

# ADMINISTRATIVE LEADERSHIP



## The Role of Curriculum in Administrative Leadership

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The Role of Curriculum  
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## EDITORIAL

One of the well-established principles in American education is that major decisions involving curriculum should be made at the local level. While there are limitations to this principle, there is little evidence to suggest that the American public or the educational enterprise is of a mind to reject it. Local educational leadership, today as in the past, is largely responsible for setting policy for its schools and for curriculum design, development and implementation in its schools.

Because the public clings to this philosophy, every local educator must accept a share in the responsibility for the curriculum as it is locally developed and ultimately carried out through instruction. The major role of the teacher is perhaps most easily and clearly defined, that of translating the district curriculum into meaningful, sequential segments of instruction from day to day. Not so readily apparent nor so easily conceived, is the role of curriculum leadership for various administrative officers of the district. Every administrative leader, regardless of the definitive nature of his position, has an over-arching responsibility to help formulate curriculum philosophy, content, implementation and evaluation. Predicated upon this tenet, the topic, "The Role of Curriculum in Administrative Leadership," was chosen for the November issue.

The four major contributors to this issue of the journal, address themselves to widely varying facets of the topic. George Edberg develops a rationale for present day curriculum philosophy, while Clair Haberman discusses patterns for local curriculum development and includes illustrative examples. Alan Humphreys and Rodney Tillman explore components of curriculum improvement as related to the principalship. Complementing the articles are reviews of two recently published books.

And while there is still agreement that curriculum decisions are mainly a product of the local school community, the influence of forces external to the community is sharply recognized. Most would agree that it is time school programs get in step with changes taking place in the world outside the school. To do so, school administrators must sharpen perceptions concerning the role of curriculum as it relates to individual responsibilities and seek sound avenues of action.

## ADMINISTRATIVE LEADERSHIP IN CURRICULUM

George Edberg, Formerly Assistant  
Superintendent for Curriculum and  
Instruction, St. Paul Public Schools

A present day Mark Twain might well remark that curriculum, like the weather, is something that everyone talks about. It is most unlikely, however, that he would have any reason to complain about the fact that no one does anything about it -- or at least tries to. Is there any other aspect of education that has come in for more effort during the last two decades?

There are several notions as to just what is meant by curriculum. For the purpose of this article, the meaning and a review of its early evolution will be based upon information contained in the Third Edition of the **Encyclopedia of Educational Research**.

Curriculum will be thought of as all of the experiences which the learner has under the influence of the school. It is meant to include all of the planned experiences and the controlled conditions under which the student learns to behave in various ways--particularly those ways which can be considered to be terminal behavior. It will be thought of as the complex of experiences by means of which new behavior is acquired and under which equal behavior is fortified, modified, or eliminated--always with a view toward developing skills and attitudes which are viable and a life style which will lead to personal fulfillment, and toward developing the capacities needed to become a worthy and productive member of society.

The learner will, of course, be affected by influences other than the program of studies, the school's co-curricular offerings, the school staff and the many other aspects of the student's daily fare. Effective curriculum has always recognized the profound effect

which the home and the community has on the learner's reaction to school experience, even though these influences may not lend themselves to school manipulation.

It does not seem that an attempt at a comprehensive history of curriculum development would contribute much to the topic under consideration. However, a brief review may be helpful. In a less complex society, it may have been sufficient to pass on the *morés*, folkways and the relatively simple skills needed to sustain life and social customs from one generation to the next. Even when the clan or other social unit gave way to a somewhat more sophisticated social structure, the efforts continued to be mainly an attempt to pass on to youth what Brubaker referred to as "the funded capital of social experience." At a time when knowledge accumulated slowly and technological change took place at a leisurely rate, this could suffice as the function of formal education.

There is no evidence that any great amount of thought had been directed toward curriculum theory or to the establishment and delineation of learning objectives, as thought of now, prior to the beginning of the present century. Although it is recognized that education had its objectives earlier, these seem to have been neglected or regarded as secondary during the time when faculty psychology and mental discipline held sway. Even in the earlier days of formal education, there was reference to such objectives as the training of young men to fight, philosophize and be gentlemen as espoused by the Greeks. The Roman emphasis was on training talented young men to govern, and the Christian schools stressed a knowledge of the faith.

The work of educational psychologists and the developments in mental measurement during the earlier part of the present century raised some very serious doubts about such concepts as separate faculties, mental discipline, and the direct transfer of learning. As more and more knowledge accumulated about how and why students learn, more and more learning objectives reflected the needs and purposes of the learner. These objectives came to replace those

that had been based upon the more unrealistic assumption that the child would recognize the need for and devote himself to preparing for the purposes and demands of adult living.

That the schools are still short of a "learner-centered" curriculum is quite obvious when one considers the disenchantment expressed by many of the students--some by their lack of enthusiasm, others by their outright rebellion against what they consider to be of little or no practical value to them. It seems ironic that this rebellion should come at a time when more effort is being directed toward effective educational programs than at any time in history.

There is no intention here to suggest that a golden mean has been reached in the effort to provide the optimum in educational programs and the notion sometimes expressed, that educational change in recent years has been "revolutionary" seems to be an obvious overstatement. Nevertheless, many of the schools do differ markedly from what they were a few short years ago, and there is more than a little evidence that some very significant changes have occurred. There is good reason to believe that a massive reorganization of what should be taught, and how best it can be taught, is under way.

The extensive and intensive efforts toward curriculum reform which have had such a profound effect upon instructional programs in recent years have come about for several reasons. Among them have been such compelling forces as: (1) the hope that an expanding and more affluent middle class has seen in education a means toward a better life for its children; (2) the realization that one simply cannot afford to have a significant number of citizens ill-equipped to take their place in society; (3) substantial improvements in textbooks and other instructional materials; (4) vast improvements in school building design and instructional equipment; (5) and, most of all, teachers and administrators who have recognized that a fast changing culture and the rapid accumulation of knowledge demand a more adoptable and a more effective approach to instruction.

It is in this last area that school administrators have such a vital

role to play. The old adage that "nothing happens until someone makes it happen" has a most fitting application to the leadership responsibility of those who develop and administer the policies and procedures of a school or school system.

Placing all blame for whatever shortcomings the schools have, or are thought to have, on the shoulders of administration would be grossly unfair to the many who have labored mightily to provide the best schools possible under many difficult circumstances. Anyone who has been a part of the educational scene during the past two decades, and particularly, those who have had administrative responsibilities during this period, is well acquainted with the many frustrating problems that school management has faced.

The greatest number of these problems have their genesis in a lack of financial capability. Two almost inexorable forces influence, if not actually dictate, what schools can or cannot do. One of these has been the consistent and sometimes very substantial increase in pupil numbers; the other has been the constant escalation of costs resulting from a rising spiral of inflation. Both of these forces have translated themselves into financial demands that have placed school administrators in the same awkward position as the character in **Alice in Wonderland** who had to run fast just to stand still.

These problems of providing the physical needs of a school district have tended to have an eroding effect upon the administrator's most important role--that of improving instruction.

There is no intention here to suggest that leadership implies that the administrator must be the "idea man." There is more than a little validity in the saying that "he who leads least, leads best." However, it is the responsibility of school administration to provide the financial support, the facilities and, above all, the climate which is conducive to change. A climate which not only lets good things happen but which inspires and encourages the best efforts of everyone in every possible way. Staff morale is a priceless ingredient and it is much more apt to trickle down from the top than to well up from the bottom.

The notion is widely accepted that if a school is to become better, it must become different. Also, making a school different usually carries a price tag which may be difficult to accommodate. Nevertheless, one of the greatest deterrents to this betterment is the reticence on the part of school administrators to seek or to accent change. This reticence is understandable. Change usually carries with it an element of threat -- a fear of the unknown. When change involves a social institution, especially one affecting children, the threat seems even more ominous.

This timidity or reluctance to inaugurate or implement change is too often predicated upon reasons or excuses which have little basis in fact. Some of the reasons or excuses that have been advanced and an attempt at a refutation of the logic, or lack of it, that attends them may be helpful. They will be referred to, however, as "concerns" and "assurances."

### **CONCERNS**

1. Our educational system has produced a society and an economy which is the envy of every other civilized country in the world. Since it has done so well, it would be most unwise to institute any drastic changes.
2. Our teachers and other staff members are neither willing nor able to handle the new approaches that the change requires. They can best serve this community by teaching the way they were taught and in the way they were taught to teach.

### **ASSURANCES**

1. The demands placed upon past generations were quite different from the challenges which our current crop of students seem certain to face. Moreover, if past generations had had the advantages of instructional programs which are now available, our society and economy might be infinitely further advanced.
2. Today's teachers, through their initial training, membership in professional organizations, professional reading, workshops, and other exposures are, almost without exception, better equipped

and more willing to accept new challenges than at any other time in history. What is needed is the leadership, encouragement and the physical means to harness this talent.

3. Our students are not interested enough nor mature enough to accept more responsibility for their education nor to become more involved in determining its direction.
- 3 If this is so, it is so only because adults have failed to help them develop a sense of responsibility and because no one has capitalized on their interests and natural curiosity. The truth is, that most students have a very definite sense of purpose and capacity for responsibility when they are faced with challenges which are relevant and in which they can experience success. No one, young or old, can thrive on a steady diet of spoon feeding, boredom or a succession of failures.
4. Parents and other influential members of the community are very proud of their schools and the job that is being done. They are not willing to accept changes in an instructional program which has served so well. They do not want their children to be guinea pigs. They are not willing to see the costs of our educational program raised even higher.
4. When parents and other members of a community are given the opportunity of direct involvement in proposed changes and when they have the opportunity to recognize the merit of these proposed changes, it is most unlikely that any significant number of them will be other than enthusiastic about a school's efforts to improve its instructional program--even though such changes may involve additional costs.

5. **The State Department of Education, North Central Association, or other regulatory agencies take a very dim view of programs which depart from the traditional approach. Therefore, one simply cannot afford to jeopardize school aid or the school accreditation.**
5. It would be a rare state department or regulatory agency in this day and age which would not fail to applaud efforts to improve instruction. What they require, and what their legal responsibilities dictate, is a sound rationale and a reasonably complete and acceptable description of the proposed program. Administrators can be assured of help and encouragement, rather than a negative response.

It is not easy to belay or sublimate the fears and uncertainties that change imposes. However, it is most important to recognize the various reasons for not moving for the "straw men" that they are.

Few things are certain in the life of a modern school administrator. However, there are some images that the developments of the past few years seem to cast upon the last third of our present century. It is interesting to speculate on just what the schools or learning centers may become in the very near future. It seems certain that the changes that have occurred, however radical these may appear to some, are merely the forerunners of a much greater change which lies ahead.

Administrative leadership must recognize a number of inconsistencies in the present method of operation and have the courage and find the means to deal with them. Some of these are:

1. The tradition of operating schools for nine or ten months a year is an obvious waste of facilities and instructional talent. The failure to put this potential to better use cannot be justified. The buildings, the equipment, and the staff are available to increase the educational output by 20 to 25 percent. It simply requires using them the year around, rather than permitting them to stand idle during the part of the year

- when most of them can be operated most economically.
2. It is incorrect to assume that the magic years for acquiring all that formal education has to offer lie between kindergarten and graduation from high school, technical school, or college. Behavioral scientists have convinced all but the most skeptical of the value of early childhood education in the formulation of viable life-long attitudes. The rapidly changing cultural and technological demands dictate the urgent need for constant re-training and further education.
  3. It seems ridiculous to assume that all students should continue to be grouped by age for all instructional purposes--or to assume that all instructional tasks can best be accomplished in groups of similar size for "x" number of minutes each day every day of the week. There is a wide range of aptitude and performance potential at any age and this range widens with the increase in age. Some instructional tasks can be performed as well, if not better, with groups much larger than that of a traditional class. Many learning objectives can best be attained in much smaller groups and that a much more individual approach to learning can be achieved by means of well designed approaches to individually directed study. Computer techniques have been developed which permit the grouping and re-grouping of students for more effective performance and to provide an abundance of learning resources through an enormous capacity for storage and retrieval of data. New buildings are being designed and existing structures modified to provide the flexibility needed within cost limits that can be accommodated in most instances. More and more resources are becoming available in software and hardware which make an individual approach to learning more feasible. Most important, there is ample evidence that these newer approaches to education have a great deal to offer from the standpoint of increased pupil interest, learner involvement, achievement and student satisfaction.
  4. It is also ridiculous to assume that most, if not all, formal education can best take place within the walls of the classroom or the school building--or to assume that it is always more effective and more efficient to bring the experience to the learner, rather than to bring the learner to the experience.

There have been enough well planned and conducted field trips to know that such learning activities can make a tremendous contribution to the students' interest, appreciation and fund of information. Few schools have capitalized on the wealth of learning experiences which the community has to offer.

5. The notion that students learn best under the personal and direct supervision of the same teacher simply cannot be supported--neither can the notion that a teacher is earning his keep only when he is in a classroom with his "share" of the student body. Much of the routine, time-consuming and often mechanical chores of a typical teacher can better be accomplished by a para-professional aide, by means of clerical assistance, or by the use of programmed learning, single-concept films or any of a wide range of other devices. The time and energy of the professionally trained teacher thus saved can be much more profitably reinvested in needed research, more effective planning, and in providing individual help and encouragement for the students with learning difficulties.
6. It seems most illogical to assume that the compartmentalizing of subject matter which is characteristic of most of the secondary and post-secondary programs offers a learning climate that squares up with what is known about the learning process or that it is realistic to assume that a student can and will turn on his science interest at a given bell signal, his zest for English at another and so on throughout the day. A team teaching approach, especially an inter-disciplinary team approach which is used in some flexibly scheduled programs, in some fluid block organizations and in some unitized, ungraded systems, has a great deal to offer in providing for greater integration of subject matter. A well conceived problem will lead the student to seek solutions in several academic areas and will result in a wholeness of learning experience which is both logical and purposeful. Information from various academic areas can then become mutually supportive rather than the extraneous bits and pieces of knowledge it has so often become.

Educators have come a long way in recent years in developing new concepts and approaches to effective learning. Much has been done to test the relative merits of these newer approaches. There is still a great deal that remains to be done to make learning centers equal to the task they face. The greatest need at the moment is administrators with the vision and the courage to push on and a school community which will support these efforts.

## **CONSIDERATIONS FOR CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT**

**Clair Haberman, Curriculum Coordinator,  
North St. Paul-Maplewood Schools**

### **A Trend in Curriculum Development**

There has been a change in recent years in the development of curriculum at the school district level. (1) The production of local comprehensive guides by committees has decreased considerably. There has been a corresponding increase in the writing of units for use in buildings and in the writing of contracts, UNIPACS, etc., for independent study. There are a number of reasons for this change. First, there are many curriculum development projects in health, mathematics, science, social studies, English, and industrial arts. These projects have invested time and talent in the development, trial, revision, and publication of curricula that are far in excess of that which a district could afford. The quality of these curricula exceed that which a school district could expect of its own efforts. Second, the writing of curricula frequently had been justified, not so much by the value of the published guide, but by the value of the research and interaction to the writing team. In recent years honest attempts have been made to provide opportunities for research and interaction without the disguise of the production of some tangible evidence of activity. These opportunities include released time for inservice training, conferences, workshops, visitations, etc. A third reason is the success that is being enjoyed with independent study and individualized instruction. As students increase in maturity and the ability to profit from independent study, they should be permitted increasing participation in the choice of topics they study. As this becomes a reality, the assignment of topics to grade levels will decrease in prevalence. This is primarily what curriculum development at the local school district has been--the decision of

what is going to be taught at each grade level.

This article is intended to provide suggestions for the development of curricula by the faculties of buildings for use within those buildings.

### **Implications of This Trend for Human Relations within School Buildings**

The climate or atmosphere within a building is important. It can enhance or prevent activity in curriculum development. The establishment of an appropriate climate is the responsibility of administrators. This section will deal with two specific techniques that can be used to establish the kind of climate in which a faculty is free to innovate.

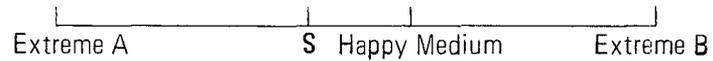
#### **Deferment of Judgment**

When it becomes known by the faculty in a building that they may develop their own program in some particular area, they are very likely to bring suggestions to the building administrator. The reaction of the administrator is of great importance in establishing and maintaining a climate conducive to the kind of innovation that is desired.

The two words that are the most discouraging to the proponent of an idea are, "Yes, but. . ." The recipient of a suggestion may find it easy to say, "Yes, but it's not really new!" or, "Yes, but is anyone else doing it?" or, "Yes, but it will cost too much." A more productive approach is to withhold the "yes, but," and any other form of criticism until all aspects of the idea have been explored, considered, and developed. Osborn explains this approach in these words: "In approaching a creative problem we should give imagination priority over judgment and let it roam around our objective. We might even make a conscious effort to think up the wildest ideas that possibly could apply. For at this point we are just warming up our think-up apparatus--limbering up our imagining muscles. Instead of laughing at such preliminary flashes--fantastic as they might seem, we should consider them carefully. One of them might be as sensible as a door key." (2:41-42) Osborn indicts



Suppose a suggestion is made that lies on this continuum; let's say at point S. Note that point S is not too far from the happy medium.



The person receiving the suggestion tends to:

1. Assume that the proponent is advocating the extreme A, and
2. begins either an attack on Extreme A or a defense of Extreme B.

This tendency is unfortunate, but if it is recognized, its dangers can be minimized. Johnson describes this situation: "People seem to be far more powerfully driven to talk at each other than to listen to each other, and when they do listen the kind of feedback they give the speaker-- and the kind of reaction the speaker makes, in turn to this feedback--appears distressingly often to be self-defensive and generally competitive, or insincere and thus misleading, rather than clarifying, honest, and cooperative. For effective communication to occur between speaker and listener there must be adequate feedback from listener to speaker. Moreover, the speaker must be properly receptive to this feedback. Finally, the listener has to be effectively receptive to the speaker's subsequent revision, if any. The sender must send and re-send; the receiver must take and re-take. (4:184)

Sensitivity in communication is of great importance in discussions of curriculum. The administrator would do well to develop and practice this sensitivity and to encourage his faculty to develop and practice it.

### **Information Processing: A Unifying Theme for Curriculum Development**

The previous sections have dealt with the establishment and maintenance of an atmosphere conducive to innovation. This section will be concerned with significant innovations and trends which can be incorporated into programs developed in buildings. These include independent study, individualization of instruction, inquiry strategies, games, and psychology of intellectual development.

Unless one is satisfied with a piecemeal approach to education, there should be a unifying theme relating all attempts at change through innovation. Information processing is offered as a unifying theme.

#### **Information Processing: What is it?**

The current literature on child development, learning, concept development and educational psychology frequently refer to "information processing." The words "information" and "processing" have meanings, in this context, which are quite similar to their meanings in ordinary usage. Information includes facts, statistics, opinions, attitudes, etc. Processing refers to mental activities with information. Burns provides the following list of processes together with synonyms or related terms. (5:54)

1. Abstracting
2. Analyzing--dismembering--taking apart
3. Associating--cause and effect--interacting--interdependence--relating
4. Balancing--equilibrium formulation
5. Classifying--categorizing--cataloging--identifying
6. Comparing--discriminating--distinguishing--likenesses and differences
7. Describing--characterizing--defining--diagramming--explaining--model formulating-- replicating--representing--reproducing
8. Estimating--approximating
9. Evaluating--appraising--judging--determining significance
10. Experimenting--discovering--exploring--investigating--observing--trial and error
11. Hypothesis formulating--generalizing--law formulating--principle formulating-- theorizing
12. Imagining--conceiving
13. Inferring--implying
14. Measuring--calculating--quantifying
15. Ordering--arranging--outlining--ranking
16. Predicting--anticipating--extrapolating
17. Regulating--controlling--demonstrating--governing

18. Selecting--choosing--delineating
19. Sequencing--patterning--schematic formulating--systematizing
20. Simulating--role playing
21. Summarizing--placing in series--compacting--reducing
22. Synthesizing--building--integrating
23. Testing--checking--proofing--proving--verifying
24. Translating--coding--converting--decoding--encoding--interpreting-- symbolizing--transforming--transposing

### **Information Processing: Why is it important?**

The initial activity of all information processing strategies is the posing of questions. Johnson provides a statement of the importance of the skill of questioning and reassessment of the benefits of allowing students opportunity for developing this skill. "A child's view of the world depends on the questions he asks and the answers that adults give. The answers he gets will seldom be certain and never complete, because they will be about the never-ending transition that we call reality--but precisely for this reason they will be useful. And the more such questions he asks, and the more such answers he gets, the more resourceful he is likely to become. He is almost certain to learn more and more of what he needs to know in order to make fewer and fewer blunders, while worrying less and less about the things that either never happen or that happen in spite of anything anyone can do anyway." (4:9-11)

Burns provides additional arguments for the use of information processing as a theme unifying innovations. (5:55)

1. Information is frequently changing and dated.
2. Learning is defined as change in behavior. We need to ask, "What changes are important?" Is information the important end product of education?
3. When learning is information-oriented, learners, by necessity, operate in an inactive or inert way. Learners memorize pre-selected information in an authoritarian atmosphere about ready-made problems to which they are presented ready-made conclusions. When learning is process-oriented, the learner operates in an active role. Learners

identify, select, and define their own problems; then locate, organize, integrate, evaluate, associate, select, and otherwise generalize what has been done. Finally, learners communicate what they have learned to each other.

4. Learners tend to forget the vast majority of the information they learn. Processes are rarely forgotten, although they do have to be used to remain functional.
5. Much of our present content information is not applicable to large segments of our learning population. Not everyone needs the same information. Today's student unrest is partially explained by the students' recognition of this fact. Processes, on the other hand, are tools which can be used by everyone, in all walks of life to solve all types of problems.

Both information and processing must be considered in the development of curricula. Information can no longer be the sole determiner of the content and the instructional activities. Instruction should be primarily oriented toward processing with information included insofar as is necessary to teach processes.

#### **A Basis for Decision Making**

It is necessary, for the sake of consistency, to have a theoretical basis for making any decisions. There is a theory which is appropriate for the application of information processing to curriculum development. That is Piaget's theory of intellectual development. This theory views the mind as an information processing system. It is concerned with how the mind works rather than what it does. It is concerned more with understanding than with prediction and control of behavior. (6:6)

Individualization of instruction depends on determining how much of his potential a student has achieved. Potential frequently is indicated by an I.Q. The author frequently hears an I.Q. used to the student's disadvantage. The student with an I.Q. of 87 is a dummy, and will be throughout his entire life because that number does not change significantly with age. The student with a normal or above I.Q. is always considered to be able to achieve more if he only would use his ability. What does an I.Q. of 87 or 137 tell a teacher about

the kinds of experiences that he should have? Very little that is specific enough to make a difference in instructional activities.

A more humane approach to the task of determining achievement and potential is needed. A more humane approach is available in the theory of Piaget. For the purposes of this article the most important part of Piaget's theory is that all persons progress through the same sequence of stages, but not at the same rate. The stages are the sensorimotor, concrete operations, and formal operations. Each of these has several substages. A second aspect of the theory is that each stage is characterized by the ability to perform certain definite and observable actions which become progressively more refined. For example, during the preoperational substage of the concrete operations state, a boy may be unable to see himself as a brother. He will say that he has two brothers, but that one of those has one brother. In Piaget's language this child's thinking is not reversible. It is not considered possible to force the child's progress from one stage to another. The school should provide opportunities for:

1. the child to exercise the things he can do at his stage, and
2. be involved in experiences which will help him develop into the next stage.

In the example of the boy and his brother, the reading of stories involving two or more brothers and observing bulletin boards showing the members of a family might aid the child in developing a reversibility of his thinking. It is important for the teacher to remember that experiences are to be provided. The temptation to test, to measure progress, to be unhappy if progress isn't made, and to reteach must be resisted. The humane aspect of Piaget's theory is that students **will** progress from one stage to another. There is nothing a teacher can do to force it.

There are three references listed in the bibliography which deal with Piaget's theory. (6, 7, and 8)The reader is encouraged to pursue this theory and to use it in making decisions about the design of instructional activities.

### **Information Processing: How can it be implemented?**

This section is divided into three parts which deal with instructional activities. They range from activities completely under the control of the teacher to those under complete student control. They range from concern with content to concern with processes. The first part is concerned with a variation of programmed instruction which the author has developed and is testing. The second and third parts are concerned with inquiry and games.

#### **A Variation of Programmed Instruction**

The author has devised a scheme for involving students in the learning process through a variation of programmed instruction. One difference is the location of the questions with respect to the material--the question precedes it. A second difference is the nature of the questions--it asks the student to state what he thinks, to make a guess. The purpose is to establish a frame of reference so that the student can profit from the information which he receives.

A series on human relations were prepared for use in seventh grade social studies in one of the North St. Paul-Maplewood schools in the spring of 1969. These lessons were intended to provide the experience of hypothesizing a point of view that was unfamiliar to the students. Whether their hypothesis was correct or not is immaterial since they received correcting or reinforcing information immediately. The following lesson, from the series, may help illustrate this variation of programmed instruction:

WHAT IS AN UNDERDOG?

WHAT IS AN AMERICAN'S ATTITUDE TOWARD AN UNDER-DOG?

The Chinese were very much a part of the gold rush in California in the 1850's. They lived in camps of their own, usually at a safe distance from the white man's camps. The Chinese and the white men did not trust each other.

WHAT REASON MIGHT THE WHITE MAN HAVE FOR NOT TRUSTING THE CHINESE?

WHAT REASON MIGHT THE CHINESE HAVE FOR NOT TRUSTING THE WHITE MEN?

The white miners distrusted the Chinese mainly because they were different. The Chinese avoided the white miners because experience soon taught them the white man would take advantage of them at every opportunity.

A Chinese went shopping for a pair of boots. He held up one boot for the proprietor to see and asked, "How much?"

WILL THE PROPRIETOR TRY TO TAKE ADVANTAGE OF HIS CHINESE CUSTOMER?

The price of a pair of boots was actually ten dollars. The shopkeeper thought he would have some fun with his Chinese customer, so he answered, "Five dollars."

WAS THE SHOPKEEPER CORRECT IN HIS ANSWER TO THE CHINESE CUSTOMER'S QUESTION?

The Chinese considered a moment and then told the proprietor that he would make the purchase. The Chinese handed over the five dollars.

WHAT DO YOU THINK WILL HAPPEN NEXT?

The Chinese reached out to pick up both of the boots in the pair. The shopkeeper stopped him by saying that the second boot would cost him another five dollars.

WHAT DO YOU THINK THE CHINESE WILL DO?

WAS THE SHOPKEEPER UNFAIR IN ASKING FOR ANOTHER FIVE DOLLARS FOR THE OTHER BOOT?

The Chinese calmly took out his knife, cut his boot to shreds, threw the pieces on the floor and departed.

DO YOU SYMPATHIZE WITH THE CHINESE OR WITH THE SHOPKEEPER?

WHY?

The author is engaged in an action research program for testing the use of lessons such as this one in elementary school science and junior high school social studies. There are, at this time, no apparent limits to the application of information processing to the design of instructional experiences except those which Piaget's theory establishes.

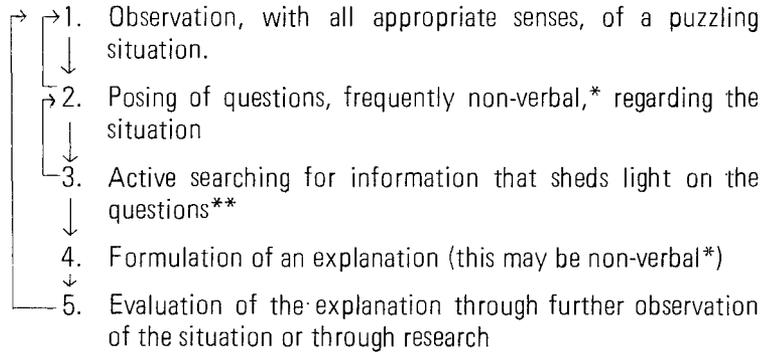
**Inquiry**

Inquiry, as a teaching strategy, provides the clearest application of information processing. According to Young, "Inquiry involves the learner in the process of:

1. discovering problems which exist in his environment or society;
2. observing the data surrounding these facts or events;
3. hypothesizing concerning possible causes or solutions;
4. seeking ways to test the hypothesis, and
5. attempting to reach some reasonable solutions concerning problems." (9:36)

This set of statements is almost identical with the so-called "scientific method." These statements do not recognize the incompletely formulated problem and the importance of continual clarification of the problem through the search for answers to questions about the problem. These steps do not provide for intuitive insights in all aspects of the process. Let us not assume that everyone knows that a problem develops through consideration of evidence of the senses. Let us not assume that everyone knows that intuitive leaps can occur. Let us provide for them in statements of the processes which are involved in inquiry. The following is an attempt to formulate statements of the processes of inquiry and to show, by means of

arrows, the many possibilities in which recycling of these processes may occur.



Massialas and Zevin make inquiry the basis for their book, CREATIVE ENCOUNTERS IN THE CLASSROOM. Further information about this strategy may be found there. (10)

Obsatz describes the learning process in a way which places the inquiry process in a larger setting. (11)

### Games

Games may be thought of as freer opportunities for inquiry. An example may help clarify the meaning of that statement. The author had devised a game in which students act as explorers. They enter unfamiliar territory for the purpose of selecting a site for a settlement. They are given a map containing the information the explorer actually knew about the territory.

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\* The possibility of the non-verbal nature should indicate the danger of judging students, their knowledge, their insights, and their attitudes by what is verbalized. Attempts to verbalize any intuitive insights may have disastrous effects on interest and attitude toward further investigation.

\*\* The statement of step 2 should not be interpreted to exclude revision of questions previously posed. Note that the arrows provide for recycling at times. Feedback should be incorporated earlier into the behavior and vocabulary of persons. It is an extremely useful ability to possess. It is a part of information processing.

The students also receive resources, represented by slips of paper, sufficient for one year of exploring. As they attempt to make decisions about the location for a settlement they sense the need for information. This information can be obtained from an umpire who places the information they request on their maps. A part of their resources (the exact amount depends on the nature of the question) is surrendered. This game is based on the founding of Chicago by Du Sable. The student wins if he locates the settlement where Du Sable established Chicago. They lose if they use up all their resources or if they establish their settlement in a location that is obviously inappropriate, such as within Lake Michigan. This game has been used with fifth grade students who had studied several United States cities in depth as their University of Minnesota Project Social Studies program. Eighty percent of them won within a 25 minute period. None of them lost. The rest did not complete the game because one of the determiners of curriculum, the lunch period, intervened. Following the playing of the game an account of the founding of Chicago was read to the students. This provided some reinforcement for the successes and a description of alternatives for the benefit of the students who did not experience complete success. This activity provided a kind of evaluation for both teachers and students of the year's work in social studies.

Games have the following characteristics:

1. Games are simplified models of the real world.
2. Games provide a means for students to live vicariously.
3. Games provide the opportunity to take various courses of action and to experience the consequences without suffering for inappropriate choices.
4. Games provide an opportunity for all of the activities involved in information processing in a form that is under the complete control of the student.

For further information on games as instructional activities the reader is directed to two items in the bibliography. (12 and 13)

### **Conclusion**

In this article the author has recommended attention to human relationships in reacting to the suggestions of faculty members and in the ensuing communication. An information processing approach has been suggested as a means of unifying several innovations being advanced as improvements in education. Can these suggestions achieve a climate conducive to the suggestion and development of innovations? That question is similar to one the author overheard during a coffee hour. A person was asked, "Can you play the violin?" His reply was, "I don't know; I haven't tried." The reader is asked to defer judgment on the suggestions made here until such time as he has experienced either success or failure in a trial of them. To this end, an article by Olson (14) is called to the reader's attention .

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## **PROBLEM SOLVING FOR PRINCIPALS**

**OR**

## **NEW PROGRAMS = PROBLEMS**

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Newer elementary school curriculum materials with new teaching formats which ask the teacher to depart from traditional teaching procedures are coming from publishers and federally funded projects. These materials differ from the traditional textbook approach in that emphasis is placed on individual and group activities, problem solving, and broad topic integration. Often within a 2 or 3 year span a familiar content is presented, yet the content is rearranged to emphasize procedures for discovering. Many of the newer programs require substantial expenditures for equipment, supplementary printed materials, and audio-visual media. Schools are encouraged to embark on in-service training activities for teachers and to develop vigorous public information programs. Decisions by schools to use newer materials, in the face of predictable difficulties, can be made in a rational way, to the students' advantage and at nominal cost to the district.

The problem--to use newer materials--comes replete with variables. On the one hand, the need for education, the kind that reaches all children and provides many avenues for individual achievement, social continuity, and progress is hardly debatable. As a nation we are awakening to recognize that education is the key to man's ability to continue to survive in a biosphere that is being subjected to accelerated depletion of natural resources, cyclic flooding and erosion of valuable agricultural lands and extensive pollution of our air and water. We accept the need for education programs which will enable us to adapt and adjust, to enlarge our

perceptions, appreciations and satisfactions. The ability for a nation of people to collectively solve problems, make valid predictions, and act on these predictions is indeed the key to survival.

On the other hand, the task of predicting the demands that will be placed on children in 1980 or 2000, coupled with the realities of day-by-day fiscal pressures requires a cautious, often prudent attitude toward educational experimentation within a school system. Too often the old saw, "Let's wait and see", is simply a rationale for conservative immobility. It would be easy indeed to predict the nature and degree of curriculum innovation if this saw were universal!

The following five paragraphs suggest prudent yet positive considerations for instituting curriculum change into a school system in a consistent, planned way, at a nominal cost.

### **Initial Inspection**

Curriculum materials to be tried should be appropriate to most all children. This means that they should be consistent with knowledge of how children learn and tested in classrooms to ascertain tempo, clarity and grade level appropriateness. Aims should be consistent with overall school and community educational goals. (In far too many cases, school goals consist of no more than children's scores on some standardized instrument.) They should generate in the child a joy and an enthusiasm for learning. Finally, they should lay the foundations for continuing intellectual growth. This suggests that the technical, educational and pedagogical credentials of the authors should be subject to scrutiny. A careful inspection of curriculum materials and the accompanying descriptive literature in terms of these and other school-established criteria should be conducted. Single sets of curriculum materials should be available within the system to teachers and supervisors.

### **Limited Planned Experimentation**

Teachers who have some familiarity with newer materials should be encouraged to conduct a year's trial in the classroom. The trial should be carefully planned so that specific questions can be answered. It will be important to know how much, and what kind of extra help the teacher needs. It will be important to see if the objectives for children established by the materials are met, and to what extent. The classroom in which the program is being visited can be visited by other teachers for in-service education purposes. The teacher who is conducting the investigation can report periodically to the faculty. In all cases the teacher should be asked to prepare a short document reporting her experience. This can be filed in the school curriculum center along with the sample program, for use in program decision making. If the system elects to extend the use of a program, the experienced teacher can supply knowledgeable implementation recommendations and in-service program leadership. Perhaps a school system should seriously consider extended use of several programs in various buildings or classrooms. A system-wide single program adoption seriously violates principles of meeting diverse educational needs. There is little long range economy in using a single program if it does not meet the varying needs of the several buildings, socio-economic environments and varying teacher perceptions.

### **Restructuring The School Schedule**

Many of the newer programs lend themselves to innovative scheduling practices. Schools, facing rapidly rising costs, can well consider the services that can be rendered by several categories of para-professional teachers and assistants. New programs in many cases come with formats styled more like lesson and unit plans than like a descriptive text. Much of the interpretation from text to teaching, traditionally the task of the professional teacher, has been done. Various material assembly tasks, as well as certain elements of small group supervision for which parameters are well prescribed,

can be handled by assistants to the teacher. It is difficult to implement the use of the para-professional until several traditional scheduling procedures have been scrutinized, and various modifications have been tried.

### **In-Service Procedures**

There is some evidence that in-service training, as often carried out, is not only a waste of time but may have effects just opposite to those desired. Schools planning to use newer materials should look to existing teacher training institutions for both knowledgeable beginning teachers who have had experience in their undergraduate programs with newer curriculum materials and to special summer programs which focus on newer programs. Since the schools have a dollar stake in the continuing education of teachers they should see that teachers are aware of special summer offerings which are appropriate to specific school needs. Letters to colleges should ask pointed questions regarding special summer and Saturday offerings. Teachers should be made aware of specific programs offered by area teacher education institutions.

If the school finds a need for in-service, the following guidelines seem appropriate.

1. Programs should avoid broad-sweeping general presentations.
2. Activity by participants is to be preferred to passive listening or looking.
3. Programs should focus on specific, immediate teaching needs. Grade level sections, and demonstration of technique, materials, and procedure (in many cases in classrooms with children) are very effective.
4. The best in-service training to use a newer program is to begin using it in the classroom. Immediacy of need generates high motivation for associated training.
5. If strategically combined, schedule restructuring and in-service can provide tangible rewards to teachers who assert curriculum leadership responsibility.

### **Material Storage and Retrieval**

By and large the greatest harrassment to the teacher initiating newer curriculum projects in her classroom is the complex problem of having enough materials, finding them, storing them, and in some cases simply recognizing them. Manufacturers frequently are guilty of failing to carefully label items contained in "packages." Since the gretest expense of the newer curriculum programs is the equipment, and since a feature of the newer programs is the shift from demonstration to individual student involvement, both cost and quantity must be considered. The use of a central building storage and retrieval center which must have a responsible paraprofessional to fill teacher orders and restore equipment is perhaps the single most effective cost-cutting procedure that can be instituted.

The two-part problem--can schools continue to innovate and still maintain bugetary efficiency--has been of concern to the MINNEMAST Project, of which the author is a participant. In working with schools who are trying newer programs, the difficulties which have been briefly mentioned come up again and again. In many instances, the same unsuccessful procedures for dealing with these difficulties are used again and again. Hence, in summary, the following points are stressed. Broad, general teacher education, a function of teacher education institutions, is difficult to duplicate in a school setting. The school should make careful, selective use of these institutions in fostering its programatic changes. School in-service, when specific to existing pedagogical needs is most likely to be successful. There are communication constructions in many school systems which make it difficult for the administration to learn from the knowledgable teacher, who often knows the most about modern curriculum because the school through its pay incentive schedule encourages the teacher to return summer after summer to colleges and take relevant courses. But perhaps the greatest stumbling block to experimentation with newer curriculum materials is the system's inherent inertia--a benign but massive

resistance to change. Individuals feel secure in doing what they have been doing. Systems project needs based on past procedure and budget-wise lock the past to the future.

Notable exceptions exist. The innovative teacher, sometimes a thorn in the side of the "tight-ship" school of administration is an invaluable asset. She forces her colleagues to look beyond today's program to tomorrow's innovation. There is the far-sighted administrator who allocates budget dollars for experiment and the encouragement of innovative activities and staunchly resists the erosion of these dollars.

The rapid changes in this country today suggest that the school, an institution of this society, has problems of its own which will be solved, inevitably, one way or another. The problem is to so insert and withdraw appropriate and inappropriate direction determiners so as to have the greatest directional influence as the lowest possible cost.

## **PRINCIPAL AND CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT**

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Among the myriad of roles which the principal has, none is more important than his role in curriculum development. Even though there is much in the literature related to the changing world of the school principal, he continues to be viewed as the significant factor in curriculum development within his school. Principals who are known for their vision and quest for growth are found in schools recognized as having outstanding instructional programs. Statements which we have heard for many years remain true today: "The principal sets the tone for the school." "Principals cast long shadows." "The school reflects the principal." "Show me an exciting school program and I'll show you an exciting principal."

Equating "curriculum" to "providing learning opportunities" enables us a focus on the question: What is the principal's role in providing improved, modified and additional learning opportunities for those in the school? "Those" includes the principal and all others associated with the school.

Principals are instructional leaders in their schools, working within the framework of the school system. This means the principal has a responsibility for curriculum development for the school district and the school. In district curriculum development activities he works cooperatively with teachers, supervisory and other administrative personnel. He shares with teachers and other personnel in the school the responsibility for adapting system-wide curriculum goals to the individual school.

Knowledge of the school curriculum is required for the principal to meet the expectations of his instructional leadership role. In addition he must have a vision of what the school might become and

be aware of structure necessary to move forward. Implicit in development is positively oriented change.

Two basic assumptions I believe important in the work for change are:

1. Changing the curriculum really means changing people. We have heard many times that if we wish to put a better program into operation we do it with better people. Better people does not mean different people. It means in most school situations, people who have grown.

2. Schools wanting change build the expectation for change right into the program. This expectancy is evidenced by systematic study of an instructional concern, provision of consultative help, planned staff development opportunities and similar arrangements.

Change also requires that one's equilibrium be a bit disturbed. The principal's search for what the school might become, as compared with the "as is," provides the necessary disturbance for him. For other school personnel this may result from visitation, study or recurring situations within the school. Achieving a balance in this area is important as disturbance which reaches hopelessness and frustration not only stops forward movement but usually results in regression. Yet, "wholesome discontent" stimulates us to new undertakings.

As I view today's principal and his role in curriculum development, I see responsibilities which are the same as those we have associated with the principalship for many years. In addition, specific new dimensions of the school result in other requirements. Some of the continuing responsibilities I will identify. Some of the newer responsibilities I will briefly discuss.

Continuing responsibilities of the principal include:

1. Awareness of his own professional growth,
2. Encouragement to teachers to try out new ideas,
3. Provision of time for teachers and other personnel to share professional experiences,
4. Search for resources, both human and materiel, which will be helpful.
5. Attention to the development of a consistent philosophy within the school.

New dimensions in school today which should influence the principal's role in curriculum development include: 1) expanded personnel in today's schools, 2) relationship of the school to other education agencies within the community, 3) increased media available, and 4) increased attention to the functions of schools.

Most schools today include in their staff kinds of personnel which are quite new. Some require extensive preparation programs and certification; other are there primarily because the school is serving a role as employer for some members of society previously considered unemployable. The range of abilities found within the staff has increased. Principals are challenged to identify ways of fitting new personnel into working teams within the school so learning opportunities provided are increased. Learning opportunities must be considered for all personnel in the school as well as those who are labeled "the students."

Much discussion is taking place today relative to the role of the school and other educative agencies in the community. Some foresee the school as a concept rather than a place. Others see the school as becoming a laboratory servicing learners of all ages in the community. Work-study programs currently in operation make the expanded school a reality. Sidewalk schools and Saturday schools found in some of the inner city areas provide challenges for the local school in both offerings and in liaison arrangements. Principals need to know the developments which are taking place in the expanded school idea and seek ways to establish relationships which will provide additional learning opportunities. Many see the expanded school idea offering an increase in the number of alternatives which are available to learners.

With increased technology and an increase in centralization of funds for education, especially federal funds, industry has become very much aware of the educational possibilities for new media. Perhaps the initial result of this interest is evidenced by an increase in the availability and use of media which have been on the market for a long period of time, but often inaccessible to the classroom; ie.,

filmstrips, overhead projectors, tape recorders, 8mm and 16mm film projectors. Currently many schools are investing in media which are much more complex and expensive. Again, it is my belief that media may be useful in increasing the alternatives available to individual learners. Principals and other educators have a challenge to keep the area open to exploration and examination as it is possible for the programs of specific media to be as limiting on the alternatives open for growth as the use of a single textbook has been in some school situations.

With varying proposals about the future of the public school which run the continuum from "closed" to "open for all ages." it seems important that the principal have a leadership role in clarifying the school's functions and developing appropriate implementing procedures. Much is being written about humanizing the school. Many point out the failures of the school largely result from the depersonalization which exists there, and call for attention to curriculum needs which exist outside of specific subject matter areas. These needs are often identified with the development of human worth--adequate feeling of self, involvement in determining learning tasks, increase in one's scope of tolerance.

There is also an increasing amount of information which indicates that there are some other types of curriculum goals which should be considered. These include:

1. An awareness of the world of work and the many possibilities from which one may choose. Currently manpower information programs are being proposed which start in the kindergarten and continue through the school program.
2. Development of self-control and self-direction. Self-control is necessary if one is to handle properly his freedom. Self-direction enables one to make appropriate choices from alternatives.
3. Need to consider those kinds of growth necessary for full development of the person with specific growth opportunities identified for each kind of growth. There should be in each school a continuing search for an increased number of activities appropriate for each growth area.

As we look to the future we can foresee an increase in the number of managerial tasks that the principal is called upon to perform. This number has increased over the years; therefore, the challenge becomes increasingly more important that each principal try to distinguish between work which is managerial and that which is leadership for curriculum improvement. There will be in the future, as there has always been in the past, a shortage of time to do those things which we believe to be important. While the alternatives for the use of our time will increase, the priorities which we give to our role as principal will determine the basis for our choices. It is my belief that the principal who views his primary role as that of leadership for curriculum development will in the future, as he has in the past, make those choices that lead to increased learning opportunities.

## **BOOK REVIEWS**

### **Nongraded Schools in Action (Bold New Venture Series)**

Edited by David W. Beggs, III and Edward G. Buffie

Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1967.

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The first part of this book is a definition and investigation of the nongraded school in American education. The six writers, including the two editors, deal with the historical perspective as well as contemporary strategies for the adoption of this innovation. Robert J. Garvue writes a particularly perceptive chapter entitled the, "Research and Evaluation of the Nongraded School." Also included is a discussion of the future for nongradedness. Thirteen reports made by practitioners in school using varying forms of the nongraded organization form the second section of the book.

The early chapters accomplish the case that is made for the appropriateness and effectiveness of the nongraded school (K - 12) in providing individuals with meaningful learning experiences. The nongraded approach challenges the unrealistic but prevailing assumption that one lesson, one course, and one set of requirements suits all. Responsible educators know that youngsters vary greatly in terms of potential and achievement. The advocates of a nongraded design offer an escape from existing organizational shackles. They envision schools organized to permit a student to develop his

academic and creative talents as rapidly or as slowly as his abilities permit.

A reader of the first section of this book gains an excellent and comprehensive understanding of the major premises and issues of the nongraded school. This is complimented by an extensive annotated bibliography of nearly one-hundred sources.

The second part of the book entitled, "Nongraded Schools in Action," is disturbing, assuming that the choice of the particular schools reported was deliberate. The nongraded theoretical concepts and models developed in the introductory chapters are evident in the school programs reported, but these innovative attempts have fallen far short in establishing nongraded designs convincingly different from conventional approaches. There are at least several reasons for this. One is the inevitable problem that theoretical models may be altered substantially when implemented into a school setting. Another critical explanation for a limited acceptance of the nongraded philosophy is the predictable difficulty of affecting change in teachers and in instructional methods. Possibly a third reason is a superficial preoccupation with innovation without honest change. Robert H. Anderson, a professor and authority well known to students of the nongraded movement, states in the November, 1967, issue of the **National Elementary Principal** that there are indeed precious few nongraded schools but a lot of rhetoric.

A school attempting a nongraded approach in organization **and in instruction** logically designs some type of evaluative procedure. The schools included in this book all report assessment techniques. The lack, however, of statistically acceptable research and evaluation patterns is apparent. Evaluation tends to be incidental and unrelated to preconceived objectives. An inadequate number of variables are isolated and longitudinal studies are either non-existent or limited.

It is somewhat unfair to criticize a nongraded school in the early evolving stages of its development, and nongraded schools dating back as far as the 1950's apparently are still being subjected to

significant modification. Several schools reported are accomplishing significant elements of the nongraded school philosophy. The "Continuous Progress Plan" in the Appleton, Wisconsin elementary schools is noteworthy, as is, the Nova High School K - College design in Ft. Lauderdale, Florida. The elementary school pilot plans in both Hillsboro, Oregon and Cedar Falls, Iowa have commendable evaluative and research controls.

An educator interested in the nongraded school will find Indiana University's latest effort in the, "Bold New Venture Series," an excellent source for general theoretical information. A person interested in extensive studies and appraisals of existing nongraded programs will find this book of limited value. However, the variance in the nongraded programs reported could assist a particular school system in recognizing some of the key concepts and practices that must be considered in the adoption of such an innovation. The appendix includes examples of several student progress reports (report cards) being used in schools reporting in this book and also examples of student class schedules and time schedules. An adequate index enhances the value of this book.

At one point in the book the statement is made, "Thus, after more than a century, we are actually beginning to put into practice some of what we have long known about child growth and development—known but ignored. Thousands of elementary school children are now having some educational millstones removed from around their necks and are being allowed to learn as rapidly as they can without being hurried and as slowly as they need to without being shamed, mistreated, or failed." One can comment that if this is but more rhetoric, at least the right ideas are being expressed. Responsible educators listen to students, and students are revealing in many ways today a message of despair, of disenchantment with their schools. If American education does not hear or chooses not to hear the message of an unhappy, frustrated, nonachieving learner then there must be an open admission that the schools do not care.

## **Pygmalion in the Classroom**

by Robert Rosenthal and Lenore Jacobson.

New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1968.

240 pp. \$3.95 (paperback)

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When elementary schools open each September, the thunderous parade of small characters make their way to their rooms, into their desks, and face their teacher – and teacher observes. If the child is dirty, or if his skin is a different color, or his clothes are shabby, past experience leads Teacher to some general conclusions: “The well-groomed white boys and girls will probably do well. The black and brown-skinned ones are lower-class and will have learning problems unless they look exceptionally clean. All the whites who do not look tidy and need handkerchiefs will have trouble. If the teacher sees a preponderance of lower-class children, regardless of color, she knows her work will be difficult and unsatisfying. . . . Sometimes the results of formal and informal measurement modify that first day’s preception. . . . sometimes” (p. 47, 48). And Teacher is usually right in her prediction that middle-class children generally succeed in school and lower-class children generally lag behind or fail.

The literature of past years has laid causation of the educationally disadvantaged learner within home, family, neighborhood, social status, economic conditions, the learning process, the educational materials and tools, and the learner himself. Some of the literature presented points a finger at Teacher and tells Him that He is more

concerned with what to expect than what he can effect; and that His low performance expectancy for students acts as a self-fulfilling prophecy (p. 52, 53).

That is what the book is all about – “interpersonal self-fulfilling prophecies: how one person’s expectation for another person’s behavior can quite unwittingly become a more accurate prediction simply for its having been made.” (p. vii) This is not a new topic, much experimental evidence related to this phenomenon has been gathered by psychological experimenters with both human and animal subjects.

Clinical psychologists, doctors and psychiatrists have long been intrigued with the “placebo” effect when a new drug is introduced and researched. This is the phenomena when part of a selected sample of subjects is given the real drug, another receives nothing, and a third part is given a dummy drug. The interesting results often show that a percentage of those given nothing improve, and those receiving the dummy drug also improve. The effectiveness of the dummy drug (placebo) sometimes approaches the effectiveness of the real drug, especially if the healer prescribes it in a confident, positive manner!!

Behavioral science has investigated the investigator-subject interaction and frequently concluded that interviewers obtained data from their subjects in accordance with the expectancy they held regarding their subjects’ responses. When subjects were animals, and the experimenter was led to believe that his animal was genetically “brighter”, his animal’s performance was superior to the performance of an animal whose experimenter believed his animal to be genetically deficient. These results occurred when animal selection was random and there was no actual genetic difference. (Chapter 4) This led the **Pygmalion** investigators to the following hypothesis, “If animal subjects believed to be brighter by their trainers actually became brighter because of their trainer’s beliefs, then it might also be true that school children believed by their teachers to be brighter would become brighter because of their teacher’s beliefs.”

Oak School, a fictitious name, is located in a lower-class medium-sized city, and has a Mexican minority group ratio of one to six. Oak School tracks each of the six grade levels into one fast, one medium, and one low group based on "reading ability", which can be translated as reading achievement plus teacher recommendation based on the student's work of the previous year. The proposition tested was that "favorable expectations by teachers could lead to an increase in intellectual competence."

The basic research procedure used was an I.Q. based pre-test and post-test with a control group. About twenty percent of the children were designated as "bloomers" or "potential spurters". This label, the teachers were informed, applied to children who would show dramatic intellectual growth during the current schoolyear. An unfamiliar (to the teachers) I.Q. pre-test was the alleged basis for assignment to the "spurter" group. In reality, the 20 percent sample was randomly drawn from the school population. The children were selected from the eighteen classrooms and described as "spurters" or "bloomers" to the teachers. The difference between the special children (bloomers or spurters) and the ordinary children (control group) was only in the minds of the teachers.

The research findings support the proposition that favorable teacher expectations could lead to an increase in intellectual competence, especially in grades one and two. Those who examine the study in detail will find data on the expectancy advantage of intellectual growth manipulated statistically in terms of grade level, track, sex, and minority-group status. Teacher assessments of achievement and classroom behavior were correlated with I.Q. results under the same classifications. The onset of expectancy advantages and their durability are thoroughly explored.

The authors have attempted to communicate the findings to interested lay persons, educational practitioners, and sophisticated researchers in their book — an ambitious task. One night with the book is sufficient time for perusal unless the reader wishes to critique the data. Practitioners will appreciate the authors' frank

evaluation of the findings, and the firm focus on application and implication. Sophisticated researchers will find the procedural definition and data presentation sufficient for appraisal, criticism, and replication. Unfortunately, the raw scores on test results are not reported.

The reported significant results of the investigation are important, to say the least, to all concerned with education. BUT, already the critics are having their day as they dissect the study to point out basic defects in the data to the degree that the reader must accept the conclusions of the study with caution. Rosenthal and Jacobson may have problems explaining small group "mean reasoning I.Q." scores of 31 and 54! Robert Thorndike wants to know "what kind of testing is it that gives a mean 'I.Q.' of 58 for the total entering first grade."<sup>1</sup> He concludes his review of the book with:

The indications are that the basic data upon which this structure has been raised are so untrustworthy that any conclusions based on them must be suspect. The conclusions may be correct, but if so it must be considered a fortunate coincidence.<sup>2</sup>

In any event, the implications drawn from the study will not be comforting to the practitioner in elementary education; he and the theorist will have to examine their thinking in areas such as grouping, pupil progress reporting, use of tests, use of anecdotal records, use of standardized tests, and organizational plan effects. The findings suggest that teacher training institutions need to increase instructional efforts in relation to teaching and teacher affect. Research institutions can further provide a valuable service by initiating in-depth research studies on teacher effect.

1. Robert L. Thorndike, Review of "Pygmalion in the Classroom." *American Educational Research Journal*, 5:710, November, 1968.

2. *Ibid.*, p. 711.

The significant findings in grades one and two would lead the reviewer to suggest that a large portion of the report be labeled as "must reading" for primary teachers in service. All people charged with instructional supervision, improvement, and implementation in the elementary school need to evaluate this study if they are to provide effective leadership in their schools.

After examination of **Pygmalion**, the reviewer agreed with the authors' main thrust when they suggested that the teacher of the learner -- the white child with the dirty face and no handkerchief, the colored child, or the child with tattered clothes--could and should be viewed in this new light. "The man on the street may be permitted his opinions and prophecies of the unkempt children loitering in a dreary schoolyard. The teacher in the schoolroom may need to learn that those same prophecies within her may be fulfilled; she is no casual passer-by" (182).

# ADMINISTRATIVE LEADERSHIP



Shaping the future  
of Public Education

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION  
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION  
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**Shaping the Future  
of  
Public Education**

**articles**

**Bertram M. Gross**

**James D. Koerner**

**Malcolm C. Moos**

**Stephen K. Bailey**

**Administrative Leadership** is published three times a year by the Department of Educational Administration, University of Minnesota. It is under the direction of an editorial board composed of a staff member and three graduate students. The editorial board for the year 1969-70 includes: W. Ray Cross, Associate Professor, Floyd E. Keller, Mrs. Erma E. McGuire and Carol M. Olson. It seeks to discuss topics relevant to the important issues in today's educational endeavors.

## INTRODUCTION

This issue of **Administrative Leadership** includes the major presentations made at Schoolmen's Day, 1969, an annual conference co-sponsored by the Division of Educational Administration, University of Minnesota and the Minnesota State Department of Education. The topic chosen as the theme for this year's emphasis was "Shaping the Future of Public Education".

Looking to the future always necessitates an objective and serious evaluation of the past and present position of education in America. Each of the authors presents these issues from the benefit of his perspective.

Mr. Bertram M. Gross questions if we are doing enough presently to encompass what he terms the "educational periphery." The wide variety of public and private educational programs is producing an education complex of great scope, variety and shifting composition which will direct the shaping of the future of education. Added to this are the problems inherent in expanding urban centers, the information explosion and the accompanying narrowing of fields. All occupations are becoming more mental, thus producing an extended professionalism. Basically, Dr. Gross challenges educators to examine the changing aspirations in today's changing society.

James D. Koerner challenges educators to not settle for "mini-reforms" but look for fundamental changes in their approach to mass education. Examination of the past must suggest ways to overcome the dangers of educational drift, the attitude that schools alone can cure the ills of society, the massiveness of an educational system which promotes institutional inertia and a condescending attitude toward lay people. Educators should not stand alone in making educational policy decisions. Lay control is at present a myth. In spite of enormous expenditures there still exists inequality of educational opportunity. Lay people and educators need to set up a clear set of priorities to evaluate present attitudes, philosophies and approaches to the tasks education is best equipped to handle.

The professional's role comes under the scrutiny of Professor Stephen K. Bailey who views evils the teaching profession has encouraged, such as an unhealthy rigidity of rules and the fact that educators do not guarantee a good education. He also sees a growing awareness of the necessity of professional improvement of teachers and the quality of education. Often these innovative concerns are carried on by teacher organizations. Professor Bailey examines the question, "What makes teaching a profession?" and suggests the ultimate goal of professionalism is the learning of the child.

The topic of the future presents a complexity of questions and concerns to those seriously looking for improvement. President Malcolm Moos, University of Minnesota, views many of these concerns as they relate to higher education. The concept of the "multiversity" and the roles it can play in our changing society speaks to these questions.

Basic to all presentations are questions of direction and evaluation. What have we accomplished? How effective are we? What does the future necessitate in developing appropriate educational goals? How can the massive American educational system adapt to a rapidly changing society? Questions such as these are being asked by professionals and lay people alike. The presentations in this issue direct themselves to examination of these questions.

## THE FUTURE ENVIRONMENT FOR PUBLIC EDUCATION

Bertram M. Gross, Director  
Center for Urban Studies and  
Professor of Political Science  
Wayne State University

I will start with a famous quotation from an unpublished book by a great manager from Hollywood, Samuel Goldwyn, who is reputed to have said, "For your information, let me ask you a question." By the way, I do want to correct one minor statement made in the former introduction, I did edit the book with the words that were used, but there was a punctuation mark, the title of that volume was A GREAT SOCIETY? In the spirit of that approach I wanted to part a little bit from the new tradition of asking academics to walk the plank and talk about the future—even though it is the future environment of public education of which I am a part. Instead, I would like to ask a few questions about the present that I think have some bearing upon the future:

1. What is the present environment of public education in the broadest sense?
2. What is the immediate environment in terms of those groups and people that relate to us intimately on a daily basis?
3. What are we doing **now** in inventing the future?

There is an old quotation, I am informed in the Talmud, "If you don't know where you are going, any road will take you there." And this is often used as a way of emphasizing the necessity for looking more at the destination than at the crossroad itself. My personal variation of that old adage is, "If you don't know where you are, then you are a social scientist teaching in an American University." Of course, I could vary that by saying then you are a school principal or a school superintendent. I give this to you for your own use.

Our biggest problem today in my judgment is finding out where we are. I love people who are eager to fight to defend the status quo. I think there are many aspects of the status quo that are worth defending and must be defended. I often wonder, however, whether those people--particularly those conservatives who pledge themselves to this defense--have the slightest idea what the status quo is. If they could see it, I'm afraid that they would drop dead in fright.

At the present moment we have inherited a whole bag of concepts and terms that are used to describe our present environment. At the risk of some over-simplification for the sake of drama I will play some of these along. As a director of a Center for Urban Studies, I should know that our big problems today are not those of the Central City alone but that we must look at the whole metropolis, at the entire metropolitan area. But as a speaker here today on the question of our environment, I must say that the concept of the metropolis is becoming less useful as a way to look at urban environments. First of all, our metropolitan centers are beginning to cluster and the clusters are beginning to spread into large urban regions which are often dignified by the name of a Greek city which was destroyed many centuries ago, Megalopolis. Geographers have observed that there is already a huge megalopolis of over thirty-five thousand people in the Eastern coast stretching from Boston to Richmond. There is also the beginning--perhaps a rather rapid beginning--of a Great Lakes Megalopolis and a West Coast megalopolis. Although there are one or two other possibilities, no one foresees more than four or perhaps five megalopolis-type urban regions developing in this country. In the same fashion, I might say there are only four or five countries in the world in which there can be more than one megalopolitan region. In many parts of the world, in fact, the megalopolitan urban expanses are transnational--cutting across two or three countries as is now happening in Western Europe.

However, I find the concept of megalopolis also lagging behind the growth of our new culture or our new society. A year or two ago I worked with some people who tried to calculate the extent of communication within the megalopolitan area of the East Coast and

within the emerging megalopolis in the Great Lakes region. We came to the conclusion that the communication **among** these urban regions was just as great as the communication **within** them and from this we developed a series of hypotheses (which, of course, cannot be fully tested) that lead us to the conclusion that we are now entering a total urban culture. As we look back on the history of civilization, which has in some ways been tied up with the emergence of city states, we can now say that we are entering a period of world history when there is emerging here on the North American continent, the first Nation City.

Agriculture is urbanized. Agriculture is part of an urban culture (in an urban - controlled market economy) in a way that our forefathers never contemplated. There is no part of this great country which is not a part of the urban communication network. There is no part of this country which is isolated from the urban culture. Since one of the new aspects of urban culture is varying density rates, which are an integral part of suburban life, they can no longer be looked at as a way of distinguishing between agriculture or nonagricultural rural areas to contrast them with urban and suburban areas. The Nation City we are becoming is perhaps ungovernable but nonetheless an urban society. I must say as a student of statistics that the data which are used for the purpose of attracting attention to urbanism in presidential and gubernatorial speeches by saying that we are moving from 65% now to 75% or 85% urban, is based on intellectual rubbish. The definitions have been outdated by the movement of social change.

Let us consider the case of the large scale organizations, I happen to live in the shadow of a few of those in the Detroit area. Books have been written about The Corporation. THE corporation in Michigan is the General Motors Corporation. But as I and some of my friends and colleagues within the Corporation look at its activity, we can now see that the big corporation is only part of something new that has been emerging almost unproclaimed and unannounced in the period since World War II. The Corporation is part of a huge complex, almost as difficult to understand as the industrial-military complex which has received more attention. The particular complex which I am referring

to can be simply described as the automobile-highway-petroleum complex, composed not only of producers but of distributors and public agencies at the national, state, and local level and a whole set of companies involved in producing the fuel and component parts. No description in a few words can adequately give the variety and complexity of this new macro-system. If you landed near one of its offices and asked, "Take me to its leader," nobody could understand the question. Who is head of the industrial-military complex? Where is the Board of Directors? And as I asked some of my students, who are members of various revolutionary student groups, "If you were going to take over the industrial-military complex with your guerrilla forces coming down from the Great Lakes Plains, where would you go? Which office would you take? Let's assume you have the power, how do you get there?" As a passing comment, I might say, a few of these students have decided they are going to try to answer the question by the end of the academic year.

The point here is that we have entered a society in which the phenomenon of interrelated organizations--some huge, some small, some private, some public--is so complex that many of our old ideas of management, of guidance, of planning, bear little relationship to the real world. We are not prepared for it. Scholars have not documented it, and, if the history of the last century is followed in the coming century, our descendants, some twenty or thirty or maybe fifty years from now, will not really know (in a scientific way) what we are going through now...

We know that in this urbanized society, characterized by complex macro-systems, there has been a huge growth in white collar employment and that blue collar employment, while still with us, represents a declining proportion of the labor force. But knowing this, while it may help us understand some parts of the past, is not sufficient to understand our general environment today. It seems to me that the color of the collar is not so important anymore. In fact, I am a blue collar worker myself. I've learned that if by any chance you might be on television, it is better to be a blue collar wearer. The color of the

collar or the nature of the work is becoming less important at a time when all work tends to be less manual and more mental and the dominant change is toward extended professionalism. There may be some parts of our occupational structure where there is no urge or drive or surge towards professional status. But in most areas, there is a drive at least for para-professional, quasi-professional, or sub-professional status with increasing qualifications for entering, learning on the job, and careerism based upon learning and experience. Wherever in our occupational structure you do not find the drive towards some form of professionalism, you find an area from which people are fleeing and into which no young person will want to go. This is the dying part of our society as we enter an era of rampant, extended and rapidly developing professionalism. This professionalism, of course, requires the development of special skills of all types. But particularly, special cognitive and linguistic skills and the development of specialized jargons which will allow the professionals in any given field to discuss their own mutual problems with that economy of effort possible only when you have terms that have been highly refined. The other side of the coin is that highly refined terms are unintelligible to those who have not entered the charmed circle. (Some parts of the educational system may still speak in colloquial understandable language?) This growth of professionalism in special language and jargon has contributed to what has already been described as the information explosion: the production of more information than one's channel capacity can possibly absorb. In fact, in every profession today we find a constant complaint. I'm sure it is true, in the various professions and sub-professions that may be represented here. You cannot read all the journals that you think you should read. You cannot keep up with the three or four different thrusts in various aspects of educational psychology. This in itself turns the wheel a little faster and because the only way to protect yourself from the feeling that you cannot keep up is to narrow your field. And as we narrow our field, we tend to produce more and more information which is less and less intelligible so that the large and rapidly growing volume of professionally produced information

(particularly in the scientific field but also on the fringes of all the sciences) has created a situation that I cannot describe by anything else but saying, "This is an exponential growth in ignorance." Because there are more things of which concerned people know they are ignorant and know they must continue to be ignorant. So we have the paradox that in a society that has often been called the "learning society", with the greatest growth of education and science in the history of the world we have, I would suggest, an exponential growth in man's state of ignorance.

Summarizing these trends, I would say that they-and other factors we do not have time to touch on today-add up to an historic transformation of the entire society. A transformation which has come far more rapidly than any social revolution in the history of the world. Remember how many, many centuries ago it was when shepherds and nomads settled on the land, developed agriculture, and the first farm-based cities. We are told that agriculture started about twenty-thousand years ago. These cities based upon agricultural surpluses and contributing to those surpluses did not come into being until fifteen thousand years later or about five thousand years ago. The industrial revolution started out about two hundred years ago. Now since World War II we are witnessing a social revolution far more rapid and far more thorough-going than any of the previous ones and far more expansive because it covers the entire globe. We are witnessing the transformation of the mature industrial societies of the world into what some of us call the post-industrial cybernetic service society which dominates the cultural milieu and educational system of even those agricultural societies that are preparing themselves for the rapid and confusing change into what they think is industrialism, but which is not because they are moving into the post industrial world. This comes side by side with the emergence for the first time in history of a world society of interdependent people, organizations, and nations, world society in which communication from any part of the globe to any other part of the globe can be instantaneous. We are brought together in a network of communication and educational operations that our parents could

never have dreamed of. We are producing young men and women today with sensitivities, values and aspirations, that we sometimes find difficult to understand.

If I had more time, I would deal with the changes in aspirations, that characterize this societal transformation. However, I would prefer to say a few words about more immediate and mundane matters.

In answer to my question, "What is the immediate environment of public education?", I think of the public schools nearest to where I live in the innercity of Detroit. I'm afraid that the most immediate part of the environment is Precinct Station 10 of the Detroit Police Department because, for reasons that some of you can guess, the interrelation between the police department and the school board tends to become very acute in many of our large urban areas. We find that some teachers are even less interested in salary increases than they are in police protection. I could extend that analysis to say something about the health services that infringe upon the public schools. If I did, I would have to talk about the problem of drug addiction and some rather remarkably developed distribution systems, in many respects far more efficient than General Motors' network of automobile wholesalers and retailers. The remarkable development of an informal subterranean distribution system which can somehow or other, bring heroin, "speed," and "grass" to any student from any junior high school who wants it, while at the same time, preserving the virginal ignorance of the teachers and the school administrators, is truly remarkable.

But I'll skip over that, too, and talk about the immediate environment of the public education system in more bread and butter terms. I'm referring specifically to a whole variety of public or private educational activities that are knocking on the walls of the public school system. Some of these come through funds under the anti-poverty program, some under the model neighborhood program. Some of them are, as with head start, oriented toward extending the span of public education down lower into the pre-kindergarten group. Others are oriented for reworking the rejects which are spun off from the public schools. All of them tend to be types of educational activities

that have not been developed before and have fallen into that unrecognized, disorderly, low-grade kind of educational activity, which has often been referred to as "extension work" or "adult-extension", but which I prefer to describe as the "educational periphery". To put it another way, if we look at the public education systems in the country today, we find that in 1965 there were about 48 or 49 million students enrolled in elementary and secondary schools and for the purpose of convenience I am including the private schools as well. In 1970 this number increases rather greatly but if we look at the fringes, if we look at the periphery, we find a number that is almost as large and in the very near future will become larger. To put it another way, the public educational system while extending downward toward kindergarten and nursery and extending upwards in certain respects through the expanding state universities is also environed by a large and growing and extremely heterogenous mass of formally organized education activities that have never as yet been fully studied, never yet been fully recognized in the councils of government. Professor Bailey, who will be speaking later has been one of the pioneers in developing this broader focus towards education in the United States. Wilbur Cohen, who is the Dean of the College of Education in Detroit's Ann Arbor suburbs at the University of Michigan, worked with us while he was still Secretary of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, and with his help we tried to put together the first estimate ever prepared in the total size and character of the educational complex in the United States.

I am using the same term that I referred to before. If the industrial-military complex and the automobile-highway-petroleum complexes are hard to understand, I think that educators at least should try to understand the dimensions and the changing composition of the educational complex in America. To do so, we must recognize that there is very great activity going on within private business. Some of it is at the level of the new entry into the factory, to compensate for the failure of vocational education systems. It goes on further to foreman training, to middle-management training and management training. Some large corporations have used school systems of their own: the

General Motors Corporation, for example, even has an accredited college of its own that gives Bachelor's Degrees in engineering. As a whole, the proprietary schools were formerly involved in such useful things as teaching people to cut hair properly or to produce what is referred to on shop windows as "beauty." We had a visitor at Wayne State University, a city planner from Prague who disconcerted us before he left by reporting on his effort to find beauty in the city of Detroit. He said he couldn't find any attention to it in any of the schools of architecture nearby or in the city-planning department, they would not discuss the subject. But he found something called "beauty shops" all around the city. The beauty shop and the barber training and mortuary science schools are really now being replaced by the specialized computer schools that will turn out obsolescent programmers in short order for a good fee. Correspondence schools seem to be growing rather rapidly, often linked with universities. Perhaps one of the largest areas of growth is in the TV and radio programs for formal course enrollment and accredited study through the airways. And then there is the huge residual category of what is referred to as adult education, which, while dealing with people who want to go far beyond what they learned in school and thus meeting a very important need, has nevertheless thus far rather significantly failed to address itself to those adults in the inner-cities of American metropolitan areas who are most in need of additional education and training.

I met with many of the adult education groups in the Galaxy Conference in Washington a week ago, and I found there a great awareness of the felt need for educational activities that would be relevant to the education problems of uneducated black people who can't qualify for the positions they want. I also found a growing interest in the proposition that more adult education for the families of children in black ghettos would make a major contribution toward that learning environment in the home which is so essential to provide the proper motivation and environmental situation for children in the elementary and secondary schools. But I have not yet found on the part of many people in public education, of people in primary and

secondary school education, an interest in those forms of adult education that are seriously and desperately needed to provide the proper learning environment for the child.

If we add up all these various forms, we find that in contrast to a full time enrollment of about 60 million learners from kindergarten to graduate school in the United States today, probably another 60 million learners in formally organized programs in what I have designated the "periphery" or the "extensions." This is the very immediate part of the environment of public education that has traditionally not been recognized as part of the system for the simple reason that it competes to some extent with the formal educational establishment. The Office of Education is just now beginning hesitantly for the first time to survey the entire range of these peripheral or extensional activities. I have often suspected that one of the reasons why they have not counted the periphery as an educational part of public education's environment, has been the rather narrow-minded fear on the part of some that if they were counted, their visibility as competitors for scarce funds might be somewhat dangerous. This is the only reason I can give for the failure to make a simple accounting of what the system has regarded as a "no account" set of activities.

So as I come to the question of **"What are we doing to invent the future?"** I cannot help but wonder whether we are doing enough to take into account the present scope, variety, and shifting composition of the educational system.

In bringing this to a close I want to refer to some things that are happening in Washington. I have some difficulty in doing so because in talking about things that are underway in Washington, I may seem to be presenting myself as a spokesman for the administration. And, as an ivory-tower academic, I can easily feel that if this administration wanted a spokesman they could find somebody who would be more suitable. At any rate, in July of this year an announcement was made at the White House that in July of next year the first White House report would be issued on national goals. The date of that report was stated as July 4, 1970. The content of the report was hinted at. The goals would

be for American growth by 1976. The statement was made that in 1976 the inevitable celebration of America's bi-centennial as a republic should be characterized by something more than looking back two hundred years. It should be characterized by looking back seven years to what has been done between 1970-1976. For that reason the July 4, 1970 report is to be prepared by a new staff called the National Goals Research Staff which will provide goals for, or discuss options concerning goals for, the year 1976 and will raise certain questions concerning goal formulations through the entire period from 1976 to the year 2000.

In September, every governor was asked to establish a bi-centennial goals commission and commissions have already been established in ten states. One need not be a very profound political scientist to suggest that in the American system there will be 50 such commissions established in short order and that these commissions will be paralleled by a series of bi-centennial organizations in every major city of the country. One also need not be a profound analyst of the future to suggest that many of these commissions will operate in a purely ritualist manner. But at the same time, I already know that some of them are already taking seriously the proposition of formulating goals for the next six or seven years with a perspective toward the year 2000.

I have been consulting both with the National Goals Research Staff and the staff of the American Revolution Bi-Centennial Commission, which was set up two years ago and now operates under the chairmanship of Dr. Wallace Sterling, former head of Stanford University. As you might expect, by the way, when the dignified members of this commission met, their first question was, "Why in the devil did Congress have to put that word "revolution" in our title?" But it is called the American Revolution Bi-centennial Commission. I do not think that that word will appear in the titles of many state commissions that our governors will be creating in the very near future. But I do believe that there will be an orientation not merely toward firecrackers but toward somewhat more explosive if not constructive considerations of our future goals and our future choices.

The formulation of large huge goals for the future is threatened, however, not only by a failure to understand where we are, but by the great glory of the hypnotic influence of goals for the whole nation as distinguished from goals of what can be done, for example, in this state of Minnesota or in the city of Minneapolis or the city of St. Paul. In my city, we have a new mayor and a new Common Council and it is our hope that they will act in concert during the next two months in taking steps towards the formulation of goals for the future of the Detroit area. If so, this too, will be an empty firecracker operation unless the school board (and the new decentralized school districts to be set up under new state legislation) are a vital part of the goal formulation process. So in that spirit, I say I could not possibly talk upon goals for the future environment or goals for the future educational system. The question of goal formulation, the question of shaping the future, is not a question of predictions as to what might happen although they are helpful. The basic question is "What are people doing in their own localities in trying to invent the future?" I should like to think that those people who have borne the brunt of trying to raise the quality of public education while the quantity of it has been growing also (and while public education has been tossed to and fro by a large array of social forces that are almost impossible for us to understand) will play their part in inventing the future by specifically developing their own goals not only for public education but for the immediate environment of educational systems in their cities and their states.

## **THE ROLE OF THE LAYMAN IN SHAPING THE FUTURE OF PUBLIC EDUCATION**

**James D. Koerner  
Education Development Center  
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Educators, wherever they gather these days, always wind up listening to somebody talk about what's wrong in American education or wind up discussing that subject voluntarily themselves. I do not want to break that precedent today, so I am delighted to be here to contribute to your day of self-examination, not to say masochism, and I do want to talk a little about what's wrong. You may in response have to engage in a kind of act or state of open charity in my behalf. You know there's an old gag about a speaker like myself addressing an audience like this. If the audience has given him some applause in the beginning that is called an act of faith; if there is anywhere an expression in the middle, that is an act of simple hope; if there is still any by the end that is an act of sheer charity.

Actually I find myself somewhat ambivalent, to use a vogue word, about the educational system these days. I wonder how many of you share with me the feeling about how difficult it is to maintain a sense of balance concerning the educational system now. Attacking our political and social institutions has certainly displaced baseball as the national sport, particularly the educational systems, and, of course, it seems to be played with special vigor by the young. You might think that to an old campaigner like me who has spent a lot of time saying some harsh things about the educational system; about its lack of clear objectives, about its low standards--you might think that these new critics in their numbers would be a source of some comfort to me, but I find that that really isn't true.

I find that the revolutionaries among them so dominate the press with their flamboyant and I think, quite illegitimate demands that I

have constantly struggled with myself to remember that there is a much larger group of critics out there whose demands are more legitimate and whose complaints are far more worth listening to. Even though this larger group of young critics often expresses its dissatisfaction in the same inflamed kind of rhetoric that the SDS and other groups do, I find in what they are saying many echoes of my own thoughts over the years. I find many of my ideas coming back to me in what they say with, as Emerson put it in one occasion, "certain alienated majesty." But as for today's youthful fanatics, what is there that we can say to them? So strident, so uncompromising, so insolent, so blindly partisan, so self-righteous, and so simple-minded in the analyses of our educational problems. What is it that we can say to them? Well, it probably isn't very much. Because, after all, what is lacking principally in their behavior, is any sense of perspective, a sense of proportion. These are luxuries that revolutionaries in any age have never been able to afford. Very little room for reason or reflection, and certainly there seems to be none now for charity or for accommodating the foibles and contradictions of human nature or for recognizing that good and even evil never come in pure and unadulterated form. As Oscar Wilde once put it, "the truth is rarely pure and never simple," and I am afraid that our young educational fanatics think that it is not only pure and simple, but that they know it.

As I said, I find myself in a somewhat unaccustomed position these days of wanting to defend the system which yesterday I was attacking in various ways. I want to defend the new barbarians who with such gusto seem to be assaulting the barricades of a very vulnerable target, the educational system, and sometimes lobbing molotov cocktails in the watch towers as well. But such a defensive stance also has its frustrations and, therefore, I think is to be avoided. Because the educational deficiencies I and many other people decried earlier have not by any means been solved. Some of them have grown worse. I think that the new mood among educators is a kind of prolonged self-examination, even though you may find yourselves saying and listening to the same things it is a very healthy thing. It was

that old curmudgeon Albert J. Knox who once said that the first condition of progress is a peremptory dissatisfaction. Probably all of us share to some degree that kind of peremptory dissatisfaction now. So we have met at least the first condition of progress.

With the question to which I am to address myself, the role of the layman information of educational policy, I would begin simply by asking why anybody is interested in such a subject. The assumption is that there is something wrong with the present arrangement. But before I can discuss that at all specifically, I have to back up and try to begin with you at the risk of covering too elementary a kind of subject. I must back up and begin with what seems to be first principles. I would ask you to presume here for a few minutes the same kind of omniscience that our young revolutionaries can assume and let me act as prosecutor, defendant, judge, and jury for a few minutes while I talk about what's wrong with the educational system. In other words I am asking you if you will give me a kind of Tonkin Gulf resolution--one I hasten to say with a short time limit. What are our educational vices then?

We might begin for example by looking at the political structure of the United States which is, of course, far more decentralized than the political structure of almost any other advanced country of the world, certainly any of the democracies, with the possible exception of Switzerland. This kind of decentralization of authority in power has traditionally been regarded by Americans as perhaps our greatest protection against oppression by a monolithic state but it also has a lot to do, and I share that view, with the persistence of inequality of opportunity in American education. Vast and open-ended as is our educational system, the fact of multiple authorities, the fact of the vast differences between the rich states and poor states, between cities and suburbs, wealthy school districts and poverty school districts, all means simply that the stupendous investment that we make as a nation in education is still divided in pretty unequal parts.

That's one of our problems. But we have still others that grow out of this problem. We have made such an enormous national commitment to education and we've assigned to it so many different kinds of things

that we expect it to do, that it sometimes resembles the kind of enormous unguided missile that goes rocketing along through space with great mass but without the faintest idea of what kind of destination it is supposed to be looking for. We have given such extensive access to education, we keep the door open so long, that we tend now to fill our educational institutions with large numbers of young people who are not really very interested in the kinds of education that those institutions have to offer. So among other things we incur a tremendous amount of waste. Inefficiency and low standards become chronic problems in our educational system. For example, we take into higher education such a large portion of our young people, much larger than any other country in the world, that our colleges have adopted a kind of production line technique in a field that doesn't lend itself very well to that kind of approach. So students in our bursting colleges, state universities and stupendous multiversities understandably feel that they are just faces in the crowd and that they, far from being educated individually, are simply being programmed on the IBM equipment. Sometimes they also feel these days that they are simply being exploited by deans or professors, whose salaries go up as the number of students they teach goes down. It is this kind of unsolved problem of sheer mass in mass education that seems to me to account for a lot of our other problems. It accounts for ultimately, I think, most of our other problems and this has been with us, this unsolved problem of sheer mass, since the early part of the century when we began to universalize secondary education and its obviously going to continue to be with us as we universalize higher education. So while recognizing that there are many unique aspects to American education, and many excellent aspects as well, one might be tempted these days to point to the magnificent flight of Apollo 12 as a triumph of American technology, though it might incidentally also have something to do with the German education system.

Even though we do have many successes, it is our failures to which we really have to turn our attention now. At the risk of carrying coals to Newcastle let me review with you. I think its a healthy thing for us

to look again, quite specifically, at some of these salient failures of this enormous educational system that we have created; what some of those failures are. Let's not even look in a general way at the poor cities because we all know what kinds of problems we suffer from there and their multiplicity. Let's look more specifically at what some of our failures are--take reading, for example.

In spite of the gigantic investment that we have made in universal education, despite at least fifteen years of rather intense controversy about the teaching of reading that began with Rudolph Flesch's abrasive broadside **Why Johnny Can't Read** we are still carrying on that kind of national discussion. The lack of reading ability continues to be a signal failure of the educational system. We continue to turn out people after 12 years of public schooling who do not read well and, certainly, do not read for pleasure. We continue to turn out vast numbers of children in the early elementary grades who do not know how to read. We know better why this condition, this tragic deficiency, persists. Whether or not we are going to be able to cure it is, at least in the short-term future, another problem. I doubt very much that we will. After all, the teaching of reading has now turned into a kind of minor industry. that still continues to be dominated by look-say reading experts and publishers, and the fact is, and we have to face it, that changing this industry is not something we can do in the short term. It is going to take a lot of work and a lot of effort and the first thing we have to recognize as Commissioner Allen reminded us not long ago when he made reading the first priority in the future in American education, the first thing we have to do is recognize that it is a problem.

Take another notable failure of our educational system--the whole area of vocational education, to which Professor Gross alluded this morning, quite cogently. Despite the investment we have made in something called voactional education, we still turn out regiments of people, 16, 17, 18 years old who are unemployed and most of them unemployable. The latest labor department figures indicate that about a quarter of the white males age 16-19 are unemployed, and about a third of the non-white males currently. The figures for women unemployed

are higher. The lack of a basic education, a lack of vocational skill, is not the only reason that these people are unemployed, but it is the main reason.

So what can we say about a system of universal education that has carried on this long and given this much special attention to something called vocational education when that condition continues to prevail? Or look again at some of the special programs that Professor Gross mentioned, such as the Job Corp? This is nothing more or less than an effort by the central government to retrieve at enormous cost, just a fraction of those young people that were lost somehow in the public educational system. I think this in itself represents a rather serious indictment of that system. Or look again at that large and very neglected area of American education I was delighted to hear Professor Gross mention this morning, the whole area of what he called the peripheral area of American education, proprietary schools, other kinds of post secondary institutions that really take in every year tens of thousands of young people directly out of schools, most of the time those that have been out for two or three years, that give them vocational preparation very often in the same subject they thought they were taking in secondary school to prepare them for jobs. I join him wholeheartedly in wishing that the educational system itself, the non-profit sector of education which after all is the visible part of it, would re-examine its attitude and its prejudices about this area of American education, which to my mind anyway makes a really enormous contribution to our national educational effort and does not get the kind of recognition that it deserves. I am particularly aware of that at this point because I have been following that lawsuit case in Washington, the Margery Webster Junior College lawsuit against the Middle States Regional Accrediting Association. I have been following that very closely and it seems to say in itself quite a lot about this particular problem.

Take a look at a more general problem, the problem of general education. Look what happens with the results year after year, with the selective service qualification test. What does it say about our system of

education when as much as a quarter, sometimes a third, of the young men that take that test every year, flunk it? Because the norms in that test, not very high, it is a relatively simple test in language and numbers and the statistics of failure on that test offer no very great support for the claim that some of us have made for the educational system. Or to look at still another example, look at what happens in arithmetic and in mathematics in American schools; this despite the fact that we have claimed over the last fifteen years to have revolutionized the teaching of arithmetic and mathematics. All of us must have our favorite stories about the new math. Some of you will remember the 1967 UNESCO project called International Study of Arithmetic and Mathematics which indicated that American students, despite this 15 year revolution, were outperformed in mathematics by the students of practically every other industrialized country of the world. So again, what can we say about the promise of universal education and the massive investment we have made in it when we look at something like Project Talent?

Remember a few years ago, in 1964, that that really unprecedented investigation, enormous investigation, far larger than any of its kind that has been conducted before, produced a book called the **American High School Student** that a lot of American educators, I think at least subconsciously, would like to forget because the profile drawn there of the intellectual condition of the American high school student was not at all a happy one. It was so unhappy that the investigators themselves proclaimed themselves shocked by the results.

To look at still another example, some of you are probably familiar with the results of the statewide testing programs; though we don't have very many of them, we have some. New York state has a large one, California has a large one. If you look at the New York State results year after year, and at the percentages of young people in New York State schools that fail to reach that minimum acceptable level of performance, I think you, too, might be somewhat shocked by the results.

These are specific areas of our problems. I do not even address the

larger question that one is clearly tempted to ask. Such as this: What can we say about a system of universal education that has been extended longer and extended upward and higher than any other in the history of the world when the society that sustains that educational system is rent with such cataclysmic crises as our society is now rent with? The fact is that universal education has failed to meet even the minimal claim that educators over the years have made for it.

Now it seems to me that the American educator has done a magnificent job of selling education to the American public and I grant that educators have had a willing buyer but they've done a splendid job of selling the idea, called formalized education. They've done this on three grounds, three principal claims for this movement. One is that they have claimed that this kind of ever extending universal education will assure us an enlightened and competent public order. Secondly, educators have said that this kind of growing system will assure each individual the chance to be educated as an individual, and to develop to a maximum his intellect and his personality as an individual. The third claim that has always been made is that there is a causal connection between education and money. That is we have always said that the more education you have the more money you will make. I think we have paid off on only the third one of these claims and even there I am not sure how causal that relationship is, although there is a statistical correlation.

All that I am saying is that if universal education had met even these minimal claims that we have made for it, would we now be suffering from the kind of tormented problems that we are - the racial crisis for example ,the threat of irreversible pollution and environmental disaster? Would we be confronted with the 'headlong escape' of a frighteningly large part of a whole generation of students into a culture of drugs, self-indulgence, and instant gratification? Would we be faced with the prospect, perhaps not just the prospect, the certainty, of destruction through over-population of mankind's few remaining chances for a bed of privacy and peace on his own planet? I say nothing you see about such problems as the state of our national mental health

or the level of our public debate nationally and I do not even talk about such trivial questions as whether American culture, the level of our massive entertainment, for example, or our aesthetic life in general says anything about our educational system. Or whether the monumental ugliness of our cities, for example, says anything about what is happening in our system of education which has been conducted for so many years.

I do not suggest that all of these failures--reading, vocational education, what the selective service qualification test says, the state-wide testing results these larger social and political problems--I do not suggest at all that these very complex problems are solely the failure of the educational system. Obviously they are not. But what I am saying is that these failures, it seems to me, underscore very strongly the fact that our performance has not met our claim.

Our commitment as a nation to education remains as great as ever, I suppose it is greater than it has ever been. But the search for purpose, direction, priority; that search continues to go on. We search, all of us, for the answer to the most fundamental of questions it seems to me. Whether mass education means truly educated? Whether, in fact, it can assure us of a humane, enlightened, cultured, competent, body politic. I do not know whether it can or not. No educational system in the world has ever done that but perhaps ours can if we are willing to look to the past and learn from the past.

And what is it that we should learn? The past offers many concrete particular lessons that we are all fond of because they point to things that we can actually try to do in our school next week or tomorrow morning. The greatest lessons in the past seem to me to lie somewhere else. They lie in basic attitudes, philosophy, the expectations that we have or do not have for the educational system, the general approach that we have adopted to the problem of trying to educate everybody for an extended period of time.

So although American educators tend to be pragmatists and although I would like to offer you this morning a series of what might

be called propositions for pragmatists, I have to settle for something as far less satisfying both for you and for me. I have to say first that the lesson that we ought to learn from the past is a very general one that relates to the dangers of educational drift. If we look at the past, what it says to us is that an educational system without a philosophical rudder so to speak, a defined and limited purpose is very likely to run in circles and not achieve any worthwhile goal. I do not believe myself that any society, this side of paradise anyway, can expect a school in some specific manner to solve all the problems that society at large does not seem able to solve.

Now contrary to reports, educators are not omniscient and education is not omnipotent and I do not think that we can look at teachers and administrators for the kind of social and political wisdom that is far beyond say that of the ordinary layman. I do not think that we ought or can do that nor should we expect education to accept responsibility for fighting every practical problem that comes along. Now it is possible I am sure in some fashion to teach students, to teach young people to drive safely, to be neat, or to shun drugs, or to be kind to animals, to love human beings, oppose poverty, and practice virtue. It may be possible to teach people to do that but I do not know whether it can be learned or not. And there is a very great difference as Ceasar Pervaci once put it: "Lessons are not given they are taken." I doubt very much that such a thing as safety or kindness is a teachable thing, As for virtue, Socrates you may remember decided at length that virtue cannot be taught it could only be learned by living. I am only saying that if we persist in forcing the educational system to take on all of the social, political and human problems that even the wisest adults are not able to solve; and if we add other kinds of more specific jobs, teachable skills of some kind that somebody considers important, then the educational system will continue to drift in the future as it has in the past and I think that we will continue to waste our educational substance.

If, however, we can agree that schools should be content to do

what they are uniquely fitted to do, we might begin to solve our educational problems. We would be saying that the main job of the school system is concerned with the removal of ignorance, with the learning to read for example, or with the achievement of literacy in the fundamental subjects of human knowledge. We would be saying that education's primary job is concerned with furnishing of young minds and with the disciplining of the mental habits of the young. And, yes, for some it also has to do with more specific vocational preparation of a kind that will allow such people to be employed after they have been out of school, not only because they have a saleable skill, so called, but because they also have a solid basic education which will allow them to adapt themselves to a rapidly changing economy.

In a word, we would be saying that schools and all of us are better off doing a finite number of things well and that these things have mostly to do with the development of the mind than if schools tried to do an infinite number of things and of necessity to do most of them badly. If we would insist on this kind of clear set of priorities for education we might in the end begin to develop an electorate that is able given this common foundation to begin to solve these problems. That is the first thing that I think we ought to look to the past to learn. The second thing, it's not second in order of priority, in some ways it's first, it relates closely to the question that I am addressing somewhat obliquely this morning, the role of the layman, the second thing you learn is to be skeptical of expert knowledge in education.

In view of all of the failures that I've just been discussing, it seems to me that we ought to recognize, both layman and educator, that we have all badly estimated in the past the extent and quality of expert knowledge about education. Talk about reading, vocational education, and all of the other problems and others that I say that you could mention. It has been out of deference, too, the claims to expertise that educators have made on these problems. Then out of deference to those, the rest of us, the laymen, have allowed educators to make many and most of the policy decisions about how American education will be

conducted. Now if we are to judge by the results that faith has not been well placed. It was the former commissioner of education, Harold Howe, who said on one occasion "I suspect we educators sometimes tend to regard ourselves as anointed by a holy oil that confers a unique wisdom upon us and that we literally regard layman as a flock of sheep to be herded toward a destination that we have picked out."

I think that the traditional attitude of the specialists in education, educational administrators in particular toward parents and toward laymen has been one that on the whole is too condescending, too patronizing, and that in many cases anyway tends almost to sneer at the lack of expert knowledge on the part of layman. They do not speak the same jargon as educators do, sometimes they make stupid statements about education and I'm sure many of you have been in meetings that I've been in where educational administrators particularly superintendents of schools, I might say, have a whole bag full of favorite stories about their stupid constituents or school board members and things of this sort. So often they seem almost to regard a parent and a layman as one of those people, as some Englishman said some time ago, "that parents are the last people on earth that ought to have children." But of course in this imperfect world they do. It is too bad when educational administrators regard this constituency almost his enemy. They seem to take the position that a civic French writer, Voltaire, once took when he said somewhere in his writing that he had only one prayer to God in all of his life. "God make my enemies ridiculous." And said Voltaire, "God granted it." I also remember a comment from someplace in Mark Twain's writing to the effect that first God practiced on idiots and then he made school boards.

I know that I am overstating the case in order to make a point. We talk a lot about lay control of American education but you and I know that that is one of the most persistent myths around that American education is not really controlled by a layman at all and not by school boards either. It's controlled in the fundamental sense by professionals. I think we simply now must recognize that on almost any important

question that we can ask in education--what children ought to learn, how they ought to learn it, how much it should cost, what the standard should be, whether or not to give something called compensatory education, what intelligence is and how to measure it, how teachers or schools should be evaluated, who should go to college?--decisions are made by professionals. I think that all questions of this kind, basic questions about the educational system, I think we now ought to recognize how quickly the limits of expert knowledge are reached. All this simply means by extension an enlarged role of some kind for the layman.

I am not at this point prepared to say what exact form that should take, simply because it can take a great many forms and while I would agree that the leadership offered by laymen and the general public in education has often in the past not been of the quality that it can and should be, that is no reason to diminish it now, as I think we are in very great danger of doing. I expect it to go this way rather than the way in which I would advocate. Despite that lack of good leadership in the past, I feel very strongly that we ought to move toward securing it and enlarging it in the future. In some cases the existing mechanisms are adequate for that kind of enlarged role for laymen. In other cases, particularly in the main cities, it may be necessary for new instrumentalities of some kind to be created to allow this to happen.

I recently made a proposal in Massachusetts which I am glad to say got into the legislature, and got through in fact to the California legislature at the other end of the country who are creating just this kind of new instrumentality in this state to cover the whole field of the education and licensing of school personnel. It has not passed yet, although it did pass incidentally by wide majorities in both houses in California--and then Governor Reagan vetoed it. However, I am told that he did so for what may turn out to be good reasons but we will not go into that. That then is the second thing.

Let me just quickly indicate what I think is the third basic lesson we ought to learn from the past because it is directly related to the

second one of the role of the layman in the formation of educational policy. It is simply this. If the past teaches us anything, it is that we now have to find ways to avoid the kind of institutional inertia that overtakes all organizations in any field but seems to overtake those in education more rapidly and more solidly than in other fields. Perhaps because of the sheer size, the gargantuan size of the educational system. I have a quote for you from John Gardner, a man of much experience in organizations which seems to me to point out the exact problem. "Organizations must have some means of combating the process by which men become prisoners of their procedures. The rule book grows fatter as ideas grow thinner. Thus almost every well-established organization is a coral reef of procedures that were laid to achieve some long forgotten objective." Well the fact that this phenomenon is common and this one certainly is, doesn't make it tolerable or defensible. I have in mind not only the inertia of schools themselves which after all are pretty inflexible institutions where things are done pretty much by the numbers and by the clock and where the rule book does seem to grow fatter every year. I have not only in mind those organizations but also the others, the professional organizations and the special interest groups in education. Accrediting organizations, for example, the regional accrediting groups in particular, it seems to me are splendid illustrations these days of the inability to cope with the kind of change that Professor Gross was talking about and that we are all aware of, the kind of evolutionary change that is now going on in the educational system. They are a splendid illustration of the inability of old-line institutions to adjust to those kinds of powerful movements and I would also mention the state departments of education, - one of which I think is the co-sponsor of this conference, we will except them from the general phenomenon, but it seems to me that they, too, are good illustrations of the fact that nothing is so painful in long established bureaucratic organizations than the prospect of some kind of major departure from past practice.

I would also mention the NEA and the AFT in this regard--the

teachers' organizations. Although they in some ways are changing and adapting more rapidly than others but on the whole it's still pretty much what they have been in the past. The NEA is a kind of slow-footed well-healed bureaucracy and the other, the AFT, a kind of fiery tough-talking bunch of political amateurs. But what are they chiefly concerned with? They are chiefly concerned of course, understandably enough with the improvement of their own membership. But the problem is the drive for improvement takes only one form. It takes the form of extracting as much money as possible from the public and what it seems to me to be terribly necessary now is for these groups to recognize that that movement however justified it may be has got now to involve some kind of qualitatatives **quid pro quo** for the man that is picking up the sky rocketing bill for education. We could go on in this vein for a long time about educational institutions and organizations that stand in need of this kind of a reassessment.

If we look to our past for lessons of this kind, it seems to me we might look to our future with less foreboding. But I think if we fail to do that, if we fail to profit from these mistakes of the past, we will simply repeat them. We will continue to concentrate on what might be called "Mini-reforms", little practical things that we can do tomorrow or next week, when what we need are fundamental changes in the approach that we take to mass education and what we expect it to achieve. I have a closing quote from a well-known man named Thoreau, who in his journals makes this observation: "For every man striking at the roots of evil there are a thousand hacking at the branches." I think it is apt. I think we should in the 1970's learn these kinds of lessons from our past, we, too, might begin to strike at the roots of the problem and spend less time hacking at the branches.

## **THE FUTURE OF HIGHER EDUCATION -- THE MULTIVERSITY**

**Malcolm C. Moos  
President  
University of Minnesota**

The broad canvas you have asked me to work on is the Minnesota Multiversity in all its multiple diversity, a public and private aggregate of post-secondary systems and institutions that enrolled nearly 150,000 students this fall,

- in area vocational-technical schools,
- in private junior and senior colleges and professional schools,
- in the State Junior College System, the State College System, and the University of Minnesota System.

I choose to treat these multiple systems and institutions as components in a single multiversity. Together they provide the response that Minnesota has made to the post-secondary educational needs of its citizens. Together they form the institutional frame within which answers to expanding needs must be found in the decade ahead. Properly orchestrated, the answer they provide can be a strong, unified, realization of our best vision. We seek a society in which no man's potential is limited by lack of opportunity for an education commensurate with his potential, in which no social problem festers for lack of educated intelligence to address it, in which mankind takes one more step toward realization of his capacity for a humane, generous and fulfilling life. The Minnesota multiversity can help us attain that vision, or it can founder in the floodtide of the tasks before us.

For this reason, I want to look briefly today at where we are with the Minnesota Multiversity as the 1960's fade, and at where we must be when the 1980's dawn. We begin that decade knowing that we have done better so far than we had any idea we would have to do. If we reach 1980 successfully, we will wonder why we thought we had accomplished so much by 1970.

I know this topic is as consequential to you who work with our elementary and secondary schools as it is to those of us who work directly with the multiversity. Your systems contributed nearly 123,000 Minnesotans to the total population now served by the post-secondary systems. Your hopes for what must and can be accomplished by a constantly improving elementary and secondary system are fatefully intertwined with the success or failure of our post-secondary efforts. No doubt there is much **you** could tell **me** about the relevance and quality of the experiences your graduates are now having for the \$350 million or so that the Minnesota Multiversity is spending on operating costs for their education this year. And no doubt this is a topic which should bring us together many times in the decade ahead. For in the largest sense, we are all in the same great work -- drawing strength or weakness from our respective successes or failures -- bound together in our common concern for opening the doors that only education can unlock.

So saying, let me confine myself to the problems of the post-secondary systems. And let me start with a reminder of the explosive story of the decade now folding into history.

- The state colleges have tripled their enrollment.

- The public junior colleges, by adding a number of institutions including five in the metro area, have increased their enrollment six-fold.

- The University of Minnesota system starting from a much higher base increased its enrollments by about two-thirds.

- The area vocational-technical schools enrolled six times as many students in 1969 as they did at the beginning of the decade.

Another way of telling the story of the sixties is to look at students totals. Between 1960 and 1969 we created spaces for over 4000 lower division students each year on the average in all of our systems of higher education. And we found ways to enroll 2000 additional upper division students each year. We also developed the resources for enrolling over 1000 new students in post-baccalaureate

programs each year. When we add to this total those students who are enrolled in area vocational-technical schools and other post-secondary institutions, we find that we have added to our enrollments at the rate of approximately 9000 students per year. Stated otherwise we have tipped in the equivalent of a new St. Cloud State College each year over the last ten years.

Elsewhere the increases in our capability between 1965 and 1969 are even more pronounced. The state colleges almost doubled in size; the junior colleges tripled in size; and there has been a 250% increase in the area vocational technical schools. Starting, of course, from a broader enrollment base, the University has increased in size about one-third in the last five years.

The growth that these figures demonstrate is phenomenal indeed. All one needs to do is look back at the projections made by the Gale Committee on Higher Education in 1956 to get some measure of the giant steps we have taken. That Committee, in a report only 14 years ago, projected on data then available that 95,000 students would be enrolled in public and private collegiate programs in Minnesota by the fall of 1970. But the enrollment figures for the fall of 1969 indicate that we are enrolling 135,000 in such programs already. When we add those students in the area vocational-technical schools, we approach the 150,000 mark -- one and one-half times the Gale projections.

Quite apart from arithmetic giantism is the diversity of post-baccalaureate opportunity that has been accomplished. The rapid growth of the junior colleges and the range of their programs has brought new patterns of education and new alternatives for students who do not wish to follow the traditional baccalaureate route. On another front the area vocational-technical schools have developed a diverse array of non-collegiate training programs that are aimed directly at meeting the manpower needs of the state.

Taking a deep breath and looking at the 70's one matter is certain: We need to find room over the next ten years for approximately 80,000 more students in collegiate programs. To this figure one must add the

young people who will be seeking opportunities through the area vocational-technical schools, the private trade schools, and private colleges generally. And beyond these totals we need to add the adults seeking continuing education, new insights and training in their professions, or preparing for new careers. Clearly the major burden of higher education in the 70's must be borne by the multiversity. The junior college system very likely will double. The lower and upper division enrollments in the state college system will also double and the graduate programs in the state colleges will probably need to be multiplied three fold from their present base.

The University, likewise, confronts startling adjustments.

- It will need to accommodate a small increase in lower division enrollments;

- Its upper division will need to be increased by about sixty percent;

- But the most striking and perhaps most difficult University problem of the next decade will be its ability to generate capacity and programs for graduate and professional enrollments which seem certain to double by 1980.

For the University to fulfill its proper contribution to the multiversity by 1980, it will need to add capabilities for approximately 2,000 additional lower division students, almost 10,000 more upper division students, and a phenomenal 14,000 additional students in post-baccalaureate programs. In the health sciences alone, the manpower needs of the state and region call for an additional 3,000 to 4,000 students by 1980.

As all of you know, this will require a massive infusion of additional resources in all of the systems of the multiversity. You also know that the rate of escalation in educational costs has serious implications for us all. Costs of education are accelerating at a rate almost twice that of cost-of-living increases in other areas of the economy.

In the search for massive additional support, we at the University

will need to seek federal sources for bloc grants-in-aid. For the University, in addition to being a major state resource, is also a national resource -- a national university. It makes a distinct contribution to the higher specialized needs of the nation and, along with approximately twenty other institutions that exercise national leadership, it must look to muscular federal support if it is to maintain its distinction in the world of higher learning.

Ahead, as we project from our present baseline, several priorities loom large.

-- The growth of the junior colleges will develop intensified pressures for additional upper division opportunities. All of the present baccalaureate institutions will be asked to devote unusual attention to such students who wish to transfer opportunities. Some specialized mechanisms making transfer among institutions easier must be developed and some specialized programs of scholarships and financial aids will also need to be formulated.

The orchestration of higher education calls for special effort.

-- The systems of post-secondary non-professional education must develop patterns of interaction and coordination to avoid administrative competitions, unnecessary and costly overlap and duplication of programs, and unwarranted proliferation of institutions. The state cannot afford otherwise.

-- The needs of the metropolitan area during the seventies will require very careful assessments. It is increasingly evident that a new institution offering the bachelor's degree will be required to meet those needs. The governance, program, and geographic placement of such an institution require careful thought, but an early decision.

-- Expansion of vocational and technical educational opportunities is already in the development state in the suburban areas. But considerable thought must be given to development of new kinds of baccalaureate and allied and non-professional programs in areas outside the technical fields -- especially in areas of human services such as health care, education, business and social work.

-- Parity of relationships must be established. There cannot be, during the seventies, any continuation of a big-brother syndrome. As systems and institutions mature, they must be accepted into full partnership in educational endeavors. We must not create a layer cake of institutions exclusively concerned with different segments of our population. Rather we must seek a marble cake relationship -- sharing missions and students of differing abilities and permitting them to move in a mobile market of educational opportunity.

-- Our systems must become student centered as well as discipline centered. We must keep reminding ourselves that the education of people is the prime reason for our existence as institutions; that our first work is that of maximizing human potential. Nothing must be allowed to distort that basic purpose.

-- We must take into account not only the individual aspirations of our young people, but the manpower needs of the state as well. We must certainly seek to meet the developing educational pressures of the metropolitan area -- that is where a majority of our students will be in the next decade. But we must also ask loudly and clearly if decentralizing -- creating some institutions in non-metro areas of the state -- is not a more useful vehicle for meeting regional manpower needs. Given the close relationship between where students complete their education and where they establish their careers, some decentralization may be a productive channel for exploration. And given the blight that megapolis has brought to other parts of the nation, this decentralization may be an urgent part of our calculus of growth.

-- The state's responsibility to the central cities must be a matter for careful public discussion. We cannot blithely assume that the mechanisms which have worked in the past for the large mass of our students can be simply retooled to meet the need of the economically, culturally, or educationally disadvantaged. Neither can we assume that any segment of our population should be cut off from educational opportunity by circumstance of birth or condition of poverty. Special efforts must be made to develop additional resources for compensatory

educational programs so that disadvantaged students are not only guaranteed the right to enter institutions of higher education, but are also given a reasonable assurance of being able to compete in a wide spectrum of programs and remain until graduation.

-- Institutional missions and the missions of the several systems of the multiversity will require careful definition. Each of the systems in the multiversity, of course, may have overlapping functions and programs, especially as these serve regional needs. But the special and unique contributions of each of the systems must be carefully delineated. Only if this is done can we exercise any degree of educational accountability. Only so doing can we be sure that each of the systems of the multiversity is devoting its proper efforts to fulfilling the unique and unusual aspects of its mission.

Commonly shared perceptions of mission become more crucial day by day and should prompt us all to strive side by side to strengthen the role of the Higher Educational Coordinating Commission. The program review mechanisms now instituted will help us avoid needless duplication and costly, unwise proliferation. At the present time the Commission and its staff are in the process of collecting data and conducting studies to analyze higher education needs of this state over the next decade. I hope that the reports of these studies and the recommendations made by the Commission will be carefully scrutinized by the governing boards of each of the systems of the multiversity. I would urge, too, that each system in the multiversity examine the data developed by the Higher Education Coordinating Commission so that each system will be in a position to make known its posture on the important educational questions facing us in the 70's. I have already directed, that such studies be undertaken within the University. I will refer to these studies in a moment; within a short time the first will be publicly available.

-- Important institutional and program decisions must be made in open consultation among all of the systems of the multiversity before the opening of the 1971 Session of the State Legislature. The

educational needs of the 70's are so great and the resources of the state so limited that we can no longer afford the luxury of star chamber decision-making processes.

The cost consequences of the task we face are enormous. But before your brooding on these staggering dollar numbers induces too much pessimism, let me remind you that this is a nation which provides \$80 billion annually for its defense needs; which taxes itself less than nearly any other advanced technological society; which generates unprecedented growth in material productivity; and which has historically united in the presence of great problems to face the cost of rational answers.

And let me ask also that you count too the costs of a decision to limit rather than expand educational opportunity in the 1970's.

Count the cost of thousands of young men and women facing a society more complex, more demanding of highly trained skills than any society in our history, but denied the opportunity available to their predecessors.

Count the cost of a society with expanding demands for health care facing a declining proportion of health professionals.

Count the cost of a society with expanding needs for human service professionals but without training routes to give access to these professions.

Count the cost of rage induced by narrowing corridors of opportunity, of stagnation induced by a drying up of research, of incompetence induced by too little and too late for too few.

Count all the costs and ask if our state will not choose -- must not choose -- to make its multiversity a temple in a republic of learning devoted to the fulfillment of human potentiality rather than a retreat where a few seek temporary refuge from a disordered world.

The real question before us, then is not how we can avoid paying the bills.

We cannot if we respect our future as much as our past. The question is how shall we make our public money count for the most. And the

decisions we make now -- certainly no later than the 1971 session of the Minnesota legislature -- will determine our success or failure by 1980. The times call for long distance men, willing to stand against the pressures of immediate problems, to fight off instant absurdities, to stay for the course, and to act and act promptly.

One of the curses of the American education effort is the constant demand to catch up with the present at the same time we try to make some minimum plans for the future and our Minnesota Multiversity is no exception. All of our problems are critical ones -- of classrooms or capital, instruction or curriculum student unrest or apathy.

But occasionally there comes a watershed time in education, when the nature of the institution hangs in the balance. Such a time was the turn of the century, when this nation and this state evolved a gigantic commitment to elementary and secondary education -- and has been trying to catch up with it ever since. Another such time, I believe, is the close of the 60's, when the nation and the state evolved a commitment to the principle of some kind of post-secondary education for nearly everyone. The Minnesota Higher Education Coordinating Commission and its cooperating public and private multiversity have set 1985 as the date by which we must catch up with that commitment and be educating 85% of our high school graduates in some form or another.

This year we are at about 60%. The target for 1980 is 78%. In this year and next we will be making decisions, especially in the state legislature of 1971, that are more than critical. They are the basic, immediate decisions about tactics, how we will get there.

Throughout the Minnesota Multiversity, the partners have begun their efforts to think through these decisions and consider their implications for their own institutions and the state's effort as a whole. The University task force I alluded to earlier, has been at work gathering and analyzing information that we hope can help the University contribute intelligently to these discussions. It will be some time before the institutional process brings a University recommendation from its faculty, administration, and Regents. But the current

work of the Task Force has emphasized both the magnitude and complexity of the problems we must decide by 1971.

Our task force has substantiated some general assumptions about the state's needs, rejected some other assumptions about the nature of the population we will educate, and drawn some of its own conclusions as well:

1. It seems clear that all of the post-secondary systems will have to expand substantially if the needs of the state are to be met.

2. Most of the burden of expansion will fall on the public components of the multiversity.

3. The rapidly expanding metropolitan state junior colleges have already begun to exert two important influences on the state colleges and the Twin City campus of the University of Minnesota. First, they appear to be reducing substantially the pressure of freshman and sophomore enrollments from the metropolitan area at the University's Twin City campus and at Mankato and St. Cloud State College. Second, they are beginning to place severe transfer pressure on all of the public baccalaureate colleges at the third-year level -- a process which removes the students least expensive to educate and replaces them with more expensive students. There is no net reduction in pressure on either the Twin Cities campus or the state colleges; only a redistribution of the enrollments that increases the upper divisions in the baccalaureate schools.

4. As they have throughout their history, the state junior colleges continue to uncover new college students, with the largest effect in the metropolitan area where these colleges are expanding so rapidly. A certain proportion of these are students who would not have entered college at all but now are baccalaureate candidates, and they further increase pressures on upper divisions.

5. The rapid expansion of the area vocational-technical schools also is increasing the proportion of students who start some kind of post-secondary effort. If vocational-technical schools are affecting junior college enrollments, the effect is mostly one of decreasing the proportion of new transfer students in those colleges. Much of the area

vocational-technical school growth seems to be made up of students who would not have entered the Minnesota Multiversity at all if the area vocational-technical schools had not developed. Both kinds of local opportunity will continue to expand.

6. Contrary to many opinions, the state junior colleges, state colleges, and University of Minnesota seem to draw most of their students from the same range of ability. Analyses of entering freshmen in 1965 and 1969 indicate that the University system draws more from the highest ability levels and the junior college system draws more from the lower levels, but at least three-fourths of the students in each system are roughly comparable in ability. This judgment is supported directly by Minnesota Scholastic Aptitude Test and American College Testing scores and high school grades, and indirectly by studies of aspirations for bachelor's degrees and beyond.

7. The growth in college-age population in the metropolitan area is so great that heavy expansion can be expected in any institution in the area open to high school graduates.

8. The University of Minnesota's Twin City campus could not, under any circumstances, absorb all of the coming population of college juniors and seniors from the metropolitan area. At the same time, University expansion seems absolutely necessary if the student population is to have an opportunity to attend.

9. Substantial outmigration of students from the metropolitan area is continuing and will greatly expand unless more space is added at all levels. For example, the metropolitan area students **now** going out of the area to state colleges alone would constitute the largest state college in Minnesota if they were all in one institution -- and the years of rapid increase in students from the metropolitan area are still ahead of us.

10. Upper division colleges, with only the third and fourth year offered, do not really exist in the United States except when they are first opened. Every such college in the country has been forced to add either lower division courses or graduate courses or both in order to meet the needs of students and recruit faculties that can offer programs of excellence. Given the needs for expansion at all levels, our Task

Force has grave doubts of the suitability of a free-standing upper division college for any of the needs of the state.

These are the large lines of the script as we look at the questions the state legislature is asking.

In the 1971 state legislature and in the various components of the Minnesota Multiversity, we will also approach the basic tactical decision by making specific decisions. These decisions, I believe, will largely be composed of answers to the following questions:

1. What kind of public college effort can best serve the lower division needs of the city of St. Paul and the baccalaureate needs of students from the metropolitan area? Should a junior college or a four-year college be established in St. Paul? Should an upper division or four-year college be established somewhere in the metropolitan area, if not in St. Paul? Should nearby state college capacity be greatly expanded instead? What expansion in Minneapolis and St. Paul can the University of Minnesota contribute?

2. Who is to take major responsibility for the vital and expensive effort to improve post-secondary opportunities for students from the center cities in Minneapolis, and St. Paul, who cannot realistically be expected to commute to suburban schools?

3. Should the educational offerings on the Twin Cities campus of the University of Minnesota be revised to provide additional experimental and other opportunity for new kinds of baccalaureate education devoted to students as well as to disciplines, to manpower needs for human services and applied sciences?

4. Should the University of Minnesota continue to be Minnesota's great single graduate and professional resource and its national university, as previous commitments and the guidelines of the Higher Education Coordinating Commission suggest that it should? If so, what fields require such expensive supporting resources such as libraries and laboratories, and such aggregates of highly specialized faculty, that they should be cultivated at only one location in the state? What fields can be effectively dispersed in more than one location in the state? And

what decisions must be made if the dispersal is to be both economic and protective of high quality?

5. What means can be found to assist in making vocational-technical opportunity as readily available in the metropolitan area as it now has become in outstate areas?

6. What is the best way to meet the rapidly accelerating needs of the Rochester area, which will double its potential student population by 1980? Should a public baccalaureate college be established in Rochester?

7. How can the special geographical problems of the Iron Range communities in Northeastern Minnesota be met more adequately for upper division and adult students who must now travel unreasonable distances for educational opportunity beyond the lower division level?

8. How can the relationships between state junior colleges and area vocational schools best be handled? The commitment to solving that problem reveals a sense of urgency that thoughtful members of the Minnesota Multiversity will recognize as we look toward the critical decade ahead.

In my judgment, decisions on all of these questions must be made in the 1971 legislature, both by legislative authorizations and through the appropriations process. They will only be made properly if the leadership of the various components of the Minnesota Multiversity will seek to build opportunity for students rather than empires for educators. To the extent that individual components seek to go their own ways and exert their own influences, just to that extent is the likelihood increased of bitter administrative competition and, most important, of poor decisions on these basic matters of strategy. If those decisions are poor, the taxpayers and consumers of educated manpower in the state will suffer. More important, more than 230,000 students who should be in the Minnesota Multiversity by 1980 will have fewer opportunities available to them.

If we succeed in providing good answers to the questions before us, and therefore good decisions in 1971, we will have laid out a master

plan for ten years of development of the Minnesota Multiversity, and no one, especially not the citizens and young people of Minnesota, will suffer.

The forums of preliminary discussion are many. We will need thoughtful consideration of general needs and specific possibilities for contribution within each component of the Multiversity, as they will soon begin in the University of Minnesota system. From there, the recommendations will need careful articulation, discussion, and rational debate within the Higher Education Coordinating Commission, where all of the components can be consistently and institutionally represented. If we can achieve a united effort at all, I believe, it will be through the forum of that Commission.

But we will also need a continuing public discussion of the issues that are before us. My comments today are the first of what I hope will be a series of presentations. Our citizens and the legislators who represent them must know the magnitude of the task and the alternatives available to us. Specifically, I want to try to focus attention during the next few months on the special missions of individual components of the Minnesota Multiversity, the critical problems of financial needs and resources, the means by which we can achieve a coordinated decision-making and recommendation process, and the special needs of the Twin City metropolitan area, together with specific recommendations from the University of Minnesota faculties, administration, and Regents as they emerge from discussions within the University of Minnesota system. I hope I will be joined in this effort, by representatives of the other components of the Minnesota Multiversity.

Successful planning for the Minnesota Multiversity in 1980 will also require specific understanding of the manpower needs of the Minnesota society and economy in the 1980's. It is essential that the leaders of Minnesota's industrial, business, and government communities join in the effort to make the best decisions we can make in the year we have before our legislature must act.

Finally, we earnestly need advice from the leadership of Minnesota

elementary and secondary education. We need your help in identifying by calling our attention to the needs of high school graduates which are presently met successfully or unsuccessfully by the Multiversity. The students of the Multiversity in 1980 are now in your schools. No one better knows what they will be like, what new dimensions the Minnesota Multiversity must develop to serve them with distinctive educational opportunities. Let us have your counsel promptly.

**THE ROLE OF THE PROFESSIONAL  
IN SHAPING THE FUTURE OF PUBLIC EDUCATION**

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There is a delightful ambiguity in the topic assigned to me for this important occasion. "The Role of the Professional in Shaping the Future of Public Education" immediately raises the question "The role of the professional **what?** The role of the professional **whom?**"

Just think of the fun we could have with some of the following:

-- the role of the professional **politician** in shaping the future of public education.

-- the role of the professional **cynic** . . . .

-- the role of the professional **lawyer** . . . .

-- the role of the professional **architect** . . . .

-- the role of the professional **accountant** . . . .

-- the role of the professional **staff of taxpayers association** . . . .

Because of the latent ambiguity, I have taken the liberty of narrowing the application of the term "professional" to public school teachers and supervisors. Alas, even this has its problems. For example, Al Shanker, the extraordinary leader of the United Federation of Teachers in New York City, told my graduate class just before Thanksgiving that "professional" was the term used by boards of education to keep teachers in their place. Professionals, according to Shanker, are nice, quiet, lady-like types who, in the words of Edgar B. Wesley, the biographer of N.E.A., "place altruism, service, and social welfare ahead of personal gain" -- an ethic designed, according to Mr. Shanker, to keep teachers in a state of blessed penury.

I shall not dwell on the current controversy between AFT and NEA affiliates because I predict that in a very short period of time, for

all practical purposes, the teacher segments of the two organizations will be united. When this occurs, everyone will be a professional, everyone will be a trade unionist -- and there will be state-wide collective bargaining between professional bargaining agents for state education departments, governors, and legislators on the one hand, and for state-wide AFT--NEA affiliates on the other.

Family squabbles aside, the term "professional" used in the context of public education is lacking in clear definition. Is a school teacher a professional in the same sense that a doctor, or lawyer, or architect or even college professor is a professional? As Edgar Wesley has pointed out, "at various times teaching has been designated as a high, noble, or sacred calling, a vocation, a trade, a business, a temporary occupation, a craft, a skill, a science, and an art." I have even heard school-board members and taxpayers-association staffs use other terms in referring to teachers.

But what makes teaching a profession?

The amount of frantic rhetoric on this issue is, of course, enormous, and encapsulates a good part of the 19th century struggle of American teachers for some sense of personal and occupational dignity. Now that that dignity -- and the income to sustain it -- are rapidly on their way toward realization in many parts of the United States, it may be possible without undue trauma to open once again the basic question of what constitutes a profession. For it is only by understanding what we mean by "profession" that we can define the term "professional", and it is only if we can define the term "professional" that I can get on with the topic assigned to me this afternoon and you can get on with your conference.

Professor Frederick C. Mosher of the University of Virginia has spent a good deal of time wondering, and sometimes, worrying, about the role of professionals in American society generally -- especially as they affect the structure and behavior of governmental administration. Professor Mosher defines the term "profession" liberally. He believes that a "profession" is a reasonably clear-cut occupational field which

ordinarily requires higher education, at least through the bachelor's level, and which offers a lifetime career to its members. He admits that others would find this far too loose a definition and would wish to add other requirements such as professional organization, service orientation, legal establishment, individual autonomy in performance of work, a code of ethics, and so on.

But I side with Professor Mosher's liberal definition -- for realistically, any occupational field involving some degree of special training that wishes to raise the dignity of its image can call itself, does call itself, in many cases has called itself, a profession.

It is, I believe, generally agreed that a profession has come of age when it is able to induce governments -- especially in our polity, state governments -- to pass laws, establish mechanisms, and issue regulations governing professional standards. These standards may relate to such important issues as licensure or certification, definition of unprofessional conduct, confidentiality of client relationships, grounds and procedures for dismissals and transfers, and other privileges and immunities.

The rub is that it is not at all clear whether the state is regulating the profession or whether the state is simply giving a special sanction to various oligarchical groups within professions to regulate themselves and their cohorts. As Professor James W. Fesler wrote some years ago, "professional licensing boards are virtually the creatures of the professional societies . . ." And, to round out the picture, Fesler's conclusion must be amended to include the influence of deans, directors, and powerful senior staffs of professional schools -- particularly university-related professional schools.

Really entrenched professionalism in the United States is a three-legged stool in which the professional association, a state agency, and powerful professional schools are the supporting legs of law and custom governing the life and definition of the profession.

Where does the public education profession fit into all of this? It is a reasonably clear-cut occupational field (although less clear-cut, I think, than it was a few years ago). Higher

education, at least through the bachelor's level, is certainly required of most professional educators (although this may change fairly radically as Mr. Shanker and others succeed in organizing the para-professionals, and we find vertical unionism supplanting craft unionism). Certainly a lifetime career is assured to members (although, at the moment, many do not spend more than a very few years in the profession of teaching). And we can certainly certify to the extraordinary range of state laws and regulations that define and buttress the prerogatives of professional educators: laws and regulations governing certification, tenure, retirement benefits, minimum salaries, collective bargaining rights, etc.

I apologize for the length of this introduction, but it is a matter of considerable importance that we understand what modern professionalism means in a fairly generic sense. In essence it means a strange combination of insuring certain kinds of standards and responsibilities in the public interest, while developing a whole series of state-sanctioned rights, protections, and prerogatives that may be self-serving, and that at times may come close to "conspiracies in restraint of trade."

The role of the professional in shaping the future of public education is all tied up with the question of the extent to which anything that satisfies the professional educator also, by coincidence or design, meets the more general criteria of the public interest. The old saw about education being too important to leave to educators, simply begs the real question. In terms of **de facto** power, professional educators are and will remain influential forces in shaping the future of public education. The question is will they simply influence, or will they in fact control, the future of educational policy -- and for whose benefit?

In the field of public education, what are some of the evils that professionalism has encouraged to date, or may well encourage in the future (and here, of course, as professionals, I include members of teachers unions as well as NEA affiliates).

First, in state after state and locality after locality, professionalism

has produced an unhealthy rigidity in rules governing such matters as certification, promotion, and tenure. The effect of these rules often has been to lock incompetents into life-long jobs, deny teaching opportunities to the highly motivated and gifted, freeze school administrators into supervisory posts for which they are patently unsuited, and enthrone in teachers colleges and teacher-training programs some of the shoddiest required courses in the entire catalog of university offerings nation-wide. There are, I know, significant exceptions, but the run-of-the-mill courses in Educational Foundations, Educational Philosophy, Educational Psychology, and Educational Administration, required in state after state as a condition of professional certification and advancement, are both literally and figuratively unmemorable. I will go further. According to colleagues in Schools of Education whose judgments I respect, most of the basic courses are dull, flaccid, and toweringly irrelevant to the age we have entered.

Second, educational professionalism in its more militant contemporary grab is in danger of automatically equating the personal income and convenience of teachers and supervisors with good education for the child. On this issue I must tread with care. I am not opposed to demands -- even militant demands -- for decent salaries and working conditions for educators. When public school teachers make as much as plumbers, I may start to ask them to lower their voices (to coin a phrase). But in most parts of the nation, teachers and supervisors still have a long way to go before achieving a rate of compensation commensurate with the dignity and importance of their work. The only point is that high salaries do not automatically produce better teaching and learning. At some point, public officials, school boards, and taxpayers have the right to ask that for each increase in the margin of schoolmen's income, they be asked to demonstrate some proportionate increase in their margin of effectiveness. I appreciate the limitations that Baumol's law imposes upon rises in productivity in education, but I also appreciate the political consequences of not at least having educators try to increase their effectiveness -- either qualitatively or

quantitatively -- as their demands for additional compensation continue.

One example comes to mind: class size. Back in March 1964, David Selden of UFT, wrote a piece for the **Phi Delta Kappa** called "Class Size and the New York Contract." The article spelled out the success of UFT in writing limits on class size into a teacher-board of education contract. However comfortable a reduced class size may be for teachers, there is not a shred of scientifically validated evidence to prove that the kind of reduction Mr. Selden referred to (from roughly 45-50 down to 30-35 pupils per classroom) makes any difference whatsoever to the learner. And the logic of contract rigidities on such matters may well be to preclude imaginative pedagogical mixes for the future: for example, a few large lecture courses along with a marked increase in individual, or small-group tutorials. I have no quarrel with Mr. Selden's assertion that class size is a proper subject for negotiation and regulation through collective bargaining contract clauses. I do have objection to his patently false assertion that "nothing is a greater determinant of educational quality than the number of students assigned to a teacher." This kind of specious rationalization can only muddy further the murky waters of educational policy making.

I am reminded here of a quotation from Leo Tolstoy as it appeared in the **Nickel Review**, December 5, 1969: "School is established not in order that it should be convenient for the children to study, but that the teachers should be able to teach in comfort.

"The children's conversation, motion and merriment, which are their necessary conditions of study, are not convenient for the teacher, and so in the schools -- which are built on the plan of prisons -- questions, conversation and motion are prohibited.

"Schools which are established from above and by force are not a shepherd for the flock but a flock for the shepherd."

But if rigidities and self-serving rationalizations are the twin dangers of professionalism, they are not inevitable. And I see a great

constructive force for good in current movements to increase the participation of educational professionals in educational policy-making. I welcome the breakdown of military-type administration in the public school system. I welcome the notion of teacher participation in educational decisions -- and of student participation. I am frankly reassured -- enormously reassured -- by the general increase in political sophistication of educational associations -- national, state, and local.

The new professional strength is to be found in contract negotiations, in legitimate lobbying, on curriculum committees, on policy committees. And much of the evidence to date as to how the professional educators, especially professional teachers, have used their new strength is both reassuring and exciting.

In this regard I am particularly proud of what has been happening in my own home state of New York. Let me offer you a few pieces of evidence from both the United Federation of Teachers and the State Teachers Association.

By almost any standards, the contract signed by the UFT and the New York City Board of Education in June 1969 is a remarkable document. In terms of our discussion today, the contract is remarkable for the breadth of its educational statesmanship. It went far beyond the kinds of vested-interest demands normally associated with collective bargaining agreements. For example, the contract provided for an increase of ten in the number of compensatory experimental schools for the disadvantaged, under what has been for a number of years a union sponsored "More Effective Schools" program.

The contract provided for fifty integrated early childhood centers providing early learning opportunities for thousands of black and white youngsters.

The contract provided for a \$500,000 teacher-recruitment fund to help organize a nation-wide search for able teachers -- particularly minority group teachers.

The contract provided for a cooperative effort -- involving the Board of Education, the UFT, universities, and community school

boards and parent organizations, to develop ways of accounting for massive academic retardation in New York City schools, and to develop objective criteria for determining professional accountability for such failures.

The contract provided for introducing into the schools textbooks reflecting the true history of minority groups and relating directly to the experiences of urban children.

UFT also committed itself to offering a number of college scholarships for disadvantaged children -- in addition to those provided for its own members.

Some argue that these contract provisions were dictated by the ethnic bitterness created in the New York City teachers strikes of the past few years. In a sense Al Shanker has admitted as much. At one point in his remarks to teacher delegates in 1967 Shanker commented, "The school system is falling apart. It will do us no good to get salary increases if we can't walk from the subway to the school. We are faced with tremendous bitterness and hostility on the part of Negro and Puerto Rican groups, bitterness any of us would have if our children were coming out of school unable to read or write. We are trying [Shanker continues] in this set of negotiations to make giant strides towards the solution of the school problems . . ."

But Shanker presumably could have asked simply for more money and more police protection and let it go at that. That he did not, that he went further, is a tribute to his leadership and to his sense of community-wide commitment that a heightened sense of professionalism can produce.

As far as the New York State Teachers Association is concerned, equivalent words of praise are justified. For years, NYSTA has been the moving spirit in the New York State Conference Board -- that remarkable collection of strange bedfellows who have done so much to educate governors, legislators, and Regents to the needs for appropriate state aid for education.

In most recent years, NYSTA has sponsored state-wide Equal

Educational Employment Projects to increase interest in, and awareness about, educational disadvantage in the State -- and what teachers might do about it. Many NYSTA and local affiliates have followed through with local projects in this area. For example, the Buffalo Teachers Federation sponsored a human relations in-service training course last spring.

In the field of agreement provisions negotiated by local teachers associations, NYSTA affiliates have made some significant breakthroughs. These include new departures in such fields as curricula review, evaluation of teaching performance, the use of auxiliary personnel, teaching supervision, in-service training, recruitment of teaching personnel, teacher participation in the employment and promotion of professional personnel, assessment of school programs, the educational philosophy of the school, minority group problems, special school services, and many other topics. Lest this sound to you pretty general, and old hat, let me be more specific.

-- The Jerico Teachers Association since 1964 has had a local commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, recognized by the Board of Education as an advisory group to the superintendent. As a result of their activities, the traditional superintendent's cabinet now includes equal representation from teachers, and deals with all matters related to curriculum and instruction.

-- The Scarsdale Teachers Association and Board of Education recently negotiated plans for the establishment of a Scarsdale Teacher Institute to be run exclusively by teachers, with advisory boards composed of local community leaders and administrators. The job of the Institute is to improve the teacher's performance in the classroom.

-- The Ithaca Teachers Association negotiated an agreement in 1968 whereby an educational policy commission would be created to meet at least once a month with the superintendent and board of education "to review and discuss current school problems and practices, common goals and problems, long-term plans, strategy and philosophy of education."

What I have described in New York is, I am sure, taking place in many states and regions of the nation. Nationally, of course, both the NEA and the AFL-CIO cooperated in the creation of a national committee for the full-funding of educational programs this last year. And both parent organizations have played important roles in the past decade in the fight for additional federal investments in public education.

Where does all of this leave us?

First, it suggests that educational professionals are indeed having an increasing role in shaping the future of public education.

Second, it suggests that whatever narrowly-vested interests are inordinately protected by educational professionals, there are many evidences of creative, liberating, and innovating activities sponsored by professional associations and teacher unions.

Third, it suggests that as the political power and influence of professional associations and teacher unions increase, we must be prepared for extraordinarily complex structural as well as substantive changes in American education.

For example, if we are in fact moving toward state-wide collective bargaining in education, what then happens to the function of local boards of education?

Will not state-wide bargaining inevitably lead to -- if indeed it does not follow from -- the total assumption of school finance by state and federal governments?

If professional rates of pay for public school educators skyrocket, how can school systems see to it that a stable, career work force does not over time become an entrenched and archaic bureaucracy?

How can the worst aspects of professionalism -- the protective guildism of professionalism -- be subordinated to the interests of children and of the wider public?

How can professionalism aid rather than inhibit desperately needed innovations in teaching method and content?

How can the entrenched position of a number of schools of education be broken, and their curricula modified, so that teacher preparation and in-service training can be shaped by the most alive minds and experiences in our society?

All of these complex and difficult questions bring us, I believe, to the continuing need in a free society for general instruments of political decision-making. I happen to be partial to political parties, to legislatures, to elected and appointed political executives, to public boards, to courts. These are the gizzards of our collective commonwealth -- the organs whereby the special claims of professional associations and other special interest groups are reduced to digestible dimensions for the body politic, through the frictions of adversary proceedings and political competition. I welcome an increasing number of powerful inputs from the educational professions into the institutional gizzards of our polity. But I never want to see private government -- no matter how benign it may appear -- substituted for public government. In some states and localities educational professionalism has gone too far. The public interest, I believe, demands that governors and regents and legislators start the process of dismantling some of the rigid super-structures of vested rights erected by, and for, teachers and supervisors. But in many areas of educational policy, the public interest demands a greater rather than a lesser infusion of professional judgment into legislative and administrative decision-making -- and at all levels of government.

Finally, let me make an obvious point. Let none of us forget the ultimate object of educational professionalism: the learning child.

After all of the paraphernalia of status, and the rewards of bargaining, have been negotiated, the professional educator finds himself (with or without fancy hardware) standing in front of, behind, or alongside a number of children. Helen Bevington wrote about the best of the professionals a quarter of a century ago. She wrote of a

spirit that must ultimately infuse all professionalism in education if it is to go beyond self-serving.

He teaches who has taught himself:  
Who saw a star  
And hitched his cart  
With him gay companies depart,  
And by this little strategem  
He makes star gazers  
Out of them.

# ADMINISTRATIVE LEADERSHIP



## Collective Negotiations in Minnesota

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**COLLECTIVE NEGOTIATIONS  
IN  
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**Administrative Leadership** is published three times a year by the Department of Educational Administration, University of Minnesota. It is under the direction of an editorial board composed of a staff member and three graduate students. The editorial board for the year 1969-70 includes: W. Ray Cross, Associate Professor, Floyd E. Keller, Mrs. Erma E. McGuire and Carol M. Olson. It seeks to discuss topics relevant to the important issues in today's educational endeavors.

## EDITORIAL

A management consultant for business and an interested observer of the recent negotiations process in education remarked that he was pleased to see how rapidly educators were researching negotiation models, past and present, in other organizations in order that they might generate as rapidly as possible, an effective model for education.

It is the intent of this edition to continue to facilitate this search process by providing educational leaders with the latest insights of key and knowledgeable men who have been involved in the negotiations process from different vantage points. After reviewing the articles that follow, we are certain that you will agree that this end has been well met.

A few comments might be appropriate at this time to place what is to follow in some kind of perspective. Educational organizations have complex cultural and social ends that make precise definition difficult. Because these ends are difficult to define, busy educators often fail to try. Failing to do so, the organization becomes highly susceptible to "ends-means" reversal, i.e., organizational maintenance becomes an end in itself. This becomes especially true under times of stress and conflict. "Collective negotiations" is a means that presumably has as its end the maintenance and improvement of the learning environment in schools for the young. If educators are going to maintain professional integrity and public support, it becomes critical that these ends are made explicit in order that the means selected may be measured for appropriateness. This, in turn, provides the order for the third and necessary professional ingredient-evaluation, to be related to the means in terms of the ends desired.

This simple but difficult three-part taxonomy of ends, means and evaluation must be the professional educator's frame of reference for designing an effective, appropriate, improvement model for education. All the contributors to this issue have said this in a variety of ways but vary in their methods of going about it. The editorial board extends its gratitude and appreciation to all the contributors who took their time to share their talents and insights in order to improve education in our state.

## TEACHER-SCHOOL BOARD RELATIONSHIPS THE LEGAL FRAMEWORK

Cyrus F. Smythe – Associate Professor  
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Significant pressures appear to be building for changes in the 1967 Minnesota Teacher Negotiations Law. The reason for the pressures is neither unusual nor alarming. The 1967 Act represents a compromise between three organizational positions in 1967 – the Minnesota School Boards Association, the Minnesota Education Association, and the Minnesota Federation of Teachers. Additionally, the political climate in 1967 was interpreted by the legislature to require a more tentative step in a new era of teacher-school board relations than some other states had taken.

The resulting 1967 Act, therefore, is a half-step measure in terms of the type of law which the 1971 legislature will consider; nor will the revised legal structure be the “final solution”. As sophistication with negotiations comes with greater experience in collective relations, the parties and the public will require changes in the legal structure to be made consistent with such experience.

### **Factors to be Considered**

Legislation providing a framework for collective employment relations has a number of separate but related factors with which to contend.

The first question the law in other sectors has traditionally dealt with is: Who is going to negotiate with whom about what? The **who** is the **appropriate** employee group(s). The **whom** is management. The **what** refers to the delineated scope of bargainable subjects. For the parties in any sector – private, public, or educational – to be able to carry on meaningful negotiations, the question of who, whom, and what need to be solved. Otherwise, experience has shown that the parties will waste their time and energies on these procedural problems rather than on the more substantive problems requiring their attention.

## **Who?**

### **Recognition in Education**

There is less uniformity in public education than in either the private sector or with regard to other public employees. Some states, Michigan and Massachusetts, provide for exclusive representation. Others, Minnesota and California, call for proportional representation on a negotiating council to be based on the percentage of membership among organizations. Texas and North Carolina prohibit public employees to be represented by organizations affiliated with any national labor organization. Wisconsin's approach is quite similar to the basic framework provided for private sector employees. In 1970, the majority of states still had no definitive policy concerning recognition. School boards are free in these states to do as they think best.

### **Recognition Alternatives – An Analysis**

The legal approaches to recognition in the private and public sectors are designed to resolve both practical and theoretical issues. With the disappearance of state legal resistance to the formation of public employee organizations, a new set of provisions guiding public employers' relationships with employee groups had to be developed. The new provisions involved mechanisms which would facilitate the selection of representatives – some manner in which the employees could show which organization they were committed to. The theoretical problem was, and is, to allow representation selection by employees on a free choice, democratic basis which limits and/or resolves organizational competition for employees, so that employers can establish workable collective negotiations with their employees.

The practical problem is one of resolving the organizational desires of employees so as to achieve a stable employer-employee relationship on a continuing basis. The constraints, therefore, are stability, free choice, democracy, and workability.

In resolving these recognition issues, several alternative approaches are utilized.

1. Multiple recognition – a system where the employer deals with more than one organization with regard to the interests of the members of the organization.

2. Proportional recognition – the employer deals with a committee with regard to the interests of the employees. Committee membership reflects the membership strength of the employee organizations. If there are 1,000 employees and two competing employee organizations – one with 750 members, the other with 250 members, the committee would reflect this 3-to-1 ratio.

3. Exclusive recognition – the employer deals with one and only one organization of employees. That organization has been granted exclusive representation status based on a majority vote by the employees.

### **Multiple Recognition**

Multiple recognition as an approach is defended on the proposition that it is the most democratic of all the alternatives. Organizations represent only their own members. Each employee is represented by the organization of his choice.

The problems of such a system involve the possible application of separate sets of standards and benefit levels to different employee groups of the **same classification**. Employees would naturally join the organization able to gain the highest level of benefits. If the employer granted better terms to those employees who joined no organization, the resentment of the organized employees usually created practical problems of distressing magnitude. In addition, such action may violate a legal obligation of the employer to remain neutral and not to interfere with employees' free choice with regard to representation.

### **Proportional Recognition**

The only real difference between multiple recognition and proportional recognition is that the organizations deal with the employer through a joint committee rather than individually so that one agreement with regard to employee benefits and working conditions is reached rather than two or more. This type of recognition is no more effective than multiple recognition in limiting conflict between different employee organizations. The rival organizations will often spend much of their time and effort in competition for new members rather than in preparation for the conduct of meaningful negotiations.

Some school boards, feeling that the existence of strong teacher organizations possessing exclusive bargaining rights is undesirable, favor proportional recognition. A council appears, to these boards, to provide conditions in which the effective strength of teacher organizations can be divided. This divide-and-conquer strategy violates one of the basic criteria of effective employee-employer relations. Experience in the private and other public sectors of the economy as well as the Dearborn, Michigan, school board experience between 1959 and 1964, indicates that collective negotiation has a better chance of success in resolving conflict when a single organizationally secure group of employees exists. A secure organization, led by a reasonably secure elected representative, usually can manifest greater flexibility in its dealings than an organization too caught up with its own survival to meaningfully negotiate.

### **Exclusive Recognition**

While exclusive recognition limits the probability of organizational conflict which lessens the resources an employee organization can devote to its negotiations, this type of recognition does not eliminate such conflict. Exclusive recognition can be lost when a rival organization, through a concerted membership drive achieves and demonstrates a majority status. In addition, as previously mentioned, conflict over goals and strategies to attain goals generally exists within any organization. Such conflict may or may not be effectively resolved within the employee group prior to negotiations with the employer.

The advantages of exclusive recognition are: the lessened conflict within the employee group so that greater sensitivity can be shown to the employers' problems; that only one contract need be negotiated; and union responsibility is fixed in both the contract negotiation and grievance process. The disadvantages center on the inequity of requiring non-member employees to be bound by conditions negotiated by an organization they neither wish to join nor be represented by. The court developed legal requirement that exclusive representatives fairly represent all members of a bargaining unit, whether they be members of the organization or not, to some extent lessens this inequity.

### **Determining Appropriate Bargaining Units**

... Determination of appropriate employee units for purposes of bargaining is a critically important factor in collective employment relations. The resolution of the questions involving the issue of who is going to represent whom can mitigate internal employee group conflict, significantly change the employee group will seek to attain; the strength with which the employee group will cohesively pursue these goals, their propensity to engage in strike activity, and the amount of bargaining power the group can develop.

As a general rule, employees have more bargaining strength, less internal conflict, greater cohesion, and prefer smaller, homogeneous units. Employers often, therefore, prefer more comprehensive units -- one rather than several. A single, periodic strike threat from one group, they feel, is far easier to evaluate than a number of successive negotiations with separate threats of strike.

School systems, as do other private and public employers, employ a wide variety of employment classifications. For bargaining purposes these diverse employee classifications need to be grouped. The NLRB, which is responsible for determining appropriate bargaining units in the private sector, has had considerable difficulty over the years in resolving the theoretical and pragmatic problems of unit choice. State agencies with unit determination responsibilities have had similar difficulties.

The particular questions concerning appropriate bargaining units focus on:

1. The weight to be given to employee and employer desires.
2. The effect of alternative determinations on the parties ability to effectively and efficiently resolve their problems.
3. The circumstances under which units may be redefined.
4. Whether professional and non-professional employees should be in the same unit.
5. The definition of a supervisor and the inclusion of supervisors in bargaining units with those they supervise.
6. The criteria to be utilized in defining appropriate units.

### **Some Notes from the Private Sector**

As an example, assume a manufacturing plant with 2,000 hourly, nonprofessional, non-managerial employees out of a total 2,400 employees. Fifteen hundred are production personnel, 300 are maintenance, and 200 are clerical. If employer desires were the only guide, only one or perhaps two units would be established. One for production and maintenance employees, one for clerical. The employer would then have only one or two negotiations to conduct and agreements to administer. The employee units would be significantly heterogeneous, faced with fairly high levels of internal conflict concerning their goals. The elected leaders would face continuing problems in adjudicating the mixed interests of the various employee classifications within the unit.

On the other hand, should employee interests be the sole criterion, a larger number of units would likely be established. Not only would the maintenance employees desire separation into their historic craft units, but both the production and clerical employees would probably like some differentiation based on job classification. Each group would be fairly homogeneous, and enjoy low levels of internal conflict over goals and actions. The employer would be faced with a large number of separate contracts to negotiate and administer and be faced with multiple possibilities of strike action -- **each of which**, since unions typically respect each others picket lines, would shut down their entire operation. The conflict between employee groups over relative benefit levels would have to be resolved in negotiations rather than internally within a more comprehensive employee organization. Thus, the employer is faced with the problem of classification competition **directly** rather than negotiating with a single group's representatives who would have had to resolve the majority of internal conflict within the employee group prior to negotiations.

Thus, fractionalization of an employee group into a large number of separate and exclusive bargaining units presents to the employer and poses for the efficient conduct of collective negotiations, essentially the same problems as were discussed in multiple unit recognition. The

competition between employee units with each other can be highly disruptive to stable collective employment relations.

The essential problem with regard to appropriate unit determination in other public or private collective negotiations then is one of balancing the interests of employees and employers so as to provide a viable framework for effective collective negotiations. It should not be surprising, therefore, to find in either the private or public sector, considerable difficulty and controversy as to such unit determination with regard to both the criteria for decision, and the assignment of the agency responsible for determination.

### **Confusion Compounded or Lessened**

It is altogether too easy to become confused about types of recognition and classifications of bargaining units — particularly between multiple recognition and multiple exclusive bargaining units. An example may help to clarify. Assume an urban school district with 2,000 teachers supported by the usual complement of guidance counselors, psychologists, librarians, social case workers, custodial employees, attendance officers, nurses, cooks, bus drivers, electricians, carpenters, secretaries, clerks, auditors, department chairmen, assistant principals, principals, levels of superintendents, research staff, and so on. Of course, the teachers are split between elementary and secondary. For collective negotiations to take place, two questions must be resolved. One, how shall these personnel be grouped for bargaining purposes, and two, within each group will there be a single representative or several. If, for instance, elementary teachers were deemed an appropriate bargaining unit **by themselves**, there could be exclusive recognition of a majority representative, or recognition of a proportionally composed committee or multiple recognition of a number of separate organizations of these teachers. Thus, the questions of recognition and bargaining unit determination are **separate** but related questions. The most confused of collective relationships would be a large number of **separate bargaining units** and multiple recognition **within** each unit. The simplest relationship is exclusive recognition of a single comprehensive bargaining unit containing the diverse employee classifications.

The problem is further complicated when consideration must be made as to whether negotiations are to be system-wide or conducted on some more fragmented basis. The issue was one of the more substantive ones in the Fall, 1968 New York City school teacher strikes.

### **Whom?**

Resolving the problems of determining the appropriate employee groups defines one side of the negotiating table. The other side also needs definition. Who is management -- **not only for contract negotiations** but for resolution of disputes during the **term of the negotiated settlement** -- i.e., grievance processing.

For negotiation purposes is the school board or a committee of the board "management", or can the board delegate someone or some group to represent them in negotiations? Further, is management, when the board delegates the negotiating responsibility, representing an entire school district or individual school units, and can school districts join with other districts into multi-employer organizations for negotiations? At what level does management end and employee begin? Are principals in or out of the teacher group? If out, can they form their own groups for negotiations, or should negotiating rights be denied to them?

### **What?**

What subjects should the parties negotiate? Are there subjects which the parties should be forced to negotiate and other subjects which should be left to unilateral control of the parties? If some subjects are designated as "non-negotiable" or **non-mandatory** but **permissive**, to use the private sector National Labor Relations Board definitions, does the legal framework worry about communications between the parties about these "permissive" subjects?

### **The Need for an Agency**

The who, whom, and what questions in the private sector are answered by the National Labor Relations Board -- the agency designated by the legislation. While this Board has never been criticism-free, and a number of its decisions can be related to politics, the benefits of its decisions in resolving the procedural questions for the

parties seem to outweigh the Board's occasional lapses of good judgment and political bias.

The school boards and teacher groups need some agency to do the same job for them. More importantly, the public interest requires such an agency. The public should not have to bear the cost of the parties' disputes on these questions. What the board should be called, how composed, or under whose direction are less important questions. The real need is for some appropriately called and staffed agency to make determinations on procedural questions so that the parties can negotiate more important matters.

### **Collective Negotiations**

The philosophy of the legislation in the private sector since 1935 and in the public sector is fairly clear. The public desires a continuous flow of goods and services from both the public and private sectors. While the politics of society favors employee groups forming when employees want to deal collectively with an employer, the public also wants some protection against disputes which deny a continuous flow of goods and services. Such is the basic rationale for requiring that the parties negotiate with each other about certain subjects.

In the private and public sectors the trend has been not only to impose a duty to bargain, but to require that the parties use a third party -- mediation -- when the parties fail to reach agreement. In Minnesota, as well as a number of other states, a further requirement is imposed on the parties. In the event that mediation fails to help the parties reach an agreement, the dispute can be forced to fact finding. While the recommendations of the fact finding panel carry no compulsion, they have had significant impact in a number of instances.

The 1967 Act providing for school board-teacher negotiations did not provide for mediation **per se**. The Act did provide for an adjustment panel. During 1969, a large number of such panels were set into operations; the constructive results of such panels, however, is questionable.

The lack of a qualified staff of mediators available for assisting the parties negotiate is unfortunate. The agency which should be estab-

lished to rule on the procedural questions for public school teaching personnel should also have a group of mediators. Such mediators would have two basic qualifications: 1) skill in negotiations mediation, and 2) detailed knowledge of educational problems. The value of mediation in employment relations disputes has been generally recognized for a number of years. The lack of such a service to the educational community constitutes a serious defect in the 1967 legislation.

A number of other states feel that the success of fact finding and/or adjustment panels is directly related to the success or failure of direct negotiations and mediation. Where the parties have been in direct negotiations and mediation long enough for them to identify clearly their **own positions** and the reasons for their positions and the positions of the other party and the reasons for those positions, fact finding has had the best record of success. The poor record of adjustment panels in Minnesota under the 1967 Act may then be related to the lack of a sophisticated mediation service.

### **Conclusions**

A completely satisfactory legal framework to deal with the introduction, establishment, conduct, and conclusion of negotiations in the public sector is not a realistic expectation. The psychological, economic, and social factors to be pragmatically handled by the parties are more important than any legal framework. A realistic law can be of substantial assistance, however, if the law can:

1. Relieve the parties of prolonged conflict about procedures and definitional problems in the "who", "whom", and "what" areas.
2. **Require** negotiations by the parties about those subjects ruled as mandatory.
3. Assist bargaining by the parties by providing third party assistance. The 1967 Act failed to provide this minimum. Future changes should resolve at least these defects.

**TEACHER - BOARD NEGOTIATION LEGISLATION  
(An Attempt to Re-Invent the Wheel)**

**Duane Mattheis  
Former Commissioner of Education  
State of Minnesota**

Minnesota teachers, administrators and school board members are now in the third series of negotiations provided for by the "meet and confer" law passed in the 1967 session of the legislature. During these three negotiation efforts the feelings between teachers, administrators and school board members have become increasingly and unnecessarily hostile, school-community and parent-teacher relationships have in many instances deteriorated to a level that does not encourage educational progress. In far too many school districts, unfortunately, a disruption of the teaching-learning process has occurred because of teacher absence from the classroom or because of teacher curtailment of various duties and services. In my judgment, much of the difficulty of these three years has been caused by many people, primarily in the educational community, (myself included) who desired to develop legislation that would provide a means whereby teachers and school board members would be able to discuss and decide on matters of common concern, primarily salaries and working conditions, under a procedure that would be of a "professional" nature rather than of a "labor organization" nature.

Let me be one among a growing number to say that although the effort was a noble one and perhaps worthwhile and/or necessary, I believe we have learned all we can by the exercise and should now get about the business of developing the necessary legislative changes for the 1971 session of the Minnesota Legislature so that a more workable means of negotiation might be arrived at for public education. There will be those who will say that after only three years of experience there is insufficient evidence and data to dictate any change in the present law. I hold a contrary view and feel that unless something is accomplished in the 1971 legislative session to prevent further

deterioration and animosity in the relationship of teachers and school boards, the high quality of public education in Minnesota may be placed in serious jeopardy.

At the outset it can be stated that rarely has legislation of such significance been enacted by the state legislature and thrust out to affected groups for implementation with as little background in preparation, guidance and expertise. In my judgment, one of the major causes of the difficulties encountered in implementation of the legislation was the lack of provision for a role of state government in carrying out the legislation. Neither the governor, the state labor conciliator, the state board of education, the state department of education or the commissioner of education were delegated a role and responsibility in implementation of the "meet and confer" legislation.

The present legislation has this year and next to govern negotiation of teachers and boards before any changes of the 1971 legislative session would become effective. Interested groups should be actively engaging in the process of developing desired legislative changes, whether they would be modifications of the present statute or a new law to replace the present one. My own preference is for the latter course. I would contend that experience in Minnesota and in many other states has clearly indicated the lack of necessity, if, in fact, not the unwisdom of, unique legislation for teacher-school board negotiation. An improvement to the present situation, which is best exemplified by confusion, bitterness and teacher organization competition, would be achieved by coverage of teachers under the present Minnesota public employee negotiation statute. Coverage for teachers under this law would add them to other school employee groups that are presently covered by this legislation. Two of the areas providing considerable difficulty in implementing the present statute, that of teacher council representation from competing teacher organizations and the administrator-supervisor representation by the council, would be alleviated by coverage under the public employee statute. Coverage under this legislation would also bring the resources of the state into the negotiation procedure of teachers and school boards.

Although coverage of teachers under present public employees legislation could be attained with relative ease and be an improvement over the present situation, in my judgment it might be wise to investigate the possibility of coverage under ordinary private business labor-management negotiation legislation. This would include possible repeal of the present no-strike legislation which has proven to be unenforceable, deceiving and hypocritical. A law that is unworkable and unenforceable is worse than no law at all. We are simply deluding ourselves by believing that the statute will accomplish what it has clearly indicated in the past number of years it cannot. It has made public employees dishonest by having them resort to falsified sick calls, and it has made employing public agencies dishonest by not penalizing violators as prescribed by law. The strike is a powerful weapon, experience in the private sector over the past half-century is replete with examples of its worth and value, as well as its misuse. Education would experience some of the same or similar situations if the no-strike law were to be abolished. Personally, I am confident that teacher school boards and school district patrons would be able to use discretion and judgment in such a manner that the benefits to be derived by removal of the no-strike legislation would outweigh the detrimental factors.

One of the encouraging signs on the horizon which would alleviate one thorny problem of the "meet and confer" law is that of unification of NEA and AFT affiliates in a number of areas such as the most recent banding of the two groups in the Los Angeles Public Schools. A sizeable problem with Minnesota's present law, and this problem is not unique to Minnesota, is that of teacher council representation and lack of sole bargaining authority with a single group. This has led to unnecessary bickering, by-play and competition among the teacher organization groups which we cannot afford in this important area of public service. It is my personal hope and prediction that within a very few short years we will have an amalgamation of the NEA and AFT and their state and local affiliates. This will be particularly helpful insofar as negotiations are concerned but also will provide for a unification of the teachers of the nation that can facilitate their contribution to the improvement of

education. This is not to say that such a powerful force will not provide new and serious challenges to administrators, school boards, legislatures, and the public for, indeed, it will but in my judgment, the net result of this change will have a balance on the constructive side of the ledger.

The following observations relate to the teacher-school board contractual agreement matter in a variety of situations, from the present law to possible changes in it, to completely new legislation.

1. Administration and supervisors, similar to public employee and private industry legislation, ought not to be included in the teacher negotiating group.
2. If at all possible, the actual negotiations should be conducted by outside representatives rather than a direct confrontation of teachers, board members and administrators.
3. Regional negotiation should be explored by both groups. Not only because of competition and comparison but for efficiency and availability of expert assistance in the negotiation process.
4. Multiple year contracts are an absolute must. Too much teacher, board and administrative time is being consumed with the annual "blood-letting" exercise. The increasing involvement annually of the students is also having serious detrimental effects on the entire educational enterprise.
5. Abolish the no-strike law, it is unworkable and unenforceable as far as teachers are concerned. We are seriously deluding everyone by retaining it on the statute books.
6. Provide for mandatory and binding arbitration. Whatever loss of local control caused by such action will be compensated for by state involvement to a larger degree in this function of the state - public education.
7. Avoid statewide negotiation and a statewide salary schedule. These can only limit and stifle competition and progress in the finest school systems in the nation, those in Minnesota.
8. Negotiation should be restricted to the fewest possible salary

and working condition items to prevent the stabilizing and calcification of many organizational, curricular and instructional components of the educational process. It is difficult enough to initiate educational change at the present time. I think the evidence is clear that negotiation of many instructional details in large cities over the past years have often prevented them from making even the most minimal of needed changes.

There is no question but what formal negotiation is here to stay for teachers and school board members. In order for this process to be worked out to the maximum advantage to all concerned and particularly the most vitally concerned, the students, I plead with teachers and school board members to resolve at the local level all possible issues, knowing that a few, such as the basic law for negotiations, will have to be established at the state level. Hopefully the matter may be resolved sufficiently well so that more restrictive state and federal legislation in this area might be avoided.

During recent weeks a proposal has been discussed at the national level which is designed to deal with potential strikes that would create national emergencies. The suggestion is being proposed by President Nixon through Labor Secretary, George Schultz. Basically, the proposal would allow for presidential intervention, delay of a potential strike, intensive mediation and potential binding arbitration by a three-man board appointed by the President. I believe there is much in this model that could be implemented at the state level to prevent future teacher strikes. The Governor could be given the responsibilities assigned to the President in the proposed federal legislation. Binding arbitration has never been looked upon too kindly by either teachers or school boards but it seems to me that the day has arrived when we can no longer afford the luxury of not having it. Such legislation could also serve great needs in other areas of public employee negotiation and those private sectors where a strike could create a state emergency.

Teacher-school board negotiation will have an increasingly important role to play in the quality of public education in Minnesota. Teachers, school boards, administrators and legislators should assume

## **COLLECTIVE NEGOTIATIONS**

**W. A. Wettergren, Executive Secretary  
Minnesota School Boards Association**

Prior to the 1965 Minnesota Legislative Session the teachers of Minnesota convinced both major political parties in Minnesota that the Minnesota Legislature should be asked to enact legislation making it mandatory for public school district boards to meet with the school district teachers on matters of teacher employment. The 1965 Legislative Session passed such legislation, but the legislation was vetoed by Governor Rolvaag for various reasons. The 1967 Minnesota Legislature enacted another law which was the result of many hours of legislative deliberation. This provision of the legislature was signed into law by Governor LeVander. The law, as enacted, was drawn from legislation enacted in eleven other states providing mandatory bargaining between school boards and teachers.

The Minnesota law does not call for "collective bargaining" in the same sense as we know this procedure in the private sector. The legislature carefully stated that the local school board shall adopt guidelines to expedite the mandatory Meet-and-Confer process in an effort to reach agreement on matters of economic aspects as these aspects relate to professional services, but the legislature stated in the law that the final decisions encompassed in this law are the statutory obligation of the local school board. This premise differs quite markedly from the impression many persons have of the law. The law should not be construed to mean that agreement means a bilateral decision between the teachers and the local school board. This misunderstanding on the part of teachers and school boards has resulted in great confusion and misinterpretation. The Minnesota law also provided that the school board shall meet and confer from time to time on matters of educational policy, but not in mandatory effort to reach an agreement. The representatives of Minnesota public school teachers have added further confusion in most public school districts by insisting on combining discussions of educational policy with discussions on

matters of economics and work returned for the dollar paid. I believe that a grave error has been made by this approach, and I would further suggest that the advancement and innovation in public education so desperately needed in today's society will suffer because the suggestions for improvement of the educational process become lost in discussions over teacher pay and fringe benefit programs. This insistence creates an impossible situation for those teachers and school boards who see the need for improvement in our public school educational programs.

This writer does not agree that the Minnesota law is all bad and should be discarded, either for a new law or for a law similar to any enacted in the other twenty-one states. One only has to follow the news media, or visit with educational leaders in other states of the nation which have bargaining laws, to find that the situation in Minnesota is better than most. This is not to say the the Minnesota statute cannot be improved. It will be improved and this improvement was well on the way during the 1969 Legislative Session, but in the final hours of the session it was decided that the law should have at least two more years of experience before changes were made.

The Minnesota School Boards Association believes that all school administrators should be removed from the teachers' bargaining unit. School boards set policy for the operation of the public school district. The implementation of these policies then is discharged to the superintendent of schools, who in turn relies on the school administrative staff to carry out the adopted policies under his direction. We suggest it is not compatible for an administrator to be included in a bargaining unit with the same persons he will supervise in the expedition of adopted policy. Administrators under the level of superintendent must be considered management if the educational process and policies of the district are to be carried out in an orderly manner. School administrators under the superintendent level, however, should be allowed to organize for the purpose of conferring with the school board and the superintendent on matters of school district policy. We do not think, however, that decisions on economics or policies should be a matter for bilateral decisions between the members of the administrative staff and the school board. One can merely point

to a premise that has held true for years in both the private and public sector -- that management has difficulty in bargaining with management.

The Minnesota School Boards Association suggests that local school boards should have the option of employing a negotiator to represent them in the bargaining process. Many school boards in larger districts of the state do not have the time to first set the operational policies of the district and then in addition, to adequately give the many hours needed to make the Meet-and-Confer process work. When the bargaining process begins through the state, school boards and teachers are conferring on the yearly expenditure of well over five-hundred million dollars. This is too great a task to leave to chance and error, and in some cases the school board should be allowed to engage a negotiator to represent the school board and its policies.

Many persons have also suggested that the school board and the teachers be allowed to enter into multiple-year agreements. This suggestion has great merit for eliminating the time-consuming confrontation that now takes place annually between school boards and teachers. The Association suggests that settlements be mandatory two-year agreements in each even-numbered year. The Minnesota Legislature meets in each odd-numbered year. If the bargaining process were to take place in each even-numbered year, the parties involved would know the decision of the legislature in the distribution of state aids and the amount of money to be raised from local property taxes to meet the economics of the agreement. It is further suggested that to make optional instead of mandatory a multiple year agreement on the part of the school board would be to create chaos for both teachers and school boards. A whipsawing process would be inevitable under this kind of an agreement.

Withholding of services by an employee of a governmental unit in Minnesota is construed as a strike against the governmental unit. Minnesota law is quite definite in describing severe penalties for such an employee deemed to be on strike. The law does not provide for the governing body of a governmental subdivision of the state to negotiate amnesty for return to employment of a person who has been on strike.

Minnesota law does not provide real clarification as to what constitutes a strike on the part of Minnesota public school teachers, and school boards during this past year have refused to request an interpretation from the courts. The Association raises the questions of what constitutes a strike. Is a teacher's refusal to take attendance reports a strike? Is the usage of "work to rule" a strike? Is the withholding of extra-curricular services a strike? One could go on and on listing various kinds of harrassments used against the school district and the pupils of the district that are detrimental to the educational program. Teachers know that school boards tend to be over-benevolent in this area, but we must ask the question of what happens to the educational services the pupils are supposedly guaranteed by the governmental subdivision of the state of Minnesota.

Maximum salaries and fringe benefits paid Minnesota public school teachers with a Masters Degree are the very tops in the nation. Salaries paid public school administrators are among the top salaries in the nation. Some people give this credit to the Meet-and-Confer Law. This is not a valid credit because Minnesota school boards and Minnesota teachers were well on their way to reaching this top level long before anyone thought that Minnesota should have a school board-teacher bargaining law. This salary position is an extremely healthy position for the state of Minnesota. Rigidity, however, in future requests under the guise of the Meet-and-Confer Law will tend to sharply negate these advancements. Whether school boards like it or not, or whether school administrators like it or not, or whether the teachers like it or not, there will be forced upon public school officials and teachers an evaluation of performance system. This may be distasteful to some in public education, but if the public is expected to keep pouring millions of dollars into the education process, and they will, better ways must be found for rewarding our teachers.

Most criticism leveled at the Meet-and-Confer Law is an indirect criticism of those persons elected to serve on local school boards. The constitution of our state charges the legislature with providing a uniform system of public education. The legislature has provided for public school districts. The legislature has provided a state department

of education under a state board of education appointed by the Governor with the consent of the Minnesota Senate. The legislature has also provided for the election of a local school board to care for, manage and control the school district. The legislature has enacted many laws under which the local school board must operate. The State Board of Education has adopted many rules and regulations under which the local school board must operate. Thus the person elected by the school district electorate to serve the local school board does not, upon taking the oath of office, suddenly become a person in a "black hat" as he is often described.

When attitudes change to a realization that somewhere in government, such as the local school district, responsibility must rest -- when attitudes are such that there is a realization that employees of government cannot participate bilaterally in the decisions that must be made by the governing body of a governmental unit in a republican form of government -- and when attitudes change from a position that a teaching certificate means that a person is qualified to teach and is guaranteed a lifetime position regardless of capabilities -- confrontation will be rewarding. When these attitudes change then the Meet-and-Confer Law, or any other law which compels school boards and teachers to negotiate on economic aspects, can work to the satisfaction of both parties. The public schools of Minnesota were not created to provide a job for any one person, or for that matter a position on the local school board. The public schools were established to provide the best in education for the young people of this state. Legislative bodies are not capable of writing legislation guaranteeing this premise. The objective of public education can only be effected through an understanding by school boards and teachers alike of why the public schools were created. Confrontation should be between the teacher and the pupil in the learning process. Confrontation should not be between the teachers of a school district and the persons elected to care for, manage, and control the school district affairs.

## THOUGHTS ON COLLECTIVE NEGOTIATIONS

Edward C. Bolstad  
Executive Secretary  
Minnesota Federation of Teachers

It has been my experience within this field called "Collective Negotiations" that a major, if not the most serious hangup, concerns a defining of necessary terms and their method of implementation. For example, my view of bargaining as a representative of classroom teachers is, many times, quite different from the meaning accepted by a school board or superintendent.

For purposes of this article, I must make two basic assumptions. The first is that the reader is fairly sophisticated in his knowledge of our current "Meet and Confer" law. This assumption continues in that the reader must be aware of all the shortcomings of chapter 633 as well as its limited strengths. My second assumption is that the reader will consider my remarks in light of an assumed new statute covering public employment, generally, and education emphasis, specifically, is drawn from long years of experience in the private sector and has added to it limited adaptations for use in public employment, school house version.

With those conditions I would like to approach the first suggested focus point: "Who should negotiate?" There is no question that the naivete' and inexperience of both parties in the negotiating process caused a great deal of the conflict and hard feelings. Teacher negotiators became extremely upset at what seemed to be insulting offers by school boards and school boards in turn, made much out of the staff's reasonable but often inflated proposals. Their technique is as old as man's bartering skills, but to our discredit, unrecognized by educators and lay boards. Adding to this complete lack of understanding of negotiating process on the part of teachers and school boards was the additional dilemma of many superintendents' lacking of training in group negotiations, bargaining techniques, etc.

Many school board members will admit and some already have admitted, off the record, that they felt the limited competency of their

chief administrative officers in their field of bargaining caused a great deal of the conflict and strife. All too often superintendents' lack of employee relations training has been combined with a feeling of personal loss of control or power with the result that many issues have become oriented to personalities rather than give and take discussions.

This transparently is leading me to suggest the use of trained professionals in the negotiating process. This is not to totally suggest the hiring by either employee or employer of new faces, but rather the training of existing personnel and/or the hiring of new personnel. I must repeat that I suggest this in the context of a realistic bargaining law.

From a discussion on the type of negotiator, it is a short step to the question of for whom should the negotiator work? There are strong arguments favoring the concept of: "the larger the bargaining unit, the better." From an employee's side, the more teachers, (local, district, division or state), the more muscle behind a negotiations' request. The fact that existing state-wide teachers' salaries tend to be very poor does not detract from this muscle theory in that existing state-wide salaries are set under laws which, by no stretch of the imagination, can be called bargaining laws.

From management's point of view, a larger unit is of value because it slows down the employees' ability to "whip saw" one settlement against another. This is the argument used recently by the nation's railroads in their "lock out" of all employees to prevent competitive settlements.

Despite obvious strengths present in the large unit concept, I still favor local-level bargaining units. Employees, whether they be K-12 teachers, junior college instructors or University of Minnesota professors, must, to be effective, negotiate with the direct decision-making branch of government. If my conditions of employment are set in major part and financed in major part by a local school board, then it is with them that I must negotiate. This holds true for a bargaining unit per individual junior college, state college or university.

Even the most limited research into the decision-making power of each school district, junior college, state college and university, added

to the immediate long-range affects of those decisions on specific faculties within specific campuses, leads quite logically to campus units as opposed to state-wide units. If the future should bring the creation of larger governmental units within the K-12 structure, then the employee bargaining unit would have to adjust so as to have relevance between the unit and managerial counter parts.

We move from selection of negotiator through design of bargaining unit to topics in bargaining. Here probably more than anywhere else the definition of a word becomes vital. What does negotiable mean? Again the naivete' of the parties causes problems. Many a school board incorrectly assumes that to enter into a discussion on a teacher requested subject automatically means the gaining of that item by the teacher group. Thus, the way to prevent such an automatic adoption is to refuse to discuss it. Refusal leads to conflict and the whole process suffers.

If one uses the definition of negotiable as discussable, then there is little support for refusing to exchange ideas on any subject. If the definition is strengthened to mean discussable and subject to mutual agreement before implementation, neither side has lost anything. The great scare tactic used in an attempt to hold down the sphere of negotiable subjects, namely, the employee will take over the governing responsibility, simply has no basis in fact. Not to use the ever-increasing expertise of a faculty in the operation of a school because of a remote, non-substantiated, fear of loss of power borders on the strongest form of negligence. The governmental subdivision always has final control by having both hands on the purse. There is little legal substantiation for a teacher bargaining unit ability to levy taxes or collect state aids.

Everything is discussable; anything that has to do with my performing the task for which I am trained and contracted is discussable, subject to mutual consent as to changes. Thus curriculum is negotiable. Class size is negotiable. Text book selection is negotiable. The site of the new school is **not** negotiable, but the method by which its design will be determined is. The mill levy process is not negotiable, but its size and disbursement is.

Anyone that has been a part of a negotiation process and watched a school board member flip rapidly through many pages of a carefully worked out, arduously designed, statistically supported proposal to read the last page which traditionally contains the proposed salary scale, has no doubt that salary is, for school boards as well as teachers, the top priority item. I have suggested to several locals, as yet unheeded, to disburse parts of the proposed scale all through the complete proposal, for obvious reasons.

With salary still number one on both sides, what criteria lends itself to a fair living for the educator. I personally feel the answer is quite simple to put forth, but often monstrous to implement. **When the educator is given the equal status of private employees, he will then seek, through the bargaining process, the highest quality of living and educational service society is willing to support.** This purposely ignores the interim comments of tax base, school levy, merit pay, school year, summers off, extra training, state aids, etc., etc. I hold little sympathy for the cost question when I see more spent to build ribbons of concrete than to build schools, when Minnesota farmers receive as much in federal subsidy programs than is spent on education in Minnesota, when a highly skilled electrician working for the University of Minnesota can deservedly earn approximately \$19,000 per year which is more than 90 percent of the professional staff at the University of Minnesota is earning. It is not a question of society's ability to pay, but rather it is a question of forcing the issues.

As education costs go up, and I would contend they have just begun to rise, society will have to respond by a regarding of priorities. The bargaining process allows society to demand in proportion to the demands made of it. Competition will keep out mediocrity; the need for efficiency will eliminate the obsolete whether they be school building or school systems.

The profession itself will demand more of itself as it becomes convinced that it is responsible for its product. In its purest form, a sound profession with equality in the bargaining process would not need tenure laws, State Board of Education guidelines, legislatively imposed codes of conduct, etc.

To accomplish at least a beginning degree of adequacy within the education employee bargaining field, four years of negative experience seems to point out the need for exclusivity of bargaining agent as selected through a secret ballot process, services of trained mediators, expansion and clarification as to terms for negotiators, strengthening as to legal requirements of both parties within the process, and lastly some method to justly end an impasse.

To conclude, it seems quite clear to me that in the field of education, employee-employer relations are destined to repeat the trials and conflicts which are already a part of the history of the private sector. We seem to be unwilling to learn from others' experience. The "Collective Negotiation" process is still viewed by all too many educators, administrators and school board members through the dark glasses of naivete', unfounded biases, ignorance and profound pomposity.

## **TEACHER NEGOTIATIONS – AN EVOLVING CONCEPT**

**A. L. Gallop  
Executive Secretary  
Minnesota Education Association**

The concept of teacher negotiations is relatively new to Minnesota educators. The answers to such questions as who should negotiate, what is negotiable, and what criteria should be used for determining salaries are yet in stages of development. As the history of bargaining experience develops, a viable negotiations philosophy will eventually emerge. The state legislature's consideration of possible changes to be made in the Meet and Confer Law during the 1971 session is evidence of the evolution of teacher negotiations.

### **WHO SHOULD NEGOTIATE?**

While it is certainly possible that a professional negotiator could provide a valuable service to a local association of teachers, under most circumstances there are substantial factors against employing one.

The Meet and Confer Law does not provide for bilateral agreement; it encourages it, but it does not demand it (via arbitration). The original intent of the law was to provide teachers with the right to communicate with their board of education through a procedure that would guarantee dialogue "in an effort to reach agreement". Since, in the final analysis, a board of education has the power and statutory right to unilaterally determine the outcome of negotiations, it would not be likely to allow a professional negotiator-teacher advocate to be more successful in negotiating for the teachers than the teachers were themselves. Understandably, boards might fear that if one professional negotiator could "win" for teachers, other teacher locals might be encouraged to hire a professional.

Assuming that the majority of teacher locals hired professional negotiators, would teachers then make greater gains? No, the situation has not substantially changed. The board still has unilateral powers. Teachers probably would lose in this situation: 1) they would be paying large fees for the professional, and they would not be getting larger

gains in return; 2) a professional negotiator would justifiably want to have complete control over the establishment of priorities and the level of compromise on the issues in order to maintain bargaining flexibility. Teachers would have to surrender control over bargaining items to him. This could - and has - posed great problems if the final outcome of the negotiator's efforts is not acceptable to the faculty.

A professional negotiator, acting as an advocate for the teachers, has nothing more working for him, except perhaps an expertise and an understanding of the bargaining process, but even this expertise is questionable. Trained and experienced in private sector bargaining, he may find that much of his expertise does not effectively apply to bargaining in the public sector arena.

He has no pressures substantially different from those of the teachers that he can apply to the board: he cannot bring them into a binding situation decreed by an outside force or agency; neither can he legally direct the teachers to strike against the board (although a strike in spite of the no-strike law is always a possibility - one which many boards and teachers must face realistically during each bargaining session).

Can the teachers handle negotiations as well as a professional negotiator? It is very likely that there is sufficient talent within the teacher unit that can be developed - through training and experience - to effectively handle negotiations. Teachers have a commitment to the issues, and that commitment gives an impetus to a more sincere rhetoric at the bargaining table. Then, too, they are more conversant about their needs and are probably more familiar with the personalities and forces at play within the bargaining environment. Therefore, in most instances, it would be best if teachers would develop their own strength and expertise and negotiate for themselves.

Negotiations should always be conducted at the level at which the management (or representative board) is empowered to make decisions pertinent to the items involved. The negotiations process provides teachers with the opportunity (and the right) to discuss mutual problems, concerns, and ideas and to work toward mutual solutions and agreement with the elected representatives who are empowered to make

decisions affecting the area of education. Since the local school board is the body presently responsible for the education of the children of the community and empowered to make decisions relevant to the area of education, negotiations should be conducted on a local level.

The community has the prerogative to determine its educational needs. If it desires to provide a comprehensive and relevant curriculum and a talented staff to implement that curriculum, then it must tax itself - perhaps stringently - to secure that service for its youth. If the community is satisfied to comply only with the minimal educational standards and requirements for curriculum and staff, then it is free to decline to burden itself with meaningful taxation. To move negotiations from the local level to an area, division, or state level results in 1) denying a community the prerogative of determining the quality of its educational program; 2) usurping the tax effort of one community and applying those monies to another community that may not have been willing to accept the same tax burden.

Generally, the salary schedules and philosophies of education within an area or region are already found to be similar. Because of the element of competition among school districts, uniformity among salary schedules results naturally from the process of negotiations in that area. A broadening of the composition of the bargaining unit to a regional or division level would do little to provide greater uniformity in teachers' salaries, but it could do much to destroy the local autonomy of the school district.

#### **WHAT IS NEGOTIABLE?**

Because the law provides a channel of communication for teachers to "meet and confer" with their school boards, it seems reasonable to take all teacher problems through this channel. Everything that has budgetary impact is negotiable. It is virtually impossible to sort out of a negotiations proposal those items which are educational policies of the district. For instance, the hiring of a speech therapist might be considered a prerogative of the school board. The salary to be paid the new speech therapist would definitely be considered an economic issue. The question that immediately arises is "Do the teachers have the right

to propose the adding of a speech therapist?" The answer is "Yes" the teachers have the right to propose the additional position but the board does not have to meet and confer in an effort to reach agreement on this issue. The difficulty in separating issues into economic and non-economic categories is obvious. Who determines what is economic and, therefore, negotiable? The teachers? The school board? The courts? One can imagine the confusion that could result if all teacher/board negotiating teams became embroiled in disputes over what is negotiable and took their cases to court for judicial resolution.

An item which has budgetary impact - payment for which would mean a depletion of available funds for other proposals - should be considered an economic aspect relating to conditions of professional service, thus requiring a board to meet and confer in an effort to reach agreement.

### **CRITERIA FOR DETERMINING SALARIES**

Teachers' salaries should be determined according to preparation, experience, and the prevailing economic status of other comparable professions. Teaching that is well done is the result of thorough preparation and is extremely difficult work. It reflects talent, training, and experience. A teacher is required to submerge himself hour after hour in interpersonal relationships that demand a creative design to help the student learn. Certainly for this type of effort and the importance of this kind of undertaking, the teacher is reasonable when he insists that the teaching profession be accorded the respect and economic status of other professions.

Many have suggested that teachers be paid on a merit rating system. Merit programs have been initiated in some schools across the nation, but most have failed because the methods of evaluating teaching performance have proven ineffective. In at least one national survey, no correlation could be shown between administrative merit ratings of teachers and the attainment levels of their students. Then, too, the merit pay system raises some nagging questions: Who is qualified to evaluate teachers? How are the raters qualified? Who rated them? Will merit rating stifle creativity in the classroom? And so on.

Teachers are required by professional standards and by the State Department of Education to develop an expertise in their selected field before they can be certificated and allowed to practice their profession in the classroom. A bachelors degree and the completion of an accredited teacher training program are minimal requirements. Career teachers are expected to continue their studies, not only in their major area of study, but also in the methodology of applying their knowledge to the process of learning in the classroom. Since the master degree teacher likely has more knowledge of a subject area to put to work for the student than the bachelor degree teacher, and because his graduate degree represents an investment of considerable time and money, he should be paid for the extensiveness of his training.

Likewise, the amount of experience a teacher gains is also a valid criterion for determining salary. Few would question the benefit of experience in any profession. Experience is closely correlated with learning and the development of skills. The second year teacher is a better teacher than he was his first year teaching. The teacher with ten years experience is likely to be better than the teacher with five years experience, particularly in recognizing learning difficulties and prescribing instructional solutions. Since the experienced teacher is more efficient and effective in the classroom, his salary should reflect the service of his greater expertise.

#### **THE NEGOTIATIONS LAW**

The Meet and Confer Law should adopt the principle of exclusivity with provision for membership authorization designating one organization to be the exclusive representative of total faculty. Provision should also be made for an election where necessary and according to specific provision. Cooperation between rival organizations who are striving for membership dominance is unlikely under most circumstances and virtually impossible at the bargaining table. It is not in the best interest of teachers to present a divided front during negotiations. Therefore, it seems imperative that one organization be selected to represent all teachers during the bargaining process. Teachers must present a united front in their dealings with school boards.

Teachers join an organization because they want that organization to become their spokesman. If a given organization does not effectively represent a teacher, the teacher has the right to join another in the hope that a second organization will effectively represent him.

There should be provision for an election or exclusive representative certification not more than once each two years. If an organization is certified as the exclusive representative of its members for a mandatory period of two years, the organization must become more responsible. Negotiations and other types of planning can be on a long range basis rather than year to year. Competition between rival organizations would tend to decrease as the certified organization assumes responsibility for the planning and achievement of goals. Greater rapport between school boards and teacher groups would result; organizations would no longer have to "prove" themselves before their rival groups as they do during meetings between teachers' councils and school boards. Representatives of teacher groups could enter into more meaningful negotiations with school boards without the rival representatives sniping at their actions.

Agreements between teachers and boards should be allowed to cover a two-year period. Such two-year contracts should be permissive. Negotiations has become a year-long project. Teachers find that the amount of time required to do an adequate job of preparing and negotiating a comprehensive proposal is growing to the extent that they can no longer do an adequate job of teaching.

During the past several years, the public has become alarmed over spiraling teachers' salaries. The press has tended to devote an extraordinary amount of coverage to teacher/school board disputes. If multi-year settlements are allowed, the public will not feel that teachers are continually asking for higher salaries and are always involved in disputes over working conditions. Not having to bargain annually will allow teacher organizations to devote more time to other professional programs. Teacher negotiators will have time to more adequately prepare for negotiating. Turnover on teacher bargaining teams might be reduced. Annual negotiations have taxed the strength of teacher and board bargainers.

When operating under extreme pressure for long periods of time, negotiators become irritable and, therefore, unreceptive to mutual agreement. The interim period would become a period of calm when teachers could concentrate on their teaching rather than becoming distraught and demoralized annually.

Voluntary binding arbitration should be authorized in principle. No matter how great the expertise of the negotiators, disputes sometimes arise that cannot be resolved through conventional channels. When these disputes occur in the private sector, a strike usually follows. Because the strike is illegal, some means should be authorized that would allow both parties to submit their dispute to the judgment of an unbiased third party who has had a great deal of experience in resolving such disputes. An obvious benefit of this type of legislation would be that neither side would have to resort to arbitration unless in their judgment all other attempts to resolve the dispute had failed. Faced with the possibility of a teacher strike, school boards could, after attempting conciliation and mediation, and by mutual agreement with the teachers organization, place the dispute in the hands of a well-trained, experienced arbitrator for resolution. An appeal authority should be provided for and available to both teachers and school boards.

The process of bargaining, if properly used, can work to the benefit of both parties. However, if one or both parties fail to bargain in good faith, the process generally breaks down. Therefore, some guidelines for the bargaining process are necessary, and some procedure should be authorized for the enforcement of such guidelines. If an appeal authority is established, its decisions, which would define the parameters within which negotiations would take place, would become guideposts to bargainers. If a school board makes a unilateral, unpopular, decision or maneuver which is not conducive to meaningful negotiations, it seems logical to have a board to which appeals could go for immediate, impartial, resolution.

## JUNIOR COLLEGE NEGOTIATIONS -- MINNESOTA STYLE

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Minnesota public junior colleges have **not** followed an historical national tendency in one important dimension--the matter of faculty negotiations with boards which typically find a single college faculty negotiating with a single college policy-making board. Minnesota practices stem largely from the high degree of centralization of junior college forces--where both the board and the faculty are represented by single bodies for all institutions in the state. Additionally, junior college faculties in Minnesota negotiate collectively under the Public Employees Act (which covers state civil service as well as state colleges) and not under legislation which controls similar negotiations between common school district boards and local faculties. Further, there are restrictions on the curricula offered in Minnesota two-year colleges, resulting from the existence of separately administered post-secondary area vocational schools.

Historically, administrators and administrative practices and procedures in the nation's two-year colleges have developed within or from models from the common school district or K-12 sector. This was observed by Angell in 1915,<sup>1</sup> and it continues.<sup>2</sup> Some effects of this on faculty-administrator relationships in the two year college have been reported from California, which is synonymous in junior college circles

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1. Angell, J.: "The Junior College Movement in the High School," **School Review**. XXIII: 289. May, 1915.
  2. Schultz, R.E.: "The Junior College President: Who and Where From," **The Junior College President** (B. Lamar Johnson) Los Angeles, California: Junior College Leadership Training Program, Graduate School of Education. Occasional Report Number 13. May, 1969.

with faculty militancy and which enrolls over 525,000 students in nearly 100 public community colleges.<sup>3</sup>

Priest, then a junior college president in California (though since moved to Texas as Chancellor of the Dallas County Community College District), examined the root of junior college faculty militancy in California in 1964.<sup>4</sup>

A major element in the California unrest is the conviction on the part of a great many faculty members that, as a result of the Master Plan for Higher Education, junior colleges have shed the yoke of secondary education status. (.....) They conclude that as college faculty members, their rights, privileges and responsibilities must be commensurate with their official membership in California's system of higher education. The impediments in achieving this status have been rallying points for proponents of the new image.

Reiss, as president of the California Faculty Association, had additional observations in 1968:<sup>5</sup>

Historically, administrators and faculty were recruited from high schools; therefore the organizational structure, philosophy, and method of operation of the junior college have typically aped those of our public schools.

Under these circumstances, the president, through his administrative staff, often rules as the benevolent autocrat of a generally

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3. Harper, Wm.: **The Directory of the American Association of Junior Colleges.** Washington, D.C.: ASJC. 1969.
  4. Priest, Bill: "Faculty-Administrator Relationships," **Junior College Journal**, V. 34:5, March, 1964.
  5. Reiss, L. C.: "The Faculty and the Junior College President," **The Junior College President** (B. Lamar Johnson, Editor.) Los Angeles, Calif.: The Junior College Leadership Training Program, University of California, Los Angeles. Occasional Report No.13: May, 1969. page 67.

conservative institution. Faculties form pseudo-democratic structures which give the external appearance of participation in government; in fact, however, they fall far short of real participation in policy development. This suggests symbiosis, since neither group is capable of operating the institution alone, whereas together they can successfully achieve the institutional goals.

I suggest the following points be kept in mind:

1. It is essential that the institution realize and accept interdependence among the board, administration, faculty, and students.
2. The college should develop a formal governmental structure which clearly defines the function of each component of the institution. It should establish a strong academic senate and integrate it into the college's policy-development process.
3. The college should provide the senate with adequate office space, equipment, clerical help, and released time for its officers so that they can fully participate in the process of college governance

It should be underscored that Riess and Priest both refer to **the college** and **the college board**. In California, as is most common elsewhere, the local faculty association (recognized through some legitimization process--which varies from state to state) negotiates with the local college board which has policy making powers. This could not be done in Minnesota as single campuses are served by advisory boards which have no policy-making function.

Though Minnesota has followed national patterns by staffing both administrators and faculty predominately from secondary ranks, each faculty is served by a senate restricted to local campus matters. As no local campus board in Minnesota has policy-making functions, the campus senate and the local board are both neutralized. Negotiations concerning faculty welfare, or other issues are conducted at the state level.

State faculty matters are represented by the MJCFA (Minnesota Junior College Faculty Association) which embraces all public junior college faculties. The Minnesota State Junior College Board handles all

policy matters for any and all of the junior colleges. Perhaps most critically, the MJCFA and the State Junior College Board both operate in the absence of significant curricula devoted to the vocational or general educational functions which have come, in other areas of the country, to be such an important part of the total public community-junior college function. This leaves the junior college curriculum and faculties in Minnesota with strong university orientations. Community college people elsewhere point increasingly to the uniqueness of the two-year college as an institution which serves the university only as one of several major functions.<sup>6-7</sup>

There are other states which allow or demand by law, that junior college faculties bargain directly with the board and not through the administrative units serving any one campus or state. The State of Washington, much like Minnesota in many ways, spelled out in the Community College Act of 1967 (which followed sections of the Minnesota Act of 1963) quite clearly that each campus will be served by a board responsible for broad policy matters and that each faculty will negotiate directly with that board for matters involving the welfare of all certificated employees except the president. This means the **local faculty association negotiates with the board for line administrators as well as faculty**. This is a practice duplicating that found in Washington K-12 or common school districts. There is in Washington a strong Community College State Board responsible for a total budget for the two-year colleges to be presented to the legislature and subsequently held accountable for appropriations. A major difference between Minnesota and Washington is that the Washington State Board has specified policy making powers **as does the local campus board which**

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6. Blocker, C. E., Plummer, R. H., and Richardson, R. C., Jr.: **The Two-Year College: A Social Synthesis**. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc: 1965: pages 165-165.
  7. Johnson B. Lamar: **Islands of Innovation Expanding**. Beverly Hills, California: Gloencoe Press, 1969. pgs. 196-197.

**hires and fires.** California's Community College Act of 1968 created a State Community College Board but this is not given the broad powers awarded to its counterpart in Minnesota and allows for local policy-making boards. New York is developing a seeming mixture of Minnesota, Washington, and California laws and practices and appears to be moving toward centralized negotiations--that is the total junior college faculties have singular representation to negotiate with one responsive State Board **but** single campus policy-making boards exist.

A recent study from Florida emphasizes the increasing desirability of a state coordinating board for all higher education matters.<sup>8</sup> The coordination, however, does **not** necessarily involve state control as represented by a single policy making board.

Within Minnesota the junior college faculties negotiate under the Public Employees Act as separate from K-12 laws or regulations. This heightens an emphasis that they are included within the definition of higher education, though faculty and administration follow basic operational and organizational patterns adopted from the K-12 sector. If the junior colleges were allowed and would adopt significant vocationally-oriented programs, the impact of present negotiation practices would not be so great in directing faculty activities towards a university orientation.

The principal benefit accruing to the Minnesota approach is that of avoiding "whiplash." This is the phenomenon of one aggressive local faculty association winning from a weak or permissive local district board or administration some outstanding concession. Immediately other district faculties pick this gain up as the new status quo, or as a club, to bargain with more conservative boards. This has been experienced by some Washington community college districts. A counter-reaction is to move towards state-wide faculty salary systems, as already found in Minnesota's junior college system.

The principal disadvantage is the neutralization of the Minnesota

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8. Studkman, J. A. **Statewide Correlation of Community Junior Colleges.** Gainesville, Florida. Institute of Higher Education, University of Florida. Nov., 1969.

junior college presidents (or total administration) and the local campus advisory board. As neither the campus president nor the campus board are final arbiters, the faculty moves past them to operate directly with the State Board. The neutralization of campus presidents and advisory board is completed when the individual faculty contracts resulting from negotiations are issued by the state and **not** by the local board.

### **Conclusion**

The result for Minnesota junior colleges is a singularly efficient system of negotiations. It remains to be seen, however if this is conducive to growth and responsibility (for either faculty, administration, or local boards) as the Minnesota system grows--which it will. It may be an efficiency possible only for a new and emerging system.

It is difficult from a theoretical and philosophical view to see how a system can move towards the creation of community colleges, as apart from the more restricted junior college system now in effect, without involving the local board (i. e. the local community served) in policy matters including some responsibility for faculty negotiations. It seems an inconsistency to restrict any community from making such direct inputs into its community college.

Finally, though there are distinct benefits accruing to community and junior colleges through inclusion in higher education legislation, it does not follow that these same institutions benefit from seeing the university as its principal market or aping university practices. Rather the contrary is true -- junior colleges prosper as they rise to the demands and responsibilities of being unique.

## **SCUTTLE 633?**

**W. Art Gessner, President  
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Junior College**

The review that follows is based on selected parts of a study made by the writer.

The Minnesota legislation, Chapter 633 of the Statutes of 1967, was a first effort by the legislature to provide a legal framework which would accommodate the bilateral decision-making process of collective negotiations between teachers and school boards. The legislation was passed without benefit of a tried and proven model in this area of employer-employee relations and amidst an atmosphere of differences among several educational organizations. Criticisms of the statute seem to indicate some doubt that the legislation is well designed to assist parties to achieve bilateral decisions on appropriate matters.

### **Problem**

The problem of the project was an evaluation of the ability or potential of Chapter 633 to accommodate the collective negotiations process and of the success of the statute during the **first year** (1967-68) of application.

### **Plan of the Study**

Two independent investigations were conducted both of which were built upon the same general framework of criteria. The first investigation was concerned with the ability or potential of Chapter 633 to accommodate the collective negotiations process. The procedure consisted of reviewing writings by authorities, positions of major educational groups, and the thirteen state statutes which, at the time of the study, provided direction for teacher-school board collective negotiations. The National Labor Relations Act, with its amendments, and Kennedy's Executive Order 10988, were examined to a lesser extent. These readings resulted in the construction of **Guidelines** for Teacher-School Board Collective Negotiations Legislation against which

were matched provisions contained in the Minnesota statute.

The second investigation was an effort to evaluate the first application (1967-68) of the statute in selected school districts. A single questionnaire consisting of questions of fact and opinion received a response from 44 superintendents and 40 teachers council\* chairmen from 50 of the state's largest school districts. Responses of the two groups were reported separately but were not matched according to school districts.

\* The term "teachers council" as used herein refers to all negotiating teams representing teachers regardless of the organizational preference of council members.

#### **Limitations of the Study**

The limitations are profuse. The Guidelines as well as all statements of evaluation were the conclusions drawn by the investigator, who is subject to bias and error, from the writings of authorities who also are subject to bias and error. And the experience of a single trial of negotiations is severely limited in its reliability.

#### **Findings Excluded**

Practical and space limitations exclude complete descriptions of the findings of the project from this review. The Guidelines for Teacher-School Board Collective Negotiations Legislation, a part of the findings, were substantiated by rationales found in a variety of sources which would of necessity require reference here. Specific results of the questionnaires would also add undue girth to this review. However, the conclusions which follow do refer to and provide some information of the findings.

#### **Conclusions and Implications**

Features considered by the writer to be essential in collective negotiations legislation constituted the bases for the divisions of the conclusions and implications which follow.

#### **Recognition**

The recognition feature of Chapter 633 fails to meet the

recommendation of the first Guideline. The statute requires proportional representation determined by a count of memberships while the Guideline recommends exclusive representation which is to be determined, when contests exist, by method of secret ballot. However, the findings from participant response did not provide evidence of ineffectiveness or failure of either the proportional recognition feature or of the membership-count method of the statute. Moreover, a majority of the respondents did not believe that exclusive recognition would cause less conflict. And no more incidents of disagreement, which caused delay in advancing to substantive issues, were found among proportionately-recognized teachers councils than among single-organization councils.

Experience of both private and public sectors favors exclusive recognition and should perhaps outweigh the experience of a single year of negotiations. On the other hand, proportional recognition has not been widely attempted since the passing of the Wagner Act in 1935. The doubt might best be resolved by further exposure of proportional recognition under careful scrutiny.

#### **Appropriate Negotiating Unit**

Chapter 633 provides for an all-inclusive negotiating unit of certificated personnel, with the exception of the superintendent. It does not meet the recommendation of the Guideline of this study which would separate administrative and supervisory personnel from units containing non-administrative and non-supervisory personnel. The Guideline suggests also that local initiative should be combined with guidance from an agency administering the statute to settle the complex problem of determining the membership of the negotiating unit. Respondents provided evidence that a number of school boards did, in fact, negotiate with more than one unit of certificated personnel. Participant response showed also that groups negotiating most frequently as separate units were those containing administrative and/or supervisory personnel.

If the unit determination provisions of Chapter 633 were in tune with most of the literature of authorities, there may be some reason to maintain those provisions. Change seems most appropriate, however,

and it would seem also that any change short of the proposal of the Guideline would be no solution.

### **Subject Matter of Negotiations**

The scope of the subject matter of negotiations which is defined as "economic aspects relating to the terms of employment" in the statute seems to limit the scope more than does the Guideline's recommended definition of "wages, hours, and other terms and conditions of employment." Experience of participants revealed that a number of issues that were negotiated extended to matters which several adjustment panel reports considered non-economic and, therefore, beyond the scope of negotiable subject matter as defined by the statute.

Experience of the first year seemed to favor the Guideline but a change in the present language of the law may have the effect of an untimely removal of sandbags from a dike. Perhaps several years of experience under present law would provide a practical pattern or scope of subject matter of negotiations.

### **Impasse Procedures**

Provisions of Chapter 633 for peaceable procedures of impasse resolution are quite unlike the impartial and separated mediation and fact finding processes recommended in the fourth Guideline. Yet it would be possible, within provisions of the statute, for a school board and teachers council to follow, with few exceptions, the recommendations of the Guideline. This flexibility of the statute's adjustment panel led to criticisms of various procedures which might be used under the statute. The responses from participants do demonstrate that varying practices of impasse procedure were employed.

Participants seemed to confirm the criticism of the statute's procedure which pointed to its lack of direction. The costs to parties may remain insignificant but the vague direction of the statute provides fertile soil for growth of those costs. An independent outside state level administering agency would seem most helpful to assist and guide parties.

### **Written Agreements**

Two assumptions were made with reference to a written agreement. First, it was assumed that at least two parties must be involved in

the execution of an agreement and secondly, it was assumed that written agreements require the signatures of representatives of the parties involved. If these assumptions are accepted, then the requirement of Chapter 633 to "implement the agreement in the form of a resolution" does not meet the recommendation of the fifth Guideline which would require that agreements be placed in the form of a written agreement.

The expression of teachers council chairmen concerning misunderstandings which may have been avoided with a written agreement seems adequate endorsement of the Guideline. Any issue arising from the omission of the written form of agreement would likely be non-substantive.

#### **Requirement of Good Faith Negotiations**

Chapter 633 does not meet the recommendation of the sixth Guideline, that statutes contain language requiring the exercise of good faith by parties in their efforts to reach agreement. However, no complaints were registered by participants and no court decisions were found which required a ruling on the issue of good faith negotiations.

Although no reason was found in participant response or from other sources which would suggest the necessity of inserting a good faith requirement, there seems no obvious shortcoming in its inclusion. And it may serve to remove a possible source of non-substantive issues.

#### **The Administering Agency**

Under the provisions of Chapter 633 the school board and adjustment panel seem to be directed to perform the functions which might be identified as the responsibility of an administering agency. The seventh and last Guideline would favor an independent agency, which is confined in its responsibilities to school board-teacher relations, to interpret and administer the statute. Half of the responding participants favored an outside agency to assist in settling disputes which occur between agreement dates. Of the group favoring such assistance more than half were teachers council chairmen. But less than one-tenth of all respondents preferred an outside agency to referee the determination of representation on the teachers council in cases of contest.

The response suggested that the unit determination feature of the statute was not heeded in all cases; that the definition of subject matter of negotiations may require interpretation; that impasse procedures lack direction; and that cases of alleged bad faith in negotiations seem inevitable. The impartial state-level independent administering agency of the Guideline seems appropriate. It might also serve as a clearing-house for information, a source of impartial data, and to assist in the education of those who are chosen to participate in negotiations.

#### **Implications for Further Study**

The legislature which enacted the Meet and Confer Law passed another law which may have played a complementary role in the salary gains received in the 1967-68 negotiations. The complementary law, which was entitled the Tax Reform and Relief Act of 1967, granted a reduction in taxes paid by owners of real estate and certain personal property. The reduction was made at a most opportune time for the revenue requirements of salary increases. Taxpayer resistance, which might normally be anticipated in the face of substantial increase, was blunted by the tax relief of the previous year. Requests or demands of teachers may meet greater resistance in the second year under Chapter 633.

This possible increase of taxpayer resistance coupled with the learning experience of the first year of negotiations promises to provide a more thorough test of the legal framework of Chapter 633. An evaluation made a year hence will have greater potential for validity.

**A MODEL FOR THE PREPARATION PROCESS  
PRIOR TO COLLECTIVE NEGOTIATIONS  
IN MINNESOTA SCHOOL SYSTEMS**

(An Unpublished Ed. D. Project)

University of Minnesota

June, 1969

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The basic theme throughout the study emphasizes the need for a positive approach to collective bargaining by school management. School management's primary responsibility is seen as the improvement or instruction. It is suggested in this study that school management must approach collective bargaining as a means by which instruction may be improved. This approach emphasizes the behavioral aspects of management and teacher-board relations.

A review of recent literature seems to indicate that school management has generally assumed a negative attitude toward the use of collective bargaining in education. Primary emphasis was placed on the defeat of legislation which would require school management to negotiate with teachers.

Negativism seems no longer appropriate for school management if it is to accept the responsibility for improving the educational effectiveness of the public schools. Management is effective only to the extent to which it can effect the attainment of organizational goals. Management's success may be measured by its ability to motivate its employees to work toward the successful attainment of these goals. A positive approach to collective bargaining would suggest that contracts resulting from negotiations should include provisions which will encourage employees to work toward the goals of the organization. Negotiations between teachers and boards of education must result in the improvement of instruction.

**PREPARING FOR NEGOTIATIONS**

The inclusion of teacher motivation as an objective in collective

bargaining widens the scope of the preparations that are necessary for contract negotiations. The preparation process has typically emphasized the collection of data to be used as a basis for logical arguments with respect to salary adjustments. This task is still of prime importance; but another task, one that deals with employee behavior, must be added.

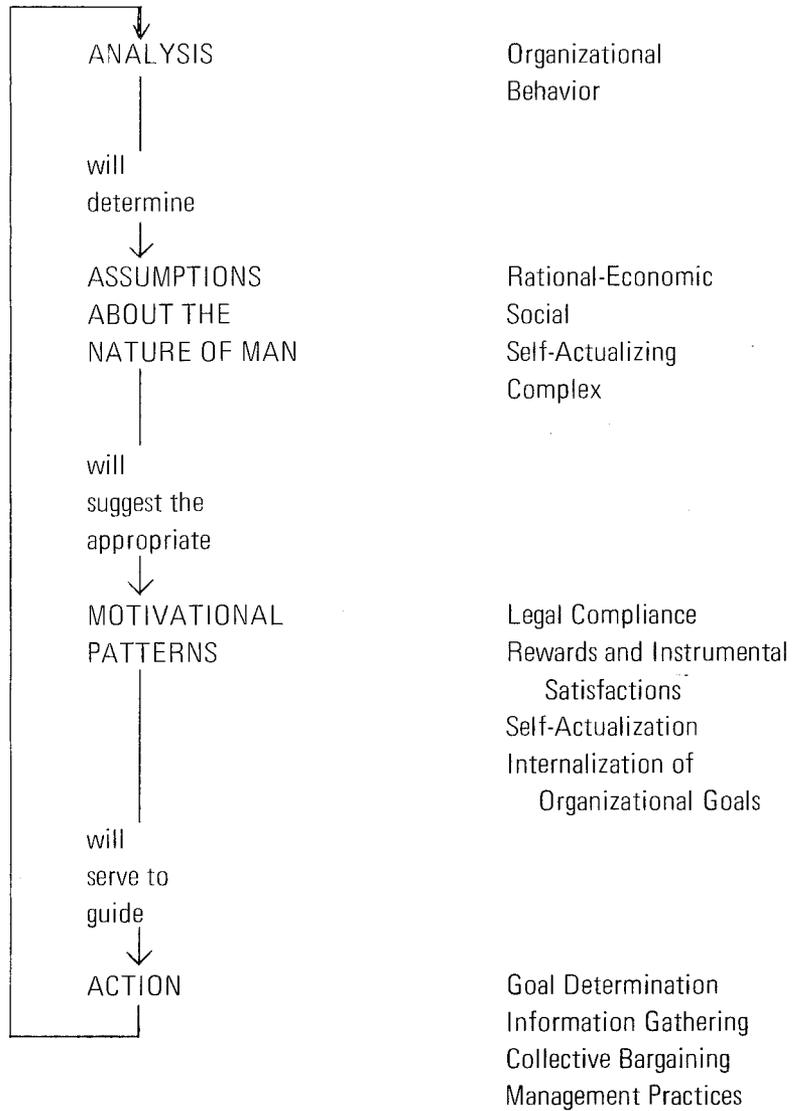
A behavioral approach to preparing for collective bargaining emphasized management practices. Preparation for collective bargaining in this instance may be described as the sum total of all actions which will affect the settlement made through the collective-bargaining process. Preparation for collective bargaining then must be considered as a continuous process.

#### **The Model**

The model for preparation for collective bargaining in education developed in this study is based on behavior and may be illustrated as follows: (on the next page)

- ✓ The model may be stated as follows:
  1. Preparation for collective bargaining should begin with an analysis of organizational behavior.
  2. Some assumptions must be made about the nature of man based on the analysis of organizational behavior.
  3. Patterns of motivation may be identified on the basis of the assumptions made about the nature of man.
  4. Preparation may be made for the purpose of determining a collective bargaining strategy which may result in a contract which will provide motivation toward more efficient teacher performance.
  5. Change due to the contract settlement and subsequent administration of the contract will necessitate a new analysis of organizational behavior in preparation for the next bargaining session.

## A MODEL FOR PREPARING FOR COLLECTIVE BARGAINING IN EDUCATION



The model demands that school management give careful thought to some assumptions that might be made with respect to teachers. It is necessary, then, to determine what teachers perceive their needs to be, and what types of general behavior pattern they follow. It seems reasonable to assume that all faculties will fit one of the theories of the nature of man; i.e., teachers may be categorized as rational-economic beings, social beings, self-actualizing beings or complex beings. The first step in implementing the model in a school district will be a thorough analysis of the behavior of the teachers in the system.

The second step in the model is one of identifying the motivational pattern most appropriate for achieving more effective performance. The assumptions that have been made about the teacher will provide the key to the identification of the most appropriate motivational pattern. The most appropriate motivational pattern for the "rational-economic" teacher will be control through legal compliance and motivation by financial reward. The motivational pattern most appropriate to the "social" teacher is the use of social rewards to motivate. Social rewards may be the result of subordinate-superordinate relationships or they may be gained from membership in the informal organization. The "self-actualizing" concept of the teacher suggests that the teacher may be motivated most effectively by the degree of satisfaction and the feeling of accomplishment he receives from the completion of his assigned task. Finally, if the teacher is assumed to be a complex being the motivational pattern becomes a complex pattern that may include a financial reward system, a social reward system and an opportunity for self-actualization. Probably one may assume that one of the elements may be of more general significance to the group than the others. However, it must also be realized that various teachers may have priorities that differ from the generalization at any point in time.

The third step in the model suggests that the method to be used in preparing for collective bargaining should be based on the motivational pattern chosen as most appropriate to the type of teacher to be motivated. The type of preparation suggested by the use of legal control and a financial reward system would probably emphasize the information or data gathering types of activities along with management practices based on strict supervision. When social rewards are considered as the most effective type of reward for the purpose of motivating the teacher, collective-bargaining and management practices become important to the process. Important social relationships may be established during the period when collective bargaining is in progress, and as a result of management practices. The management function and the collective bargaining process are also important considerations when self actualization becomes the primary motivational factor. Autonomy with respect to the completion of the task and joint decision making become important to the idea of self-actualization. In most school systems these factors must result from collective bargaining and must be implemented by management.

The model conceptualized preparation as a year-round process including information gathering activities, the collective bargaining process, and management practices. The model assumes that the preparation process, especially collective bargaining and management practices, will affect the behavior of the teachers and will in this way have some important implications for the next cycle of preparation.

#### IMPLICATIONS FOR SCHOOL MANAGEMENT

Perhaps the most important generalization that may be drawn from the model is the fact that preparation for collective bargaining must center around a definite goal. The model is based on the assumption that collective bargaining can result in a stronger educational program if both parties accept the improvement of instruction as a goal of the bargaining process.

The acknowledgement of the present organizational structure of the school district seems to suggest that school management has an obligation to facilitate and encourage the attainment of the school district's objectives. Inherent in the management function is legal control through formal organization. It is true that teachers may exert influence through the informal structure; but the fact remains that the organizational structure of school districts places operational authority in the people who hold administrative positions and ultimate authority in the board of education as representatives of the public. It then seems reasonable to assume that school management has the responsibility to encourage relationships between the various levels of authority which will facilitate organizational goal attainment. The model implies that school management must assume as its major responsibility the creation of a climate within which the goals of the organization may be achieved.

The model suggests that a major concern of preparation should be the encouragement of behavior necessary for the improvement of organizational efficiency. Preparation was described as a continuous process; that is, preparation is a sum-total of all actions that might affect the settlement that results from bargaining. Preparation cannot be considered as separate from the collective-bargaining process itself, nor can it be considered as separate from management practices. The relationships between the employee and the employer established during collective bargaining sessions will affect the relationship of these two parties prior to and during the next contract negotiation. The conclusion of the bargaining sessions does not automatically erase negative feelings of distrust or animosity; nor does it erase positive feelings of mutual trust and respect.

The same may be said for management practices. The climate that exists during collective bargaining is primarily the result of the relationships that have been established between labor and management during the entire year. When management becomes obsessed with the achievement of organizational goals to the extent that it does not consider individual needs, the end result will probably be conflict between the organization and the individual. It does not seem likely

that the teacher will be motivated toward the achievement of organizational goals in this instance. It is more likely that he will alienate himself either by leaving the system or by attempting to sabotage it.

The model implies that school management must be concerned with the needs of the teacher, and that preparation, as it is defined above, must identify these needs. Management must then choose and implement programs that will facilitate the satisfaction of these needs. This seems to suggest some further implications with respect to the preparation and professional development of administrators. If preparation for collective bargaining is to include a serious concern for the behavioral relationships inherent in the organization, then it would seem necessary that school management be exposed to a number of concepts that have emanated from the behavioral sciences.

The model also suggests that management should be prepared to agree to an extension of the scope of bargainable issues. The limitation of bargainable issues to those issues strictly defined as wages and conditions of work makes the model inoperable in most instances. If it can be assumed that the teacher has a nature that is rational-economic, then it is possible to manage within a limited scope of bargainable issues. But if man is considered to have a complex nature, then it is inconceivable that collective bargaining, under these limitations, can accomplish anything other than to create conflict and alienate the employee from the organization.

It would seem that school management must assume a positive posture with respect to preparation. That is it must consider its preparation activities in the light of educational goals as well as economic and political goals.

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Regularly                      Occasionally                      Seldom

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