large school districts, a team of central office personnel and experienced middle-managers should be responsible for staff development of new principals. In smaller districts, the superintendent with the assistance of an appropriate building principal should be accountable for the inservice training of recently appointed middle-managers.

Communication

Effective management theory recognizes that sharing information yields rich institutional dividends. A frequent and often justified complaint of many middle-managers is that they are not informed in a timely manner. A better communication network is long overdue at many school districts.

Middle-managers are the persons who must implement district policies relating to curriculum, scheduling, and personnel. Principals must also plan and maintain a favorable academic climate within their schools — a difficult balance. Middle-managers should, of course, be allowed to make use of training and expertise by involving themselves in the information gathering and decision making processes of the district. Superintendents can reinforce this concept and support new principals thereby enhancing their own administrative role by adhering to the following basic requirements. All new middle-managers should be directed to:

1. Establish a plan of accomplishment for each school.
2. Conduct an appraisal of past academic activities in relationship to future goals.
3. Develop a five-year plan in the areas of enrollment, personnel, curriculum, and physical plant.
4. Identify the expenditures for each of the stated priorities.
5. Plan and coordinate the role of departments, grades, and other academic units within the building.
6. Modify and update the job descriptions of the ancillary personnel within the building.
7. Establish a system of management control for each program within the school.
8. Create and implement an on-going and effective communication system within the school.

Reinforcement

The bonds of trust between a middle-manager and his or her faculty are essential to both efficiency and efficacy. Faculty members must have confidence that their personal and professional interests will be appropriately honored and respected by the new middle-manager. New principals, on the other hand, have similar needs and may feel apprehensive that their success depends less on matters over which they have control and more on events that are impossible to predict or difficult to manage.

Therefore, the authority vested in the middle-manager should be clearly delineated and consistently respected. For example, the faculty and staff should not be encouraged to ventilate their feelings and frustrations with the central administration thus bypassing the middle-manager. Few events can be more devastating to the new middle-manager than taking an unpopular, but professionally correct, position and have the central administration compromise the decision. Likewise, meaningful communication between middle-managers and staff reduces the likelihood of the faculty to hold principals responsible for circumstances decided elsewhere in the school district structure.

Evaluation

Newly-appointed middle-managers need to participate in the establishment of goals upon which he or she will be evaluated. Additionally, there needs to be a clear understanding of the time frame for reaching such goals, the frequency of performance reviews, and the objective procedure for involving various members of the administrative team. The duties and responsibilities in meeting the requisites for promotion or salary increment is another area that must be clearly addressed. A special concern for middle-managers is their diminished opportunity to be directly involved in the goal setting and evaluation process. This void must be addressed.

In any case, evaluation procedures should be constructed to reflect the administrative and academic accomplishments of the individual principal. Utilizing a defined system of administrative evaluation, participation in the institutional reward system will be possible for middle-managers. In fact, such a procedure is basic to motivation and initiative. Recognition of the new school principal who has created harmony out of conflict, rejuvenated a school coasting on memories of earlier success, stimulated an inert faculty to new research activities, or engendered new appreciation for academic performance should be recognized as a positive measure of administrative accomplishment.

Budget

In budgetary matters, middle-managers usually have a subordinate role. Therefore, it is essential to establish a clear understanding between the central administration and the new principal. The middle-manager and the administration must share a common understanding and approach to the management of money. Further, the administration must support the building principal in the effort to be realistic and consistent in the allocation of money as determined by a budget created elsewhere in the school district.

Perhaps the greatest need for a building administrator is in the day-by-day handling of routine cash flow. Put another way, if middle-managers are to be held accountable for the "results," it follows that authority for some measure of financial decision making must be delegated to them. The middle-manager must develop and maintain a purchasing subsystem which coordinates with that of the school district. When fiscal autonomy is exercised, an accounting system must provide the principal with financial information needed to make reasonable decisions. An understanding of this process is difficult for most new middle-managers, and guidance from the business office is essential for efficient money management.

Given the reality of reduced budgets and staffs, additional burdens will be placed on middle-managers for the prudent stewardship of financial resources. Middle-managers will be asked to apply increasingly higher personnel standards and to explain painfully difficult decisions about budgets. Central office administrators must be especially sensitive to the psychological turmoil of this condition as new middle-managers find themselves in the dilemna of releasing accomplished individuals while retaining less productive faculty members who happen to have seniority.

Conclusions

Middle-managers are unique in the official organization of a school district — they are administrators but of limited decision-making ability. Some middle-managers find that the chief reward of the position is translating ideas and concepts into programs. Other building principals are "people-oriented" and take great pride in the opportunities the position affords to help others grow professionally. Most school districts demand, however, that the position of middle-manager be one of instructional leadership. Few individuals are fully

trained for the position. Therefore, the requirements for the principalship necessitate that decisions about promotion, tenure, and salary be specified in a clearly delineated manner.

Middle-managers are related to the school district administration much as faculty members are related to the principal. As such, middle-managers and faculty alike function as natural constituencies — both providing and demanding support. In each case, there must be a maximum level of confidence and trust extending in both directions. By providing new middle-managers support and training, success in one of the most vulnerable points of the school organization, the principalship, is more likely to be assured.

Training Supervisors In Clinical Techniques

Patsy Hallman, Kay Rayborn, and Duke Brannen

Introduction

The student teaching experience is one of the most important aspects in the formal preparation of teachers. The program at Stephen F. Austin State University has been strong and well-organized for many years. However, educators continually strive to improve the program, making it more sensitive to the needs of students and one which is a more cooperative program with the public schools.

Rationale

Critical to the success of the student teaching experience is the supervision process by university and public school personnel. Several models for successful supervision exist, and many have been used by Stephen F. Austin State University supervisors. Recently, however, several supervisors expressed an interest in investigating more objective techniques than ones currently employed, particularly the Clinical Supervision Model. This concern for improving the supervising process was presented to the Teacher Center Advisory Board. The board considered the need for training in clinical supervision along with other concerns. A proposal to address the concerns was presented to the Texas Education Agency and, subsequently, funds were received for five projects to be developed by the Teacher Center. Training supervisors in clinical techniques was one of the five projects adopted by the board. A committee of university and public school personnel designed the clinical supervision project.

Clinical Supervision Defined

Clinical Supervision may be defined as supervision to help the teacher improve his/her instructional performance. Clinical supervision focuses on the improvement of instruction

by means of systematic cycles of planning, observation, and analysis of teachers with emphasis on improving teachers' classroom performance. Techniques of clinical supervision provide a means of objective evaluation which can lead to the teacher modifying his/her teaching style so that both the teacher and the class are satisfied with improvements (1).

Morris Cogan (2), who was associated with the development of the clinical supervision concept, has defined it as "supervision focused upon the improvement of the classroom performance of the teacher by way of observation, analysis, and treatment of that performance." While some variation exists in the specific steps identified for this process, Reavis (4) suggested that the dominant pattern is the five-step sequence which is summarized below.

1. Pre-observation conference. In this conference, the supervisor is oriented to the class, objectives, and lesson by the teacher. Then the teacher and supervisor decide on the contract (purposes of the observation).
2. Observation. The supervisor observes the lesson, taking verbatim notes as much as possible or recording the lesson by mechanical means.
3. Analysis and Strategy. The supervisor considers his/her notes with respect to the contract emphases and also to discover any patterns, either favorable or unfavorable, that might characterize the teacher's behavior. After the lesson has been analyzed, the supervisor considers the teacher, his/her level of self-confidence, maturity, experience, etc., and decides on a strategy for the conference.
4. Post-observation conference. The supervisor implements his/her strategy. He/she deals with the contract term first and, with the consent of the teacher, may introduce comments on patterns not a part of the original contract that he/she has identified. Planning with the teacher for a future lesson that incorporates mutually-agreed-upon changes may also occur.
5. Post-conference analysis. The supervisor analyzes his/her own performance and makes plans for working with the teacher in a more productive manner in the future.

The process of clinical supervision may be summarized as one which involves three definite activities. All three must be present in each clinical supervisory experience. The three are:

1. the Planning Conference;
2. actual Classroom Observation; and
3. a Feedback Conference

Clinical Supervision Practice

Supervisors using clinical supervision help teachers clarify goals, collect observational

data on classroom events, and analyze data. Acheson and Gall (1) have listed the goals of clinical supervision as:

1. To provide teachers with objective feedback on their instruction.
2. To diagnose and solve instructional problems.
3. To help teachers develop skill in using instructional strategies.
4. To evaluate teachers for promotion, tenure, and other decisions.
5. To help teachers develop a positive attitude toward continuous professional development.

The use of clinical supervision is based on current assumptions of appropriate educational supervisory behavior. Among those are: "the supervisory focus is based on observational evidence, not on unsubstantiated value judgments." Any educator responsible for improving instruction may use clinical supervision. Research has shown that teachers have a positive attitude toward the observational component of clinical supervision. Further, it has been found that teachers trained in clinical techniques are more likely to accept evaluation than are ones not knowledgeable in clinical supervision processes. Researchers have found that supervisors trained in these techniques are more able to help teachers make significant improvements in a variety of teaching behaviors than are supervisors without this skill (1).

Clinical Supervision Techniques

A variety of techniques may be used to collect data during the actual classroom observation. Among choices available are Selective Verbatim Techniques, Seating Chart Observation Records, Wide Lens Techniques, and Check-lists. The technique chosen for any clinical supervision experience is matched carefully with the teachers' particular instructional concerns. For example, if a teacher's concern relates to nonverbal behavior, a video recording may be selected; however, if the concern relates to the level of commotion in a classroom, a record of students' movement patterns might be more appropriate. Either the supervisor or the teacher may choose the techniques to be used.

Clinical supervisory techniques considered in the Stephen F. Austin State University project were:

1. Seating Chart Observational Records
   - Communication patterns
   - At-task records
2. Flanders Interaction Analysis - a modified form
3. Selective Verbatim Techniques
   - Teacher questions
   - Student questions

The Project

Plan

The project plan included a proposal to have participants selected by the steering committee. Those selected were to be public school teachers and university professors involved in student teaching programs. The selected group was to participate in a series of three, one-day seminars to examine models of clinical supervision. Consultants were to be made available to direct the seminars. Field trips or video tapes were planned for observation experiences.

Projected Program Outcomes were:

1. Participants trained in the workshop will serve as supervision consultants to university and public school supervisors of student teachers.
2. In-service workshops will be presented to assist teachers in the use of clinical methods in analysis of learning experiences.
3. Participants will be used in graduate education classes to present clinical techniques in instructional leadership.
4. School districts will be able to use clinical techniques to assist teachers in efforts for individual improvements.

The plan for evaluation included participants completing an instrument designed to assess the effectiveness of the training process on their functions as supervisors.

Implementation

The steering committee began holding planning sessions as soon as approval for the program was received. They implemented the following activities in order to reach the objectives of the project.

1. Participants were selected by the committee. Selection was based on recommendations from the appropriate administrative officials from the following independent school districts in East Texas:

   Nacogdoches   Carthage
   Lufkin   Henderson
   Center   Longview

   (Each of these districts has strong participation in Stephen F. Austin State University's teaching program.)
   Additionally, university supervisors of student teachers were asked to participate. Ten were able to commit themselves to full participation in the project.

2. Three training seminars were held to train participants in clinical supervision techniques. The format of the sessions included an overview of supervision presented at the first session by Dr. Allen Cannon, Superintendent, Lufkin Independent School District. After the initial presentation, participants were trained in three techniques:
   a. SCORE techniques
   b. Flanders Interaction Analysis - a modified form
   c. Selective Verbatim
3. Training for effective planning conferences and follow-up conferences was also provided.
4. Materials were developed for use in training sessions.
5. Video-tapes were developed which may be used in subsequent training session. Tape titles included:
   a. The Planning Conference, Hallman and Rayborn
   b. The Planning Conference, Hallman and Boone
   c. Supervision - An Overview, Cannon
   d. A Class Observation, Boone
   e. A Class Observation, Brannen
   f. The Follow-up Conference, Hallman and Boone
   g. The Follow-up Conference, Rayborn and Brannen
6. A survey was conducted among participants at the conclusion of the training.
7. A commitment was made by participants to share knowledge and skills with other teachers at in-service workshops.

Evaluation

The final workshop session included an opportunity for participants to share in the evaluation process. Table I reflects the professional assignments of the participants.

Table I

Professional Assignments of Participants

University supervisor of student teachers	3
University administrator	0
Elementary school teacher	8
Middle school teacher	1
High school teacher	4
Public school administrator	2
Other	0

Participants were asked to rate each of the four techniques studied for usefulness as a supervisory technique. A scale of one to seven was used for the ratings with one being the

lowest rating and seven being the highest rating. Participants were asked to rate each technique for its supervisory value in each of the following situations.

1. Supervising the student teachers
2. Supervision of practicing teachers
3. Training at in-service workshops

These ratings are reported in Table II.

Table II

Mean Ratings of Selected Techniques

	Student Teaching	Classroom	In-service
Selected Verbatim	5.1	5.2	5.1
SCORE (time-at-desk)	5.9	5.6	5.9
SCORE (verbal flow)	6.1	5.8	5.9
Flanders-adapted	4.6	4.3	4.3

Mean scores of the SCORE technique of Time-at-Task and the SCORE technique of Verbal Flow were consistently higher than those for other techniques. This higher rating may be attributed to the ease of learning and using these techniques. Further, participants had opportunity to practice these techniques during the training period. The modified Flanders received the lowest mean scores. Comments accompanying the evaluations indicated that the difficulty in learning and using the modified Flanders discouraged its strong support.

Participants were asked to rate the use of clinical supervision techniques as tools in teacher certification where school districts must approve individuals for recertification. From the 15 evaluators who chose to respond to the question, a mean of 5.7 on a 7 point scale was obtained.

Conclusion

A scientifically controlled study involving the points emphasized in this survey is needed in order to provide adequate statistical data. Implied in these survey results is recognition of the merit of specific techniques in an evaluation process of educators. The value of the techniques discussed is perhaps relative to the particular situation. However, the implication appears to be that those involved in evaluation value specific objective data.

Clinical Activities

The Planning Conference (1)

A good experience between a teacher and his supervisor always involves effective

communication. The planning conference is an opportunity to communicate with a fellow educator about a unique classroom situation or style of teaching. It sets the stage for effective clinical supervision. The conference includes the identification of concerns, possible solutions to these concerns, and observation techniques.

Acheson and Gall recommend seven techniques to use in a planning conference (1).

1. Identify the teacher's concerns about instruction.
2. Translate the teacher's concerns into observable behaviors.
3. Identify procedures for improving the teacher's instruction.
4. Assist the teacher in setting self-improvement goals.
5. Arrange a time for classroom observation. Select a lesson that presents opportunities for the teacher's concerns and solutions to those concerns.
6. Select an observation instrument and behaviors to be recorded. Collect data to provide an objective check on the teacher's perceptions and to record phenomena that may have escaped the teacher's attention.
7. Clarify the instructional context in which data will be recorded.

Observational Records Based on Seating Charts (SCORE) (1)

Several types of observation may be accomplished through the use of seating charts. SCORE instruments have several advantages. A large amount of information can be recorded on one sheet. Little advance preparation is needed to use SCORE instruments. They are easy to use and interpret. They have multiple uses. Among the various SCORE techniques possible are Time-At-Task and Verbal Flow.

Time-At-Task (See Appendix A)

While the correlation between time-at-task behavior and learning is not perfect, one may conclude with a fair amount of confidence that when a student is at-task, learning is taking place. Typical at-task behaviors are reading, listening, completing worksheets, participating in group activity, etc. To use at-task observation, complete the following stages:

1. Sit in a section of the room where all students are visible.
2. Construct a chart to resemble a seating pattern of all students.
3. Indicate on the chart some identifying characteristics of each student.
4. Create a legend to represent at-task behavior and other behaviors.
5. Systematically record the behavior of each student by marking in each box. Ex. 1A with 1 representing the first observation and A representing at-task behavior.
6. Repeat step 5 at 3-4 minute intervals during the duration of the planned observation periods (not necessarily for the entire class period).
7. Indicate time of each set of observations by marking the time somewhere on the chart.

Verbal Flow (See Appendix B)

Verbal Flow is a process of recording who is talking to whom. Verbal flow can help a teacher avoid "location" bias, racial bias, sex bias, and other undesirable behavior in the attention given to individual students.

As with other SCORE techniques, the first step is to make a seating chart. A box is used to represent each student. Arrows are used to indicate the flow of verbal interaction. Analysis can assist teachers in determining how frequently they and their students use certain behaviors and whether they emphasize certain behaviors more than others.

Modified Interaction Analysis (See Appendix C)

Interaction Analysis is a system of recording and studying communication which takes place in the classroom. A modified form of Flanders Interaction Analysis was used in this project. Verbal interaction categories where teachers and students talk. Teacher talk included accepts feelings, praises, accepts ideas, asks questions, lectures, gives directions, and criticizes. Student talk may be initiated or in response to teacher talk.

The supervisor observes the class making systematic recordings of verbal behavior. Analysis of recordings reveal patterns of communications which may be modified to improve teaching.

Selective Verbatim (1)

Selective Verbatim is one technique for recording verbal classroom events. While many types of verbal events are important and may be studied with this technique, it is important to note that many authorities agree that the teacher's question-asking behavior is central to successful teaching. Among the advantages of selective verbatim are: one, it focuses the teacher's attention to what he/she says to students (the teacher is sensitized to the verbal process); secondly, it is selective, providing data for a teacher to work with a specific verbal process such as questioning; thirdly, it is objective and simple. One disadvantage is that it may cause the teacher to be self-consious in the presence of the observer. Another is that the selective aspect may discourage the teacher's view of overall performance.

The supervisor's task is to make a written record of each question asked by the teacher. Since teachers typically ask many questions, the supervisor might ask the teacher to estimate the length of the lesson. Then the supervisor uses time sampling, which means that the supervisor observes samples of the lesson (e.g. the first three minutes of the lesson, five minutes in the middle of the lesson, and three minutes at the end of the lesson).

The Feedback Conference

The successful feedback conference can occur if the following actions have preceded it:

1. In a planning conference, the teacher and supervisor have identified concerns and planned for collection of data to be used in analyzing specific classroom situations.
2. Before the observation, the teacher has clearly explained the objectives of the lesson and the strategies to be used.
3. The supervisor has recorded data from the class.

In the feedback conference, the supervisor should provide objective observational data. The data should be analyzed cooperatively by the supervisor and teacher, and agreement should be reached on what is happening. The teacher and supervisor interpret the data. The supervisor elicits the teacher's reactions to the data, and they consider possible causes. Together, teacher and supervisor reach decisions about actions for other classes.

Ideally, the feedback conference takes the following form:

1. The observer displays the data recorded during the observation. This is done without evaluative comments.
2. The teacher analyzes what was happening during the lesson as evidenced by the data. The supervisor simply helps to clarify what behaviors the recorded data represent.
3. The teacher, with the help of the supervisor, interprets the behaviors of teacher and students as represented by the data. At this stage the teacher becomes more evaluative because causes and consequences must be discussed as desirable or undesirable.
4. The teacher, with assistance from the supervisor, decides on alternative approaches for the future to attend to dissatisfactions with the observed teaching.
5. The supervisor reinforces the teacher's announced intentions for change when the supervisor agrees with them or helps the teacher modify the intentions if there is some disagreement.

Various authorities in clinical supervision have indicated that supervisors are often surprised at how easily these steps can be completed.

Research has shown that when teachers are supplied with adequate information and are allowed to act on it, they are skilled and willing to analyze, interpret, and decide on courses of action in a self-directed and constructive manner.

APPENDIX A

OBSERVATION RECORD BASED ON SEATING CHART

(SCORE)

"TIME-AT-TASK"

USE: To determine learner involvement in classwork.

PURPOSE: (1) To determine whether individual learners require as much time as provided to complete in-class assignments and

(2) To determine on which types of activities individual learners spend their class time.

CODES:
A - At task
B - Working on another subject
C - Gazing or daydreaming
D - Out of seat
E - Visiting with neighbors
F - Sleeping
G - Reading magazine

DIRECTIONS: Note the time of the initial observation at the top of the observation sheet. Proceed through the class, coding each person's behavior according to the categories provided. After coding all learners in order, continue repeating the sequence for a specific period of time.

Exhibit

Jan AEF	Tim AEC	Ragi CAA	Trina AAA	Sara FCA	Beth AEG
Susan AAA	Katy AAB	Cherri AAA	Bonnie ACC	Debra CCC	Sallye EEA
Linda GAA	Jenni AAA	Jeannie AAB	Jean ABB	Rona DAD	Nata DEA

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APPENDIX B

OBSERVATIONAL RECORD BASED ON SEATING CHART (SCORE)
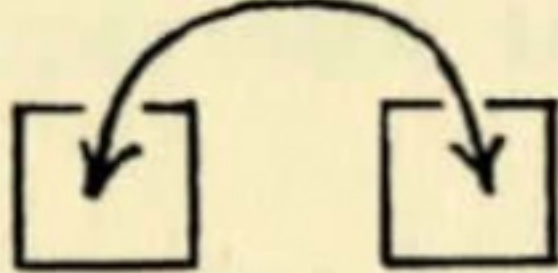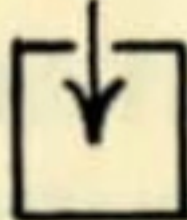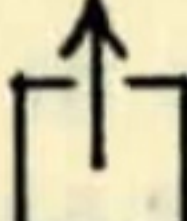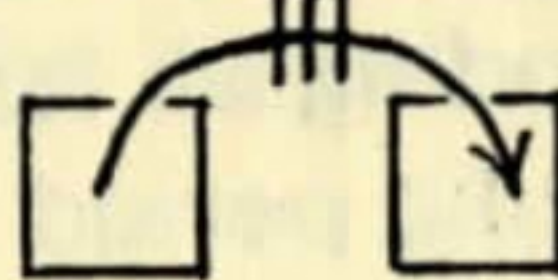
"Verbal Interaction Pattern"

USE: Whenever the class is involved in a discussion, this may provide a record of the interaction among students and/or between teacher and students.

PURPOSE: To determine if student involvement is widespread, and
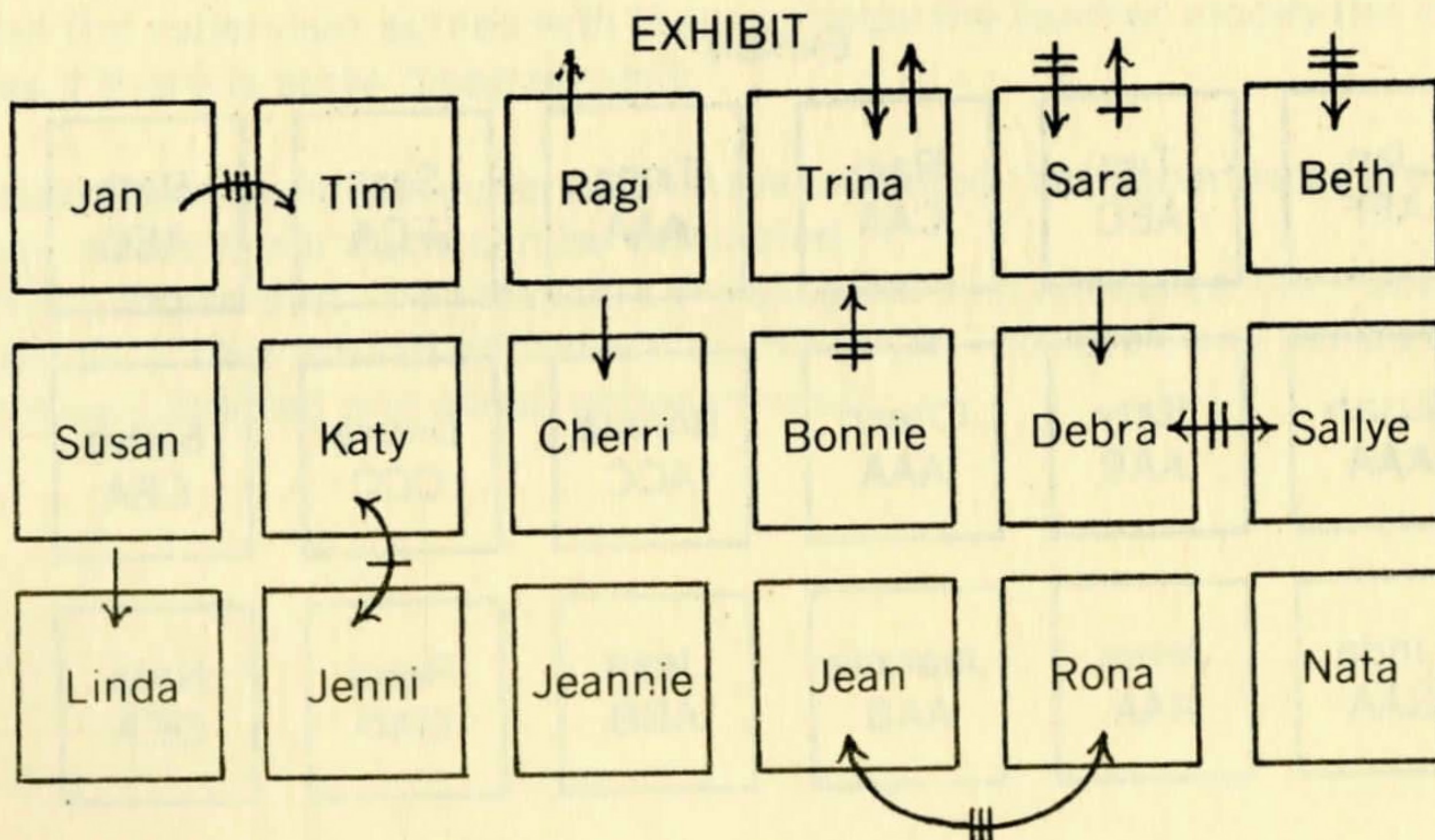To determine verbally active and verbally inactive portions of a class.

SYMBOLS: ↓ TEACHER DIRECTED STATEMENT OR QUESTION TO LEARNER

↑ LEARNER CONTRIBUTION TO CLASS

⇊ MULTIPLE QUESTIONS OR CONTRIBUTIONS

EXAMPLES:

Two learners have two conversations

Teacher questioning learner

Student answering teacher

One learner talking to another three times

EXHIBIT

Interaction Analysis Categories

TEACHER	1.	Accept feelings: Recognizes and identifies with feelings of students (empathetic), nonevaluative encouragement or joking, positive, affective response.
	2.	Praise: A positive value judgment.
	3.	Acceptance of student's statements: A restatement of the student's statement, either written on the board or verbal. This category would also include short, nonevaluative confirmation such as "okay," "alright."
	4.	Question: All questions which require a student response.
	5.	Direction: Giving directions and procedures; telling the students how to do something. This requires an immediate student response or behavior.
	6.	Initiate substantive information: Lecturing, giving facts, calculating, including writing new information on the board, rhetorical questions, and review information would be included in this category.
	7.	Justification of authority: Disciplinary action and criticism of a student's behavior would be included in this category.
	8.	Teacher controlled silence: Periods of silence which would include teacher demonstration, or the teacher lecturing, or the teacher examining her notes would be included under category.
STUDENT	9.	Student statements: This would include all student statements that are not questions.
	10.	Student questions: Questions asked by the students of one another or of the teacher would be placed in this category.
	11.	Affective response: Student responses that reflect student emotions or feelings about a certain topic.
	12.	Student activity: This would include activity such as students working in workbooks, reading silently to themselves or working with scientific apparatus, etc.
SPECIAL	13.	Division of student-to-student interaction: A mark for the separation between two students' interactions.
	14.	Nonfunctional behavior: Behavior without direction or purpose where no effective instruction is occurring.

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Cross Sectional Growth Patterns For Selected Motor Performance Variables

James DiNucci

Introduction

As a result of the theories of Montessori, Piaget, and others, the importance of motor experiences in the normal learning process of children has been recognized. Some evidence exists that the development of motor abilities in young children enhances learning in other areas and some investigators have concluded that optimum academic development is somewhat dependent upon neuromuscular development.

The purpose of this investigation was to examine selected parameters of motor performance for boys and girls ages 5 to 17 years to provide a clearer understanding of the development of these parameters in a large population of school age children. If a relationship between physical-motor development and intellectual abilities exists, standards of normal motor development must be established for the motor measures as they have been established for various mental measures.

The subjects for the investigation were all students enrolled in physical education classes in the Nacogdoches Independent School District. Each subject was administered a battery of valid, reliable, and objective test items to measure the variables of muscular strength, muscular endurance, speed, agility, and muscular power. Following the administration of the experimental test items the data were treated by various statistical procedures to achieve the objective of the study.

Objective

The objective of this investigation was to cross sectionally examine the changes in motor performance from age to age by computation of mean growth curves and velocity growth curves for each variable and to calculate norm referenced standards at each age.

Literature Review

A review of literature relating to this particular topic yields the fact that very few research efforts of this type have utilized female subjects and virtually no studies have been conducted with an age span from 5 to 17 years. The review that follows is comprehensive in that it represents the type of growth studies that have utilized motor performance variables.

Motor development may be identified by the level at which an individual is able to perform a physical movement. The movement may require intricate manipulative performance or some gross physical activity. Strength, speed, agility, coordination, explosive power, and accuracy are examples of types of motor performance which may represent differing developmental levels.

Espenschade (3) analyzed the performances of adolescent boys and girls on several gross motor performance variables. Girls did not improve on these tests after 14 years of age, but boys' mean performance continued to increase markedly at each age to 17 years. The broad jump and distance throw displayed the most improved performance, whereas target-throw efforts had no change.

The standing broad jump measures recorded in Watt's (7) convergence analysis were developed into a mean growth curve for that variable. For boys 9 and 17 years of age, this mean growth curve was nearly linear with only very slight deviations.

Jordan (6) reported the following findings with regard to explosive power as measured by the standing broad jump: (1) a range of inter-age correlations from .453 to .833 and (2) a nearly straight-line mean growth curve with slight deviations in a positive direction.

A linear growth curve showing consistent increases between the ages of 10 and 16 years was reported for standing broad jump performance by Docherty (2). This measure showed a significant difference at the .05 level in velocity rates between the age groups of 12-13 and 13-14. Variability for standing broad jump performance during the entire age span showed no identifiable pattern of increase or decrease.

Espenschade (4) administered the Brace test to 610 subjects between the ages of 10.5 and 16.0 years. The yearly rate of motor development during the adolescent period was very similar to growth in height. The rate of motor development increased after 14 years of age, with agility showing the most rapid development.

Yarmolenko (8) identified three patterns of motor development in the construction of mean growth curves from data on 420 boys ranging from 8 to 15 years of age. Between ages 9 and 10 years, a negative acceleration in growth occurred; between ages 10 and 13 years, boys had a positive acceleration. The boys showed some retardation in development with the onset of puberty.

Jordon (6) reported on tests of speed and agility as measured by the 60-yard shuttle run and the 10-foot run. A summary of his findings follows: (1) The 60-yard shuttle run approximated a straight-line growth curve and the 10-foot run indicated essentially the same pattern with the exception of two slight deviations.

Jokl and Cluver (5) used the 100-yard dash, 600-yard run, and shot put as measures of

motor ability for boys 6 to 18 years of age. Each measure was reported as having a linear relationship with age from 6 to 18 years. Atkinson (1) reported that the 50-yard dash for boys 14 and 17 years of age was 20.08 and 21.84 feet per second, respectively.

Justification

The foregoing review of literature is a sample of completed research dealing with the topic under investigation. The review revealed that previous motor performance research utilizing both male and female subjects has not been conducted to any great extent. This fact results in the inability to compare performance by sex or to create motor performance norms for both male and female populations. The creation of norms from objective test data is vital to interpretation of test results to students and parents and to the analysis of normal development patterns.

An additional problem that becomes evident is that previous research utilizing physical variables has not covered the full school age span from grades 1 through 12. This fact has led to piecemeal research efforts and the inability to draw comprehensive conclusions relative to these variables. The need for research of this type utilizing boys and girls over a wide age span and using the same variables for both sexes is very important to the fields of education, child development, and in particular to physical education.

While data collected from longitudinal research is preferable, cross-sectional data collected from a large sample population will yield information from which justifiable conclusions can be drawn. Because of the age range and sample size, this investigation provides extremely valuable data of a unique nature. The contribution to the body of knowledge in the area of motor performance is extensive.

Of a practical nature, the resultant data can be used as a framework to develop a motor performance report card for use in the schools of Nacogdoches. Utilizing the derived norms, school age children of the community could periodically be given a gross motor performance test battery and the results transmitted to their parents with an evaluation of their developmental status in this area.

Procedures

To achieve the objectives of this investigation, all students from grades 1 through 12 enrolled in physical education classes in the Nacogdoches Independent School District were utilized as subjects for this investigation. Each subject was administered a battery of motor performance test items that measure the motor performance variables of muscular strength, muscular endurance, agility, speed, and muscular power. The administration of the test items followed a thorough period of orientation to give each subject an opportunity to practice the test items. Prior practice was given to insure that test scores obtained on testing days were truly representative of each child's ability. This procedure is a universally accepted procedure in motor performance testing. The test battery utilized the following test items.

(1) Flexed Arm Hang
(2) 50-Yard Dash
(3) Standing Broad Jump
(4) Illinois Agility Run

The actual testing of subjects took place in the spring of the year after each child became thoroughly familiar with each test item. All students enrolled in physical education classes were tested during this period of time. Following the testing program the data were treated statistically to achieve the objectives of the investigation.

The statistical analysis of the data involved several procedures to adequately describe the obtained data.

1. To cross-sectionally analyze the motor performance changes from grade to grade, mean growth curves were computed. Age to age comparisons would be preferable but the organization of the testing program and the make-up of the classes prohibited this type of comparison for each of the variables utilized. This phase of statistical analysis allowed for examination of growth trajectory for each variable. To determine growth acceleration rates, velocity growth curves were plotted. These two statistical procedures provided information relative to the direction and rate of growth over the grade span K through 12.

2. Norm referenced standards were constructed by grade and sex for each variable by utilizing normalized 6-sigma score methods. This method permits data from non-normal distributions to be scaled into a normal distribution. This procedure is sometimes necessary because scores derived from motor performance testing many times will yield positively skewed distributions which prevents the application of standard norming procedures. Percentile tables were also constructed for use by the public school teacher.

Results

The statistical results of the investigation are presented in Tables I through IV and Figures 1 through 8. The velocity growth curves, standard score tables and percentiles are not presented here because of their extensive nature. Copies of this data may be obtained from the author.

Examination of Tables I and II and appropriate figures presents an interesting representation of changes in motor performance of the female subjects. With some slight variation in the middle school years, the female subjects had a rather linear improvement in muscular power through the entire growth span. Changes in muscular strength and endurance as measured by the flexed arm hang were minimal through grade five; improved dramatically in grade seven; and increased and decreased in subsequent years. For agility as measured by the Illinois agility run, little improvement was observed after grade two. The fifty yard dash time of the female subjects improved from grade one through grade eighth and then deviated until they reached their best performance level in grade 12.

Mean growth data for the male subjects is given in Tables III and IV. A graphic representation of the growth curves is presented in several figures.

The male subjects improved their mean performance on the several variables from grade one through twelve with very few deviations. Most of the improvement was linear but the velocity of change was most marked for the standing broad jump and the flexed arm hang after grade six. The only deviation in the growth curve for the standing broad jump occurred in grade six where a decrease in seven inches was observed over the value in grade five. Grade seven increased ten inches from grade six and the curve continued to accelerate.

Although the growth curve for the fifty yard dash was flatter, it yielded a change of almost 4.5 seconds in running speed over the twelve grade period. For the muscular strength and endurance variable (flexed arm hang), the mean growth curve was linear and portrayed a great deal of velocity except for slight deviations in grades four and six. Agility as measured by the Illinois agility run improved dramatically from grades one through seven deviated upward by 1.17 seconds in grade eight and then returned to a rather consistent pattern of change.

Discussion

The male data obtained in this investigation followed patterns of change demonstrated in previous research by the author and others. The data derived from testing the female subjects is somewhat unique in that cross sectional data of this magnitude has not been available from female populations. A weakness of cross sectional studies is the potential to have varying groups at each age level but longitudinal data of motor performance measures over a twelve year span would be difficult to obtain.

The deviation in linear changes which were observed for these subjects is probably due to various differences in the samples. It should be noted that the students were tested in physical education classes and many students are excused from physical education after grade six. Generally, deviations in the growth curves were observed after the sixth grade. In some instances, namely, female-speed, agility and strength and male-agility, the curves tended to flatten out in middle school. Undoubtedly some of these fluctuations are due to sociological factors not measured in this research. Since the data and the percentile and standard score tables developed in this investigation will be used in physical education classes, the data are considered to represent the population from which they were derived.

TABLE I

FEMALE SUBJECTS — MEAN PERFORMANCE

Grade	Standing Broad Jump (Inches)	50-Yard Dash (Seconds)	Flexed Arm Hang (Seconds)	Illinois Agility Run (Seconds)
1	34.486	10.834	8.638	26.611
2	44.320	10.578	8.620	24.736
3	46.760	9.744	9.148	22.642
4	49.960	9.492	9.546	22.096
5	55.300	8.658	9.476	20.780
6	58.460	8.664	11.040	21.022
7	62.980	8.318	9.660	20.780
8	62.906	7.700	15.556	20.644
9	63.480	7.912	10.670	20.694
10	63.500	8.040	12.074	20.852
11	62.360	8.186	10.768	20.434
12	68.583	7.625	17.433	21.575

TABLE II

GRADE BY GRADE MEAN DIFFERENCES — FEMALES

Grade	Standing Broad Jump (Inches)	50-Yard Dash (Seconds)	Flexed Arm Hang (Seconds)	Illinois Agility Run (Seconds)
1-2	9.83	-.25	-.02	-1.87
2-3	2.44	-.84	+.53	-2.65
3-4	3.20	-.25	+.40	-.53
4-5	5.34	-.83	-.07	-1.31
5-6	3.16	0	+1.56	+.24
6-7	4.52	-.34	-1.38	-.24
7-8	-.07	-.64	+5.90	-.14
8-9	.57	+.21	-4.89	+.05
9-10	.02	+.13	+1.40	+.16
10-11	-1.14	+.15	1.30	1.42
11-12	6.22	-.56	+6.66	+1.15

TABLE III

MALE SUBJECTS — MEAN PERFORMANCE

Grade	Standing Broad Jump (Inches)	50-Yard Dash (Seconds)	Flexed Arm Hang (Seconds)	Illinois Agility Run (Seconds)
1	36.212	10.922	10.014	25.677
2	47.780	9.964	12.668	22.860
3	52.840	9.184	15.772	21.392
4	55.020	9.078	14.222	20.988
5	59.660	8.248	16.528	20.550
6	52.620	8.530	12.808	20.364
7	62.560	7.760	18.346	18.666
8	69.071	7.218	20.596	19.832
9	71.460	7.276	22.248	19.630
10	77.780	6.860	28.714	19.086
11	81.206	6.647	32.873	19.582
12	86.000	6.436	42.550	18.136

TABLE IV

GRADE BY GRADE MEAN DIFFERENCES — MALES

Grade	Standing Broad Jump (Inches)	50-Yard Dash (Seconds)	Flexed Arm Hang (Seconds)	Illinois Agility Run (Seconds)
1-2	11.57	-.96	+2.66	-2.82
2-3	5.06	-.78	+3.10	-1.47
3-4	2.18	-.1	-1.55	-.4
4-5	4.64	-.83	+2.31	-.44
5-6	7.04	+.28	+3.72	-.19
6-7	9.94	-.77	+5.54	-1.69
7-8	6.51	-.54	+2.25	+1.16
8-9	2.39	+.06	+1.65	-.20
9-10	6.32	+.42	+6.46	-.54
10-11	3.43	+.21	+4.16	+.49
11-12	4.79	+.21	+9.68	-1.44

FIGURE I

Male Mean Growth Curve
Standing Broad Jump
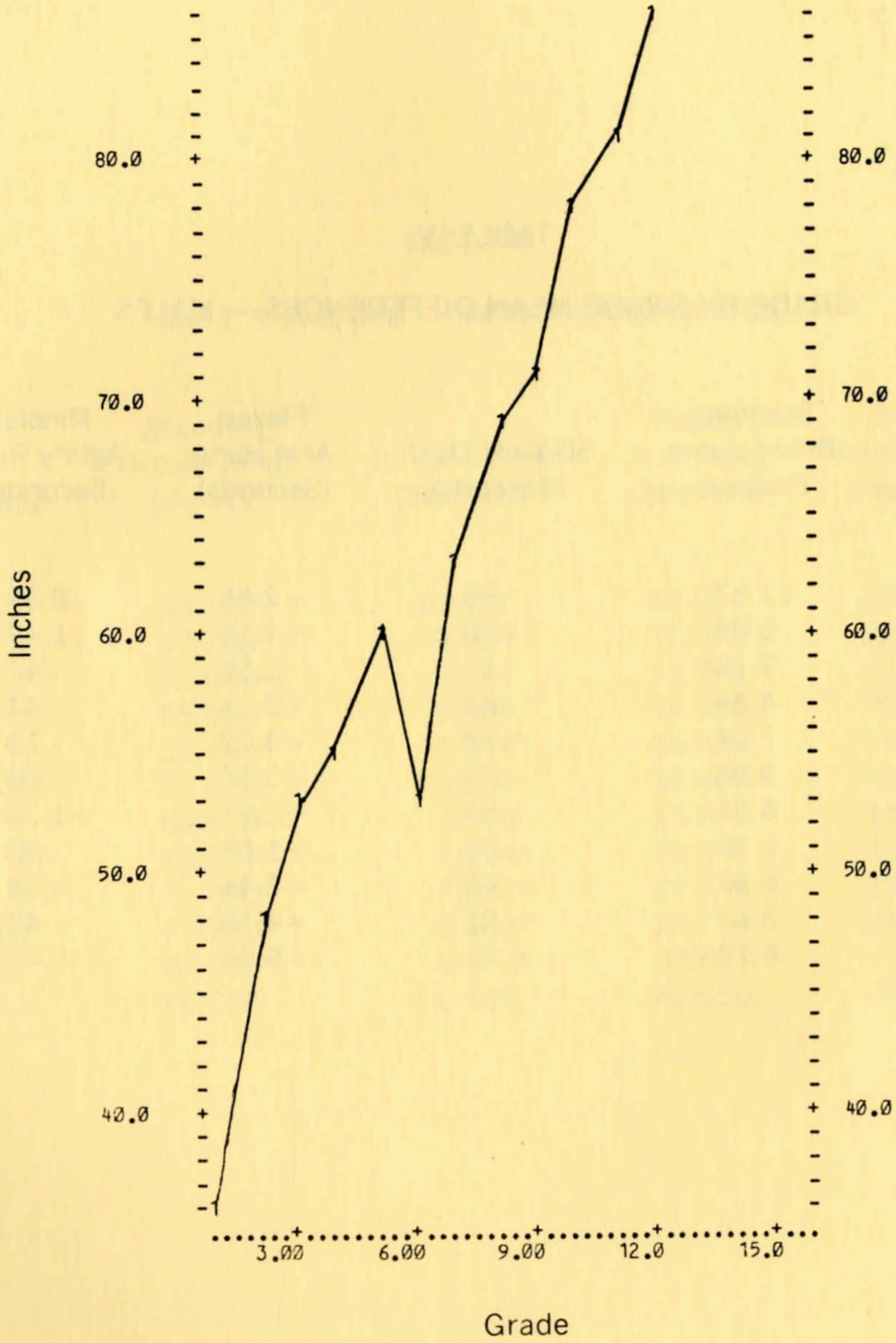
FIGURE 2

Female Mean Growth Curve
Standing Broad Jump

Inches

Grade
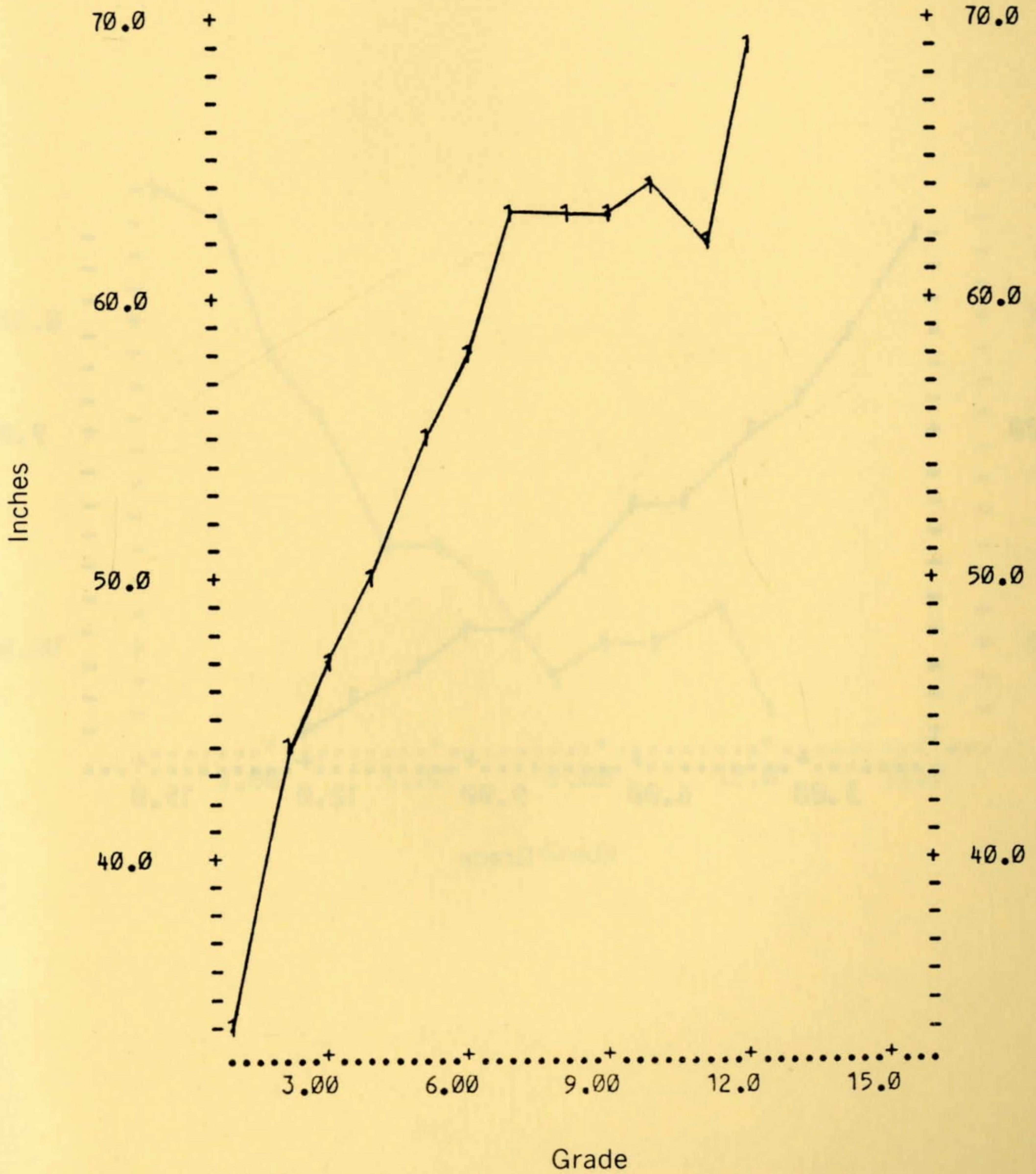
FIGURE 3
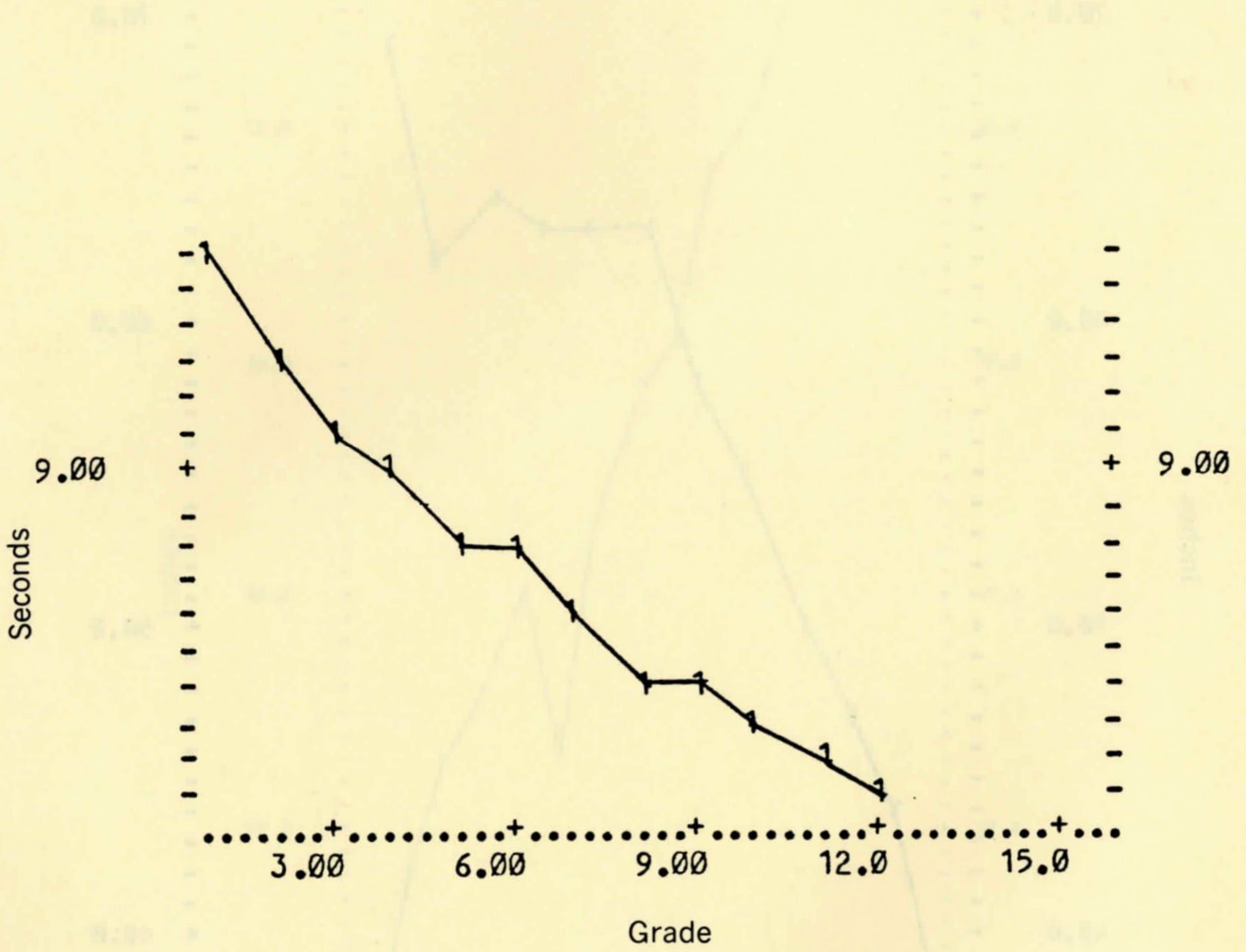
Male Mean Growth Curve
50-Yard Dash

FIGURE 4
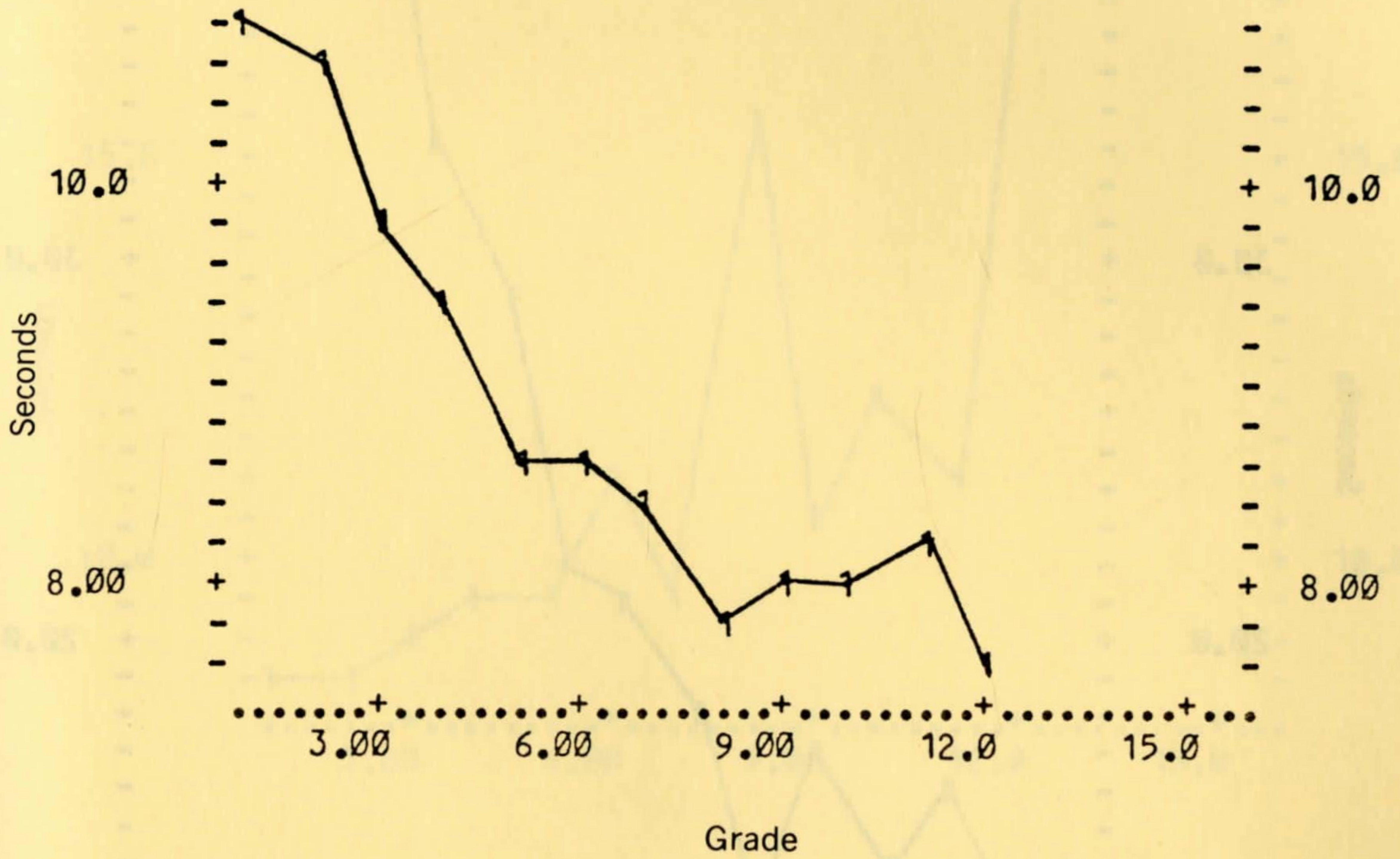
Female Mean Growth Curve
50-Yard Dash

FIGURE 5

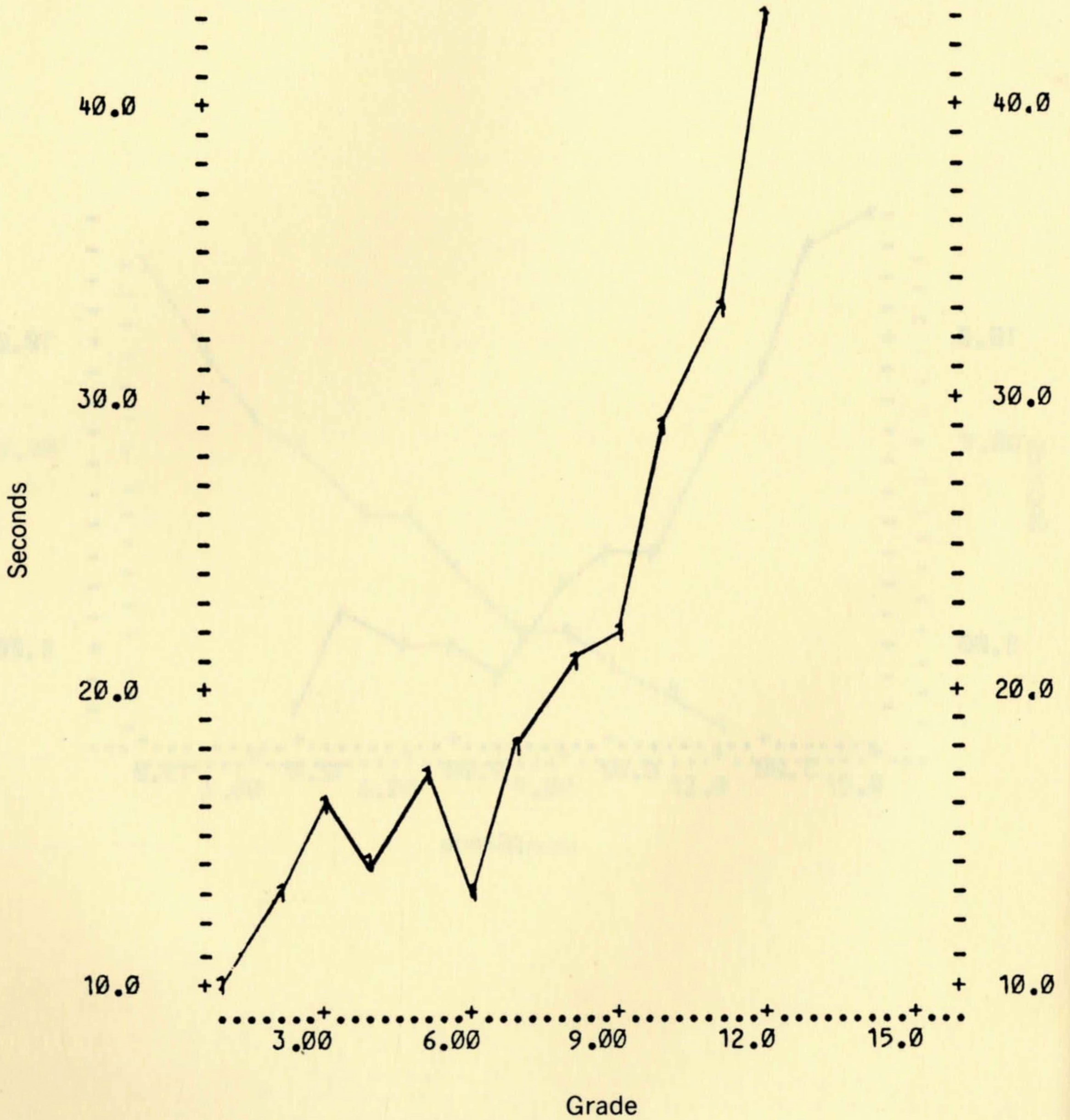Male Mean Growth Curve
Flexed Arm Hang
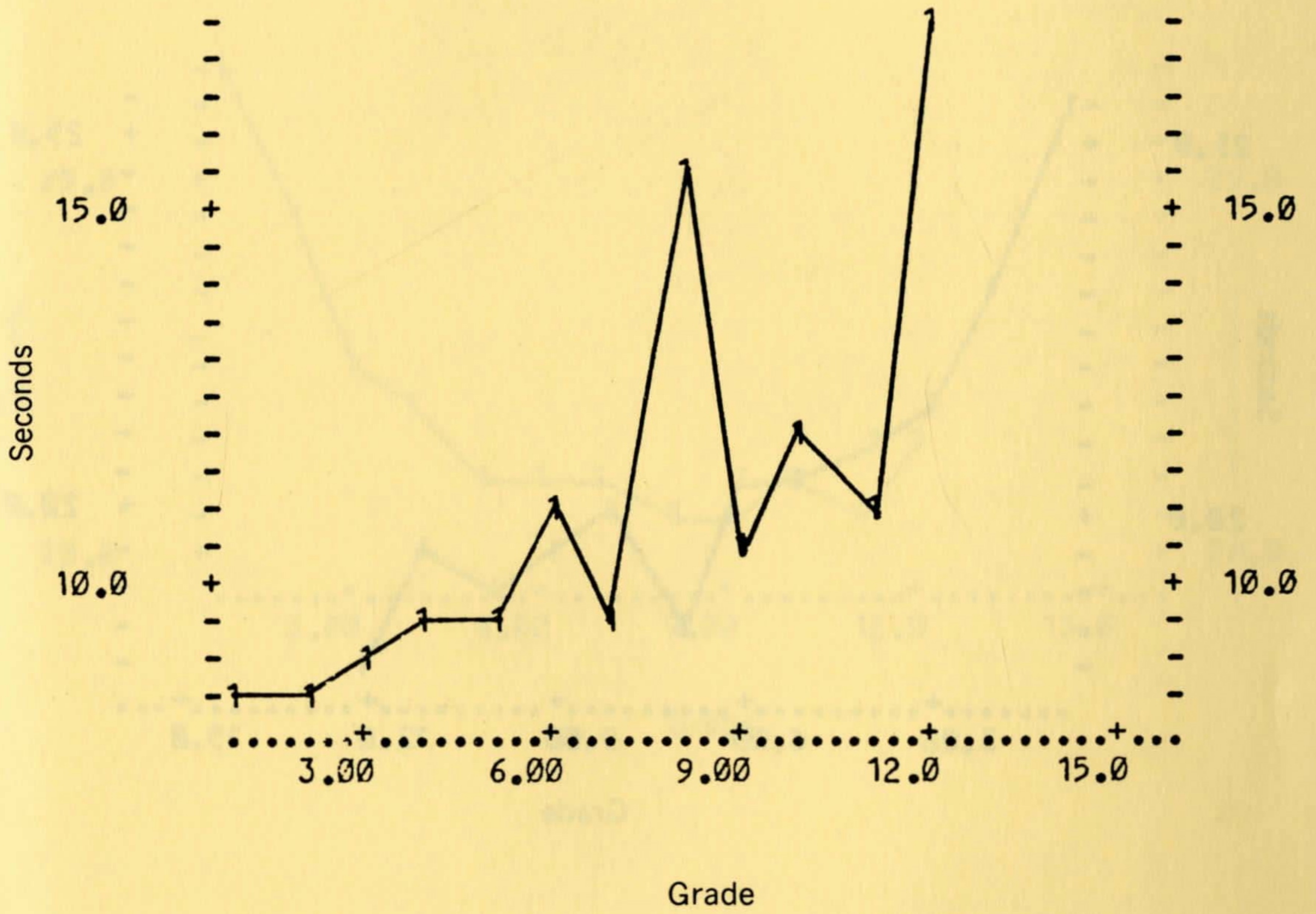
FIGURE 6

Female Mean Growth Curve
Flexed Arm Hang

FIGURE 6

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FIGURE 7

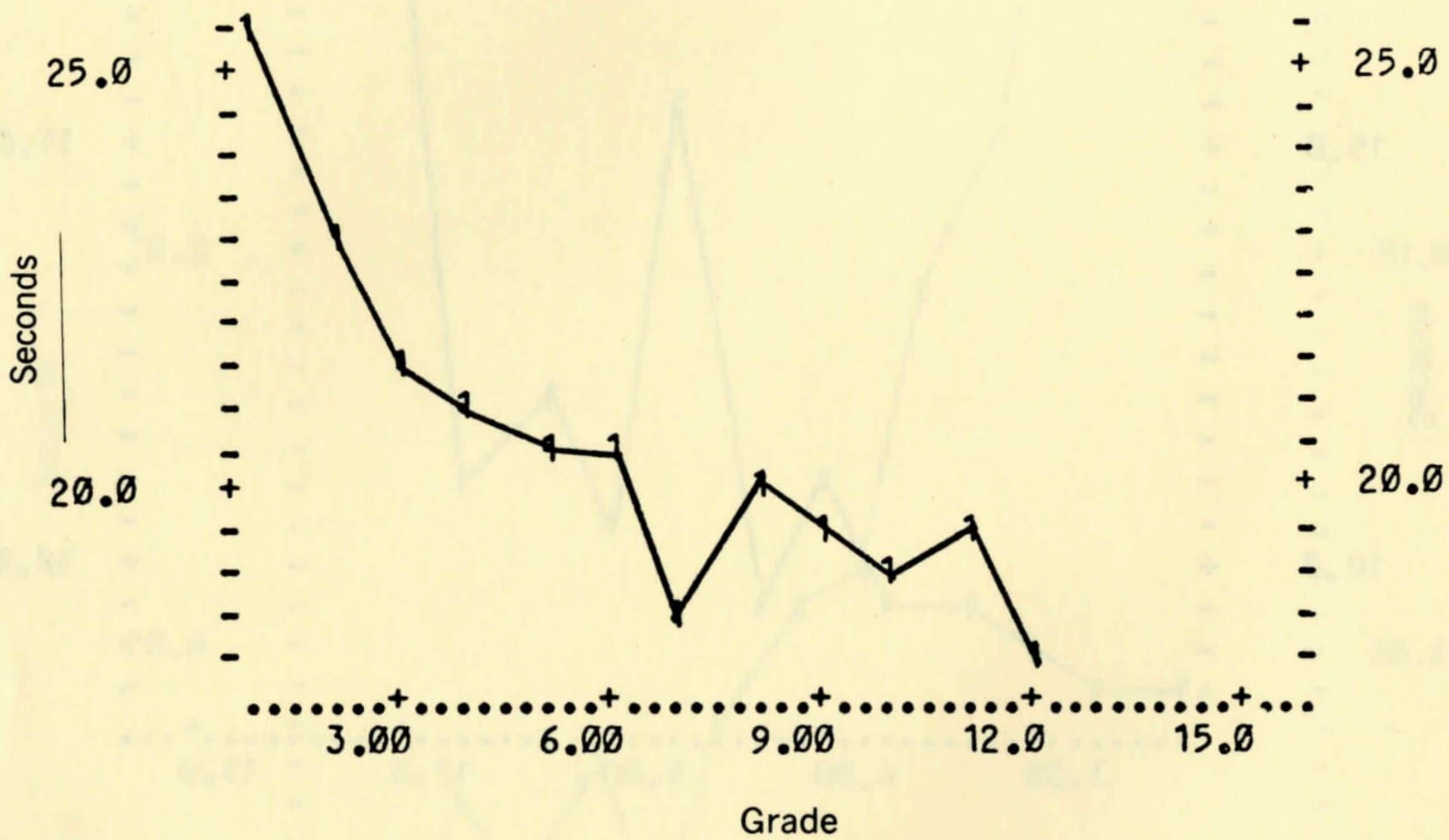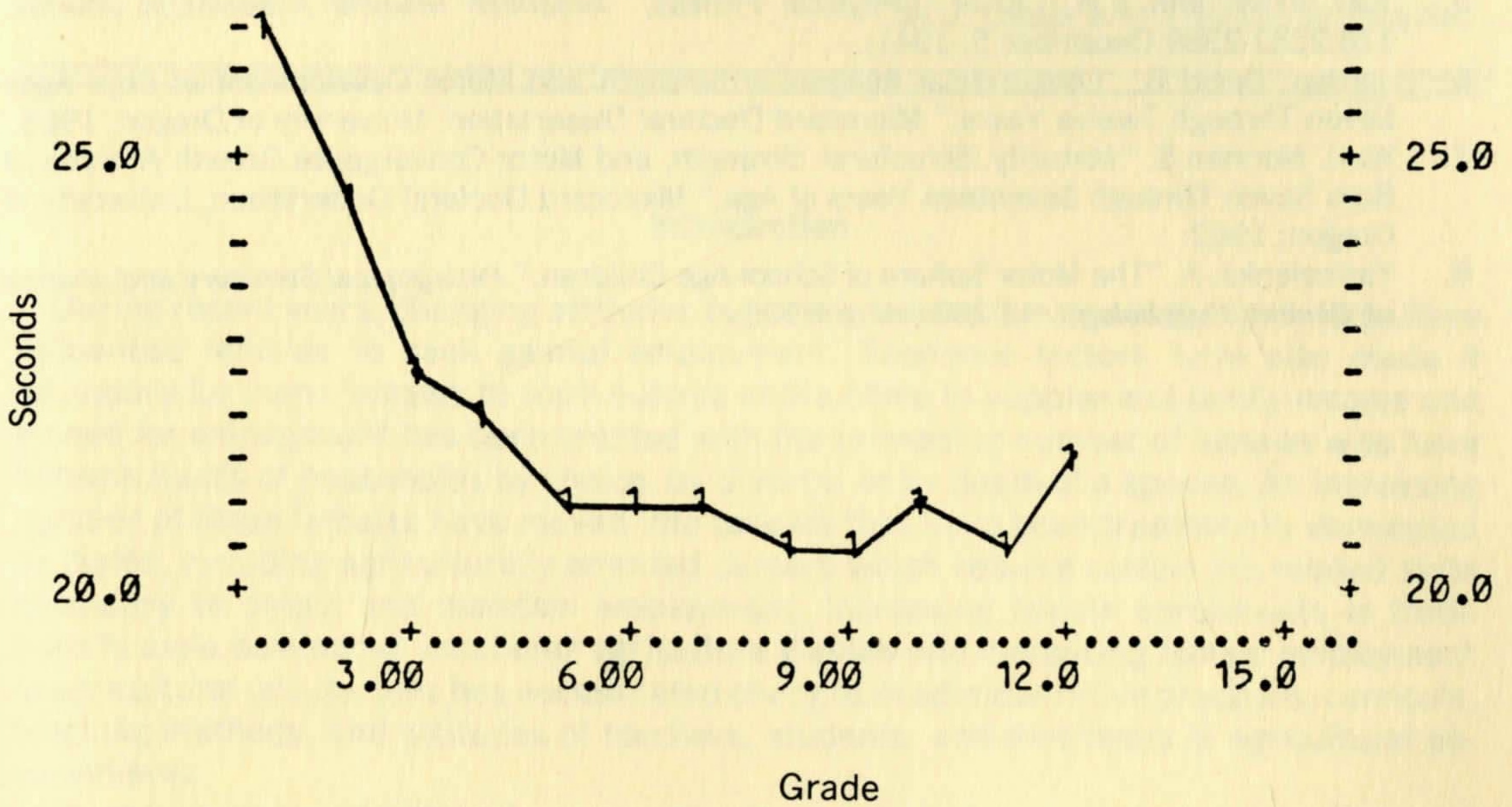## Male Mean Growth Curve
Illinois Agility Run

FIGURE 8

Female Mean Growth Curve
Illinois Agility Run

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An Assessment of Vocational Agriculture Programs as Perceived by Female Students

M.J. Cepia and Thomas A. Quarles

Introduction

During recent years, changing attitudes by society toward females in the work force have influenced females to seek gainful employment. Economic factors have also made it necessary for many females to work outside of the home to supplement family income and a need for employment has been created with the increasing number of females who have become heads of households by choice, by divorce, or by death of a spouse. An increasing number of these females have moved into careers that have been traditionally dominated by males, including agriculturally oriented careers which require certain job related skills necessary to obtain and maintain employment. Increasing female enrollments in traditionally male-dominated vocational agriculture classes and increasing female employment in agricultural occupations has necessitated changes in administrative practices, curricula, teaching methods, and attitudes of teachers, students, and employers in agricultural environments.

To insure that educational, occupational, social, and economic opportunities are equitable for women and men, federal legislation has been passed to provide for the legal aspects of respective situations. Passage of the Education Amendments of 1972 was used to establish guidelines by which equal education is to be provided regardless of sex. More specifically, Title IX of the 1972 amendments was used to guarantee that any educational program would be allowed equal access, participation in, and absence of discrimination by any person on the basis of sex. Additionally, specific provisions were made by legislators in the Vocational Education Amendments of 1976 to overcome sex discrimination and sex stereotyping in vocational programs and to furnish equal education opportunities to persons of both sexes. Both the 1972 and 1976 amendments have served as cornerstones on which developing trends regarding the status of women in vocational education programs and in occupational work forces are based. For vocational agriculture programs to be most

effective in preparing female students for careers in agriculture, agricultural educators have needed to determine how female students perceived the program.

Objectives

The primary purpose of this study was to determine female vocational agriculture students' perceptions of the vocational agricultural program in Texas. In order to accomplish this purpose, the following objectives were formulated:

1. To determine female students' perceptions of the problems perceived in vocational agriculture programs.
2. To identify problems perceived to be curriculum oriented.
3. To identify problems perceived to be student oriented.
4. To identify problems perceived to be school oriented.

Methods and Procedures

Population and Sample

The sample examined in this study included all schools within the 10 geographical areas of Texas in which female students were enrolled in regular vocational agriculture programs. The area consultants of each of the 10 areas submitted a list of 25 schools in which female vocational agriculture students were enrolled. A letter, requesting participation in the study, was mailed to teachers in each of the 250 vocational agriculture departments. Of the vocational agriculture teachers contacted, 165 responded, yielding a 73.3 percent return and a potential sample of 2,516 female students.

The 165 schools were then stratified by area and 70 schools were randomly selected. Of the 70 schools selected, students from 64 departments completed questionnaires, yielding a 91.4 percent return. A sample of 735 female vocational agriculture students was included in the data analysis. Procedures suggested by Oliver and Hinkle were used to verify the appropriateness of the sample size for use in statistical analyses.

Data Gathering Instrument

After development of an initial questionnaire, an advisory committee consisting of 10 vocational agriculture teachers, three teacher educators, and two Texas Education Agency personnel was selected to review the questionnaire. Following review and revisions, the questionnaire was field tested utilizing five students from each of 10 vocational agriculture programs. The field tests by female students were assessed and revisions were made to further enhance the quality of the instrument. The questionnaire was submitted to the Research Coordinating Unit of the Texas Education Agency for final approval.

Findings

Open Response Analysis

The questionnaire contained two open response questions to which students indicated perceived problems regarding their enrollment in vocational agriculture and problems that they observed other female students experience in vocational agriculture. These responses were ranked by the students in descending order from one to three. A numerical value was placed on the responses in order to mathematically weigh the factors in reporting cumulative responses.

The results of the rank orders for both open response questions were found to be essentially the same. The factor found to rank first among the students surveyed was that female vocational agriculture students are not accepted by male students in vocational agriculture. The factor ranking second indicated that male students perceived female students less capable of performing agricultural skills. The fourth, fifth, and sixth ranked problems (in order) were inadequate restroom facilities for female students, non-acceptance by vocational agriculture teachers, and low expectations of female students. The female students perceived inadequate opportunities to develop shop skills as the seventh ranked problem.

Descriptive Analysis of the Data

Students indicated their perceptions of the vocational agriculture program by responding to selected statements that were divided into four groups or areas. These groups represented statements that were curriculum oriented, school oriented, student oriented, and employment oriented. The students responded to each of the selected statements by indicating the degree to which they agreed or disagreed with each statement. The responses were arranged in a Likert scale format, in which the student could respond to five degrees of influence. (Strongly agree - 1, slightly agree - 2, neutral - 3, slightly disagree - 4, and strongly disagree - 5). Real limits were determined for use in analyzing the values obtained.

Mean values, frequencies of response categories, and standard deviations of the sample were obtained for each of the selected statements. These mean values, frequency of response categories, and standard deviations were used to rank order the selected statements, which indicated factors affecting female students enrolled, according to the student sample response.

Curriculum Factors

The students responded to selected statements regarding curriculum aspects of the program. These aspects included curriculum materials, curriculum content, and curriculum activities.

The number one ranked statement was "illustration of female student performing agriculture tasks in curriculum materials", with a mean value of 2.11. Ranked second was "curriculum materials contain word phrases pertaining to female students". The statement "curriculum materials contain information on career opportunities for female students" was ranked third by the student sample.

Although the mean values for the aforementioned statements were within the real limits for slightly agree (1.50-2.49) it should be noted that the number of students indicating a disagree or strongly disagree response was somewhat large. For example, an examination of the response statement "curriculum materials illustrate female students performing agricultural tasks" revealed a mean value of 2.13 which indicated that the students slightly agreed with the statement. However, 90 students (12.24 percent) slightly disagree or strongly disagree with the statement indicating some students perceived this factor might adversely affect female students enrolled in vocational agriculture.

The fourth and fifth ranked statements affecting female students were "adequate opportunities exist for females to obtain shop skills and livestock handling skills". The mean values indicated the students slightly agreed with the factor that adequate opportunities existed to develop shop skills. It was also noted that 12.24 percent of the sample slightly disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

School Factors

Several statements within the questionnaire were developed to identify factors affecting females enrolled in vocational agriculture that might be classified as being school related. The statement receiving the highest mean value (2.22) was "administration encourages enrollment of males and females in vocational agriculture programs". It was noted that 68 students slightly disagreed with the statement and 68 students strongly disagreed with the statement.

The second ranked factor was identified as "non-vocational agriculture teachers feel vocational agriculture is an acceptable program for females", with a calculated mean value of 2.15. Seventy-two of the students indicated that they strongly disagreed with the statement.

Adequate discipline by the teacher, female acknowledgements by the teacher, equal expectations by the teacher, and career opportunities counseling were the third, fourth, fifth, and sixth ranked factors affecting the female students with mean values of 1.95, 1.58, 1.58, and 1.44 respectively.

Student Factors

The third area or group of factors affecting female students enrolled in vocational agriculture was identified as those that were student oriented. The statement, "nonvocational agriculture students perceive vocational agriculture as a program for females," ranked fifth with a mean value of 2.50. One hundred seventy-one students slightly

disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement, indicating the factor affected the respondents more adversely than other student factors did.

"Vocational agriculture teachers encourage enrollment of female students in vocational agriculture" was the second ranked statement with a mean value of 1.60. Fifty-two students slightly or strongly disagreed with the statement. The third and fourth ranked factors were "families support females enrolling in vocational agriculture" and "female students are accepted by male vocational agriculture students". Both factors had mean values of 1.50. The fifth ranked mean value indicated students strongly agreed that female students enrolled in vocational agriculture perceived vocational agriculture as a program designed for females.

Employment Opportunity Factors

The last group of factors identified as affecting female students enrolled in vocational agriculture was the area related to female employment opportunities in agricultural occupations. The first ranked factor in this area was "female students are informed of agriculturally related occupations in the community." This factor had a mean value of 1.90 with 52 of the students slightly disagreeing and 22 of the students strongly disagreeing with the statement. The students ranked the statement "agricultural employers accept female students" second with a mean value of 1.88. The third ranked factor "the community accepts female students in agricultural related occupations" had a mean value of 1.75. It was noted that mean values for all three factors were within the real limits for the slightly agree category.

Conclusions

Many factors may affect female students enrolled in vocational agriculture programs in Texas. The analysis of the data indicated some positive factors or strengths of the program. Conversely, female vocational agriculture students assessed some factors as having slightly adverse effects on them.

Likert scale responses from students did not indicate factors having a prominent adverse effect on them. All mean values ranged in the strongly agree to slightly agree category, except for one factor having a mean value of 2.50 (neutral), indicating overall positive attitudes toward the program. The factors identified as adversely affecting female students were determined from a combination of the mean values, the frequencies of the statements receiving slightly or strongly disagree responses, and an evaluation of the open response portion of the instrument.

Through completed research, the following positive attitudes were found to be prevalent among female students surveyed.

1. Results from completed research indicated that females enrolled in the regular vocational agriculture programs in Texas have positive attitudes toward the programs. Their overall views are wholesome, their experiences

rewarding, and the program is perceived as being beneficial.

2. Female vocational agriculture students indicated they were given adequate opportunities to participate in FFA programs and activities such as leadership and judging teams, chapter offices, and the supervised occupational experience program.

Any program, regardless of its vitality should undergo routine evaluation to insure continued success. Several areas requiring attention by each vocational agriculture teacher include the following.

1. Female vocational agriculture students may not be readily accepted by male students in vocational agriculture.
2. Some female students may not be adequately informed concerning related occupations.
3. Students who are not enrolled in vocational agriculture may not perceive vocational agriculture as a program for females.
4. Some female students indicated that male students believe females are less capable of performing agricultural skills. Likewise, some female students also share this belief.
5. Some school administrators do not encourage enrollment of females in vocational agriculture programs.
6. Some vocational agriculture teachers have a negative attitude toward female students. Some vocational agriculture teachers do not believe vocational agriculture is an acceptable program for females and some teachers do not have the same expectations of male and female students.
7. In some instances, restroom facilities are inadequate for female students.
8. Some female students do not believe they are given the opportunity to develop certain mechanical or livestock handling skills.
9. Students indicated that some materials did not illustrate female students performing agricultural tasks, did not contain word phrases pertaining to female students, and did not provide information concerning agriculture career opportunities for females.

This research effort has shown that vocational agriculture teachers in Texas have made progress in eliminating sex bias, stereotyping, and discrimination even though vocational agriculture has traditionally been a male-dominated program. Positive steps have been made to make the program fully accessible to members of both sexes. Continued success of vocational agriculture programs will be dependent upon the provision of favorable environments in which students may learn basic agricultural competencies.

Recommendations

After analyzing the findings and conclusions of this research study, the following recommendations were formulated:

1. Teachers should instill the attitude among male students that female students are a very beneficial part of the program.
2. Vocational agriculture teachers should include appropriate career guidance teaching units during each year of instruction for all students.
3. Vocational agriculture teachers should use all available media to inform non-vocational agriculture students and other important clientele that an education in agriculture will benefit both female and male students.
4. Vocational Agriculture teachers should give female students the opportunity and encouragement to perform agricultural skills so they will gain confidence in their knowledge and ability and male students will realize that females can perform tasks equally.
5. It is important to communicate with administrators and faculty concerning the enrollment of male and female students according to other interests, employment desires, and future educational objectives.
6. The Texas Education Agency staff, teacher educators, and vocational agriculture teachers should continue to project a positive attitude toward providing vocational agriculture programs which meet the needs of all students. Programs developed around this premise should be conducted at district, area, and state inservice meetings.
7. School administrators and vocational agriculture teachers should analyze the problem of inadequate restroom facilities. The accessibility and/or adequacy of restroom facilities for female students should be determined.
8. Vocational agriculture teachers should have the same expectations of male and female students.
9. Commercially developed curriculum materials should include female students in illustrations, word phrases, and agricultural career opportunities.

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