

Dimensions of Newfoundland Society and Education

Volume II

Edited by

Amarjit Singh

Ishmael J. Baksh

Memorial University of Newfoundland

DIMENSIONS OF NEWFOUNDLAND SOCIETY AND EDUCATION

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Amarjit Singh
Faculty of Education

I.J. Baksh
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Faculty of Education
Memorial University of Newfoundland
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PREFACE

This anthology, the third in a series, consists of articles which have been published in The Morning Watch over the eight-year period 1982-1990 (i.e., Vol. 10, Nos. 1-2, 1982 to Vol. 18, Nos. 1-2, 1990). Vol. 11, Nos. 3-4, was never published. The first anthology appeared in 1977 under the title Society, Culture and Schooling: Issues and Analysis, and it contained most of the articles which originally appeared in various issues of The Morning Watch from 1973 to 1977. The second anthology was published in 1982 in two volumes, with the title Society and Education in Newfoundland, and contained articles that had appeared in The Morning Watch in the five years from 1977 to 1982 (i.e., Vol. 5, Nos. 1-2, 1977 to Vol. 9, Nos. 3-4, 1982).

A few words about the origin, history, purpose and orientation of The Morning Watch may be of some interest to readers. In this connection, we quote from the preface to Society and Education in Newfoundland.

Dr. W.J. Gushue, a former Head of the Department of Educational Foundations, was instrumental in helping with launching of The Morning Watch. Publication commenced in 1973 and has continued through the Committee on Publications, Faculty of Education, Memorial University, St. John's, Newfoundland.

Dr. Gushue, in introducing The Morning Watch to readers, remarked that "... The birth of The Morning Watch is explained by the somewhat rapid awakening of the Newfoundland consciousness. Indeed, that fact is reflected in the title of the journal, in that it is the Morning Watch that precedes a new day – a new and better era for Newfoundland and its people.

From the very beginning there has been no doubt in the minds of the editors that The Morning Watch exists in the main for the teachers of Newfoundland and Labrador...

Over the period of seventeen years, faculty members from various formal departments in the Faculty of Education and from other faculties of the University have written articles for The Morning Watch. Some submissions from people in schools in the province have also been published.

The orientation of this journal remains the same. It is stated as follows:

Social scientists and educators often use jargon and tedious language while commenting on the complex interaction among society, culture and schooling. The editorial policy of The Morning Watch has urged, and still urges, contributors to write with as much simplicity and clarity as possible without foregoing the 'respectable' level of sophistication required for social and cultural analysis. It was felt that there was need to introduce and explain to a specific audience in the province - students, teachers, supervisors, superintendents, members of school boards and the general public - some of the major social science concepts and perspectives that are often used in analyzing social, cultural, political, economic and educational problems and in formulating policies pertaining to such problems. How well each contributor has met such objectives is evident in

the articles included in this book. Also, by exposing her/his ideas, each individual writer has taken the risk of being critically evaluated by others. Hopefully, some of the ideas presented in the articles will initiate dialogue among students, teachers and others regarding pressing social and educational problems in the province and elsewhere. Readers are therefore invited to read these articles critically, to raise questions that are not raised in them and to develop perspectives of their own which may help them understand the larger problems associated with the survival of human beings in today's interdependent world and the relationship of such problems to the individual's everyday life-style wherever she/he might live. This larger perspective on education and society makes sense too as because Newfoundland Society and Culture are going through rapid transformation under the impact of economic and technological forces..."

Recently, some changes have taken place at both a micro and a macro level. At the micro level, for example, the Faculty of Education was re-organized, in September of this year, under the impact of the Hardy Report. Also, a new President, Dr. Arthur May, has been appointed at the University. At the macro level, the Hibernia deal was signed and the province is still waiting for the flow of oil from the off-shore oil deposits. Re-organization of fisheries and related issues are still being discussed. We still do not fully understand the implications of the death of the Meech Lake Accord for Canada and the province. Citizens need to understand fully the implications of the GST (Goods and Services Tax): How does it affect their individual lives? How does it affect the provincial economy? Should we, without any questioning, restructure our system of education within the framework of current economic thought? Or should there be some resistance? Lately, the denominational system of education has again come under critical scrutiny. Soon this province will have a report by the Royal Commission and Inquiry on the Delivery of Programs and Services in Primary, Elementary, and Secondary Education. Hopefully, the Commission will deal with questions such as: To what extent has our present denominational system of education contributed to the maintenance of moral capital? How far has the present system of education in Newfoundland effectively counteracted the corrosive effect of individualistic self-interest on the moral context of the community? It is hoped that many articles written in future for The Morning Watch will analyze the role of these new forces in the educational and social arena.

Amarjit Singh
Ishmael J. Baksh

St. John's
January, 1991

INTRODUCTION

This is a third anthology, containing articles from The Morning Watch during the period of 1982-1990. It has two volumes: Volume I consists of Parts I to VII, and Volume II contains Part VIII. In Volume I Parts I and II contain articles dealing with larger issues pertaining to Society and Education, issues such as: quality of education, relationship between research in educational and social change, denominational system of education and other similar issues. Part III, deals with the issue of Dropout as it relates to schooling in Newfoundland Society. In Part IV, the focus is on Language Studies. In Part V, issues related to Reading and Teaching Strategies are discussed and analyzed. Part VI covers material on Special Education. Part VII includes discussions on various other issues pertaining to schooling in our society. Finally, Part VIII, in Volume II, focuses on the Social Organization of The School. This part is divided into three sections: (a) The School, (b) The Teachers and Administrators in the School, and (c) The Students in the School.

Amarjit Singh
Ishmael J. Baksh

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

We wish to thank all the authors who have contributed to The Morning Watch since its inception in 1973, particularly those who have written for it more recently. We sincerely hope that others will also decide to contribute to The Morning Watch in future as our society and culture encounters oil-related and other changes. It is also obvious that the Morning Watch cannot exist without the backing of the Committee on Publications, Faculty of Education, Memorial University, and we are very grateful to the Committee for its support.

Finally, as we have already said, any work of this kind requires collaboration, cooperation, commitment in terms of time, energy and morale and, above all, the understanding of various people. We wish to thank all the previous Dean's of the Faculty of Education (Dr. George Hickman, Dr. George Ivany, Dean Brose Paddock and Dr. Leslie Karagianis) and the present Dean, Dr. Bob Crocker, for their generous support. We also extend thanks to the heads of the former departments in the Faculty, all of whom have been very encouraging and helpful in diverse ways. Special thanks are due to Bill Griffin, who designed the cover, to the Memorial University of Newfoundland Printing Services and to the staff in the General Office in the Education Building.

If there is any merit in this anthology, the credit is due to all these people. However, the editors bear the sole responsibility for any shortcomings which this anthology might have.

Amarjit Singh
Ishmael J. Baksh

PART VIII

SOCIAL ORGANIZATION OF THE SCHOOL

- A. The School
- B. The Teachers and Administrators in the School
- C. The Students' in the School

EQUALITY OF ACCESS TO POST-SECONDARY EDUCATION IN NEWFOUNDLAND AND LABRADOR

G.L. Parsons
Educational Administration

The Meaning of Equality of Access to Post-Secondary Education

Equality of access to postsecondary education means giving everyone in the Province a chance to develop his potential in knowledge and skills related to his considered interests and life work which he has considered through the secondary education process, and for which high school has qualified him. This means providing each and every student that is capable of profiting therefrom, an equal chance of access to those educational resources essential to the development of the knowledge and skills which he will need to apply to vocational, technical, commercial and aesthetic pursuits of living. Those resources will include the necessary space, facilities, teachers, and instructional technologies as well ensuring that the student's basic human needs are met so that he is unencumbered as he attempts to achieve his intellectual and developmental goals.

Some of the elements included in equality of access are:

- (a) participation in learning activities free of direct cost to the consumer up to the point of successful acquisition of the skills and knowledge necessary for him to lead a productive life in the world of work.
- (b) equality within a locality or region; for example, a person living on the St. Barbe coast having the same chance to pursue relevant educational training at the post-secondary level as a person living in Grand Falls or St. John's.
- (c) provision of diverse courses and programs appropriate to the student's career choice.
- (d) flexible admissions standards which, while guiding him into appropriate areas of learning, do not debar or reject him from an opportunity to develop the talents and abilities which he possesses.

Let it be noted that these opportunities for access to intellectual and vocational development must come relatively early in life, that is, as soon as possible after the student has successfully completed (in some form) a comprehensive high school program. Everyone today can appreciate the deleterious effect of placing enthusiastic students on a waiting list for a chance to enhance their knowledge and skills, only to find out much later there is no room or space in the school or college. In such cases students feel embittered and shortchanged.

Fortunately for our Canadian society and for Newfoundland in particular, there are forces promoting equality of access to postsecondary education. One force is the changing attitude towards the processes of learning and the nature of man as learner, that is, the flowering of a belief that all men possess potential talent and ability, the development of which can be addressed through our public educational system. Supportive of this attitude is the kindred belief that any concept can be taught in an intellectually honest fashion to any person, at any time, at any age, providing it is taught

in a manner and language that the learner can understand. George Bernard Shaw said the difference between a lady and a flower girl is not in how she behaves but in how she is treated. We have to provide different treatment for our students. Varying abilities call for varying treatment. The second force promoting equality of access is industrialization and its concomitant need for technological and industrial expertise. We are witnessing the impact of this factor right now in this province as we grapple with the problem of developing our hydro, forestry, and petroleum and fishery potential. Unfortunately, however, for this Province, we have never demanded a high level of education and technological expertise for most of our people engaged in what could be a very viable industry in this Province - that is, the fisheries. Our attitudes towards those involved in fishing must change. A third factor is the faith and belief that, provided with the necessary knowledge and skills, native people can develop and exercise control over their own resources. Finally, Canada Manpower training programs, although having their genesis in and based on the indigenous needs of Central Canada, have had (through federal funding) a tremendous impact upon post-secondary education throughout Canada. The task for this Province now is to evaluate these programs for the purpose of ascertaining how they can be restructured and revised to suit the specific manpower training needs of Newfoundland and Labrador.

However, in spite of these factors promoting equality of access, there are several factors which hinder and militate against equality of access. One of these is the high tolerance of educational inequalities both throughout Canada and within its various regions, especially within Newfoundland and Labrador. It would appear that this indifference or tolerance is based on lack of knowledge as to what is available throughout the country; but, whatever the reason, these inequalities need to be readdressed not in the sense of curtailment of services in those areas that already have them but rather in bringing the have-not areas up to a respectable level of achievement so that our youth can acquire the knowledge and skills necessary for them to lead productive and useful lives.

The second factor militating against equality of access in this Province has been the lack of a comprehensive, long-term plan for post-secondary education. With all the innovations of the fifties, the sixties, and the seventies impacting upon us, Newfoundlanders probably never had the time to develop the comprehensive plan that was, and is now, urgently needed. Finally, the disparity among Provinces in their ability to financially support the kind of post-secondary programs needed has left some Provinces with the urgent need to re-negotiate the sharing of Canadian resources to support viable worthwhile post-secondary programs. In this regard, it is high time for educational planners in this Province to take stock.

The Picture of Inequality of Access - Enrolments and Participation Rates

The participation rates in post-secondary education in this Province are the lowest among the ten Provinces. Only the Yukon and the North West Territories, with their predominance of native peoples with the attending problem of providing relevant secondary and post-secondary education, have lower participation rates. Whereas the proportion of youth involved in post-secondary education in Newfoundland and Labrador is barely half the Canadian average, the participation rate is barely one-third of that of the Provinces of Ontario and Quebec. The statistics are even more disconcerting when one considers the total participation rates in both secondary and post-secondary education in this Province as compared with total participation rates in Ontario. In that

Province not only is the percentage of the 16-29 age group participating in secondary education almost double the percentage of the same age group participating in secondary education in Newfoundland, but also, in addition, the percentage of the 16-35 age group participating in post-secondary education in Ontario is more than double the percentage of this age group participating in education in Newfoundland and Labrador. Not only is this terrible waste through undeveloped human resources in this Province to be deplored, but also a public demand should be created to ensure that steps are taken to correct these inequalities. Probably an investigation into the problem might reveal that enrolments in post-secondary education are static because the number of places and programs available are static and that, in spite of the aspirations and expectations of our young people for preparation for utilization of our resources, many of them really have nowhere to go.

Who Goes Where? Factors Related to Inequality of Access

In Newfoundland, research data indicate that besides students' perceived knowledge of available places, students' post-secondary plans are influenced by provincial regions, sex, fathers' occupations, parents' level of education and unemployment history, size of family, and other socioeconomic factors. The proportion of students from the Avalon Peninsula population proceeding to university is three times the proportion of the student population from outside the Avalon going to university. A relatively small proportion of the students on the Avalon Peninsula attend the college of Fisheries or the vocational schools as compared with the percentage of students outside the Avalon. Eighty per cent of students going to vocational schools are from rural areas, while two-thirds of students proceeding to University are from urban areas. Relatively few students from Labrador and the Burin Peninsula attend university, choosing instead to go either to vocational schools or enter the world of work without further preparation beyond Grade Eleven. Among the regions there are large variations in the proportion of students attempting to enter the labour force after high school graduation; in Labrador, for example, seventy per cent of the students from high school go directly to the labour market in search of jobs, while in the Gander-Bonavista-Grand Falls area only about one-quarter of the students take such a step. Districts in which parents of students had the lowest level of education had much lower participation rates at post-secondary schools than did districts with higher levels of parental education. Generally, during the late seventies over fifty per cent of the Grade Eleven students did not go on to post-secondary education of any kind. In the same period, around thirty per cent of the students sought employment without further education and training. Of the total high school population, over thirty per cent stated that they would not be going to post-secondary education of any type either now or later, either because they felt further education was inaccessible or they felt they must start "earning money now." Where students go is related not only to what places are accessible to them but also to their occupational aspirations and expectations.

The Aspirations and Expectations of High School Students in Newfoundland

An analysis of the aspirations (the occupations students desired) and expectations (those occupations they expected to obtain) of our Newfoundland Grade XI students showed the following:

ASPIRATIONS

Group I - Business and Professional - 52%
 Group II - Clerical sales, services, transportation - 21
 Group III - Craftsmen - 8%
 Group IV - Occupations related to fishing, logging, farming - 2%
 Other - Household, etc. - 17%

EXPECTATIONS

Group I - Business and professional - 38%
 Group II - Clerical sales, services, transportation - 22%
 Group III - Craftsmen - 9%
 Group IV - Occupations related to fishing, logging, farming - 14%
 Other - Household, etc. - 17%

The wide discrepancy between student occupational aspirations and expectations was explained, for the most part, by

- (a) students' perceived lack of opportunity to be accepted to their chosen post-secondary school to pursue studies related to their occupational aspirations;
- (b) their perceived difficulty in being able to go to a university to obtain a degree or to be accepted into the College of Trades and Technology;
- (c) their perceived sense of futility, especially on the part of female students, in seeking further education and training.

If students perceive that there are few opportunities for them to acquire the knowledge and skills necessary for them to pursue the occupations of their choices, and if shortage of places in such institutions as the College of Trades and Technology prevents students from acquiring those skills, then educational planners need to take action.

The Need for Post-Secondary Education and Training in Newfoundland and Labrador

From what is known of the educational and training levels of our workers, it would appear that, generally, the Newfoundland labour force is not well-equipped with the necessary knowledge and skills in this technological age to utilize fully and effectively our abundant resources. This phenomenon shows up dramatically in employment ratios in this Province. Statistics Canada shows that the working-age population (15+) has had since 1965 a 42% chance of being employed. This figure is substantially lower than for Canada as a whole. As one would expect, because employment in a technological age is dependent upon the acquisition of knowledge and skills relevant to the job, there is a very strong correlation between levels of education and employment ratios. Statistics Canada, again, reveals that a Newfoundlander with an elementary education has a 30% chance of employment; one who has successfully completed high school has a 54% chance, while the chances of a Newfoundlander with post-secondary education is over 75%. Of the Newfoundlanders presently unemployed, more than fifty per cent are between fifteen and twenty-four years of age, and the majority of these have never

participated in post-secondary education of any kind. If those young people had grown up in Ontario, there is a high probability that they would still be in school of some kind, either secondary or post-secondary.

The educational levels of the labour force in Newfoundland are considerably lower than for Canada as a whole. In this Province, thirty-five per cent have elementary educational levels, while for Canada the percentage is eighteen. Whereas in Newfoundland it is claimed that sixty-five per cent of the labour force have education beyond Grade nine, the figure for Canada is eighty-two per cent. While it can be argued that Newfoundlanders have enough education and training for the jobs they do perform, it can be reasoned and argued that the quality of their work would improve if they acquired, through secondary and post-secondary institutions, more knowledge and skills relevant to the industry in which they are involved.

The second need for post-secondary education is to train our people for those areas of employment where there is an excess demand for skilled workers such as in data processing, computer data entry, computer operations, word processing, nursing, physiotherapy, medical laboratory technology, electrical power transmission, navigation, marine technology, fish processing, etc. Whereas (according to the data), we do train an excess of welders, sheet metal workers, nursing assistants, rough carpenters and deck hands, our post-secondary institutions have barely touched on knowledge and skill development related to our own basic industries such as proper handling, processing and marketing of the produce from the sea. In these areas, students will have to learn to apply their knowledge of chemistry, biology, and other physical sciences to make Newfoundland sea products renowned in the markets of the world.

What Needs to be Done

First of all, we must establish a good basic, comprehensive high school program that will accommodate every student in this Province. Secondly, we must decide on what we expect post-secondary education to do for our people. Thirdly, we must take the initiative in developing programs that will give students the expertise to deal with our resources. Fourthly, we must convince our youth of the necessity to continue their education and training. Fifthly, we must expand all of our post-secondary institutions = the University, the College of Trades and Technology, the College of Fisheries, the nursing schools, and community colleges so that all of our qualified students seeking admission can be accepted. Finally, we need to coordinate the work of all the post-secondary institutions in the Province so that our students will be provided with the knowledge, skills and attitudes to prosper in their chosen field of work.

MANPOWER POLICIES FOR THE PROVINCE OF NEWFOUNDLAND AND LABRADOR IN THE EIGHTIES

Masudul A. Choudhury
Visiting Assistant Professor
Institute for Educational Research and Development

INTRODUCTION

The main objective of this paper is to develop certain active manpower policies for alleviating the structural form of unemployment in the Province of Newfoundland and Labrador in the eighties. We shall look at this topic in the context of a comprehensive manpower plan for the Province, where at present there exists none.

A comprehensive manpower plan would address itself to a coordinated participation of the federal and the provincial governments and the private sector in the areas of pre-employment training, counselling, on-the-job training, formal and vocational training, labour mobility, wage subsidy and labour market information. The primary objective of such a plan would be to improve sectoral growth potentials for achieving diversification in the resource based manufacturing sector, and to use this result for reducing the deficiency of demand and structural unemployment in the Province.

Manpower policies address themselves better to the goals of improving structural unemployment, as they relate to the supply side of the labour market. On the other hand, issues on improving the aggregate unemployment resulting from shortfall in the aggregate demand for goods and services are treated by the analysis of employment policies that look at the demand side of the labour market. For this reason we shall concentrate on manpower policies alone in this paper.

POLICIES FOR IMPROVING STRUCTURAL UNEMPLOYMENT IN THE PROVINCE OF NEWFOUNDLAND AND LABRADOR

Four areas of policy, as noted down below, are discussed in this paper. They centre around the key topics of job creation, pre-employment counselling and training, placement and labour market adaptation of target groups of workers.

1. Job Creation

Job creation programs have been traditionally guided by policies on pre-employment training; counselling to target groups of workers; post employment re-training and counselling for target groups of workers; creation of short run jobs having no direct relation to employment stability or labour productivity. Let us now look at these areas of policy in newer perspectives with regard to the Province of Newfoundland and Labrador.

The new perspective on job creation we recommend in this paper relates to a program of job creation both in the public and private sectors, preceded by pre-employment training and counselling, followed by on-the-job training and gram. The questions were:

- (a) How valuable was the professional year school experience in assisting you in your decision to continue in teacher education?
- (b) How valuable was the professional year school experience in helping you develop a realistic view of teaching?
- (c) How valuable was the professional year school experience in helping you gain new insights into primary/elementary schooling?
- (d) How valuable was the professional year school experience in helping you link theory with practice?
- (e) How do you rate the overall value of your professional year school experience?

Student perceptions were determined by their ratings of each item on a seven-point scale ranging from "of no value" to "extremely valuable". Table 1 is a composite of the responses provided to each of the foregoing questions. There was a high level of consistency among responses to all five of the questions. Students were generally positive about the value of the program although the ratings regarding the linking of theory to practice were lower than the other ratings.

2. Degree of Involvement during the School Placement

In the design of the professional year program, the Faculty of Education identified eighteen specific activities in which students could be involved during their school placement. For purposes of this study these activities have been grouped into three categories. Category one includes experiences in which observation is the main activity. Included in this category are such items as "observing different styles and methodologies of teaching", and "observing more than one grade level". Category two includes activities in which students acted as assistants or aides to cooperating teachers. Activities in this category necessitated more overt involvement on the part of students than did items in category one. Illustrative items in category two are "gathering and collating materials" and "reading pupil work". Category three encompasses those activities which required the most overt involvement on the part of students. All of these items involved taking responsibility for particular instructional tasks such as "tutoring individual pupils", "teaching small groups" and "teaching the whole class".

Students were asked two questions with regard to each of the eighteen activities, namely (a) the extent to which they would like to have been involved in the particular activity, and (b) the extent to which they were involved in that activity during their school placement. Responses regarding the degree of their preferred and actual involvement were indicated on a seven-point scale ranging from "not at all" to "extensively involved". The findings are presented in Table 2.

There are two issues of interest in Table 2. First, there is a statistically significant difference ($P < .001$) between student ratings of preferred involvement and their ratings of actual involvement on each of the three categories. It seems that the level of involvement in the school placement did not meet with student expectations. In each of the three categories identified, students indicated they desired a higher degree of involvement than they actually experienced and high levels of productivity in order to maximize their net profits and keep them competitive. They are also in a position to shift to capital intensive methods of production. Therefore, the arguments made in favour of

job creation do not seem to affect large employers. Even in the case of a 100 per cent wage subsidy for job creation, large firms may not like to take the benefit of employing target groups of workers and substitute for capital inputs, and in the presence of expanding plant and equipment maintenance an increased demand for goods and services may not necessarily lead the large firms to add in a secondary category of workers from target groups.

On the face of such problems with job creation, we recommend that a wage subsidy program be applied to small firms, and be supplemented or totally replaced by a levy/grant system in the case of large firms. A levy/grant system operates on a private sector pooled fund, jointly contributed by several firms in fixed proportions as required, the proceeds of which are used to subsidize job creation in firms that hire and train the target workers on-the-job. Because several large firms would be required to contribute to this fund, it would automatically provide incentives to them to use some of their own contributions towards job creation and in on-the job training rather than leave it to be used by other competing firms.

The effectiveness of a job creation program can be realized through proper training and counselling methods. To this topic we now turn.

3. Training and Counselling Aspects of Job Creation for Youth

The Provincial Task Force on Education¹ has recommended the introduction of Grade 12 in the Secondary School Level, which is to take effect from 1982, on grounds that this extra year of schooling would serve two purposes; it would serve as an extra year of training for those who will not continue on to the university. On the other hand, it would prepare the university going student for academic level studies and instruction at the university. It is desired that this additional year of schooling does not defer students from remaining in school. High levels of retention at the Grade 12 level are particularly desirable in the short and medium run. This would require sufficient attractiveness of the Grade 12 program to the continuing students. The attractiveness of the programs can be increased by introducing a range of courses that could prepare the student for a wide choice of occupations. Highly academic types of courses will not serve this purpose or favour retention at the Grade 12 level in the short run.

On this matter the Task Force on Education has appropriately recommended the introduction of career counselling and pre-vocational courses in the core program at Grade 12 level in the Province. However, effective career counselling and selection of pre-vocational courses require reliable labour market information, which can only be provided by the Provincial Department of Labour and Manpower. The Provincial Department of Education, School Boards as well as the Department of Labour and Manpower must, therefore, collaborate in developing suitable career counselling and pre-vocational courses.

In the area of pre-employment preparation, for students coming out of the Secondary and Post-Secondary systems we therefore recommend that, prior to graduation, students be given program related job experience in the public and private sectors, as a partial requirement for graduation. Such a program will be for those students, who cannot find curriculum related summer jobs in the final years of their graduation. Such jobs would be treated as part of the job creation package developed in cooperation with the federal government, provincial government and the private sector. The emphasis of such job creation programs would be in providing the right type of first

job experience to students before they enter the labour force for full-time jobs. The nature of these jobs could be program related workshop projects in the resource based industries, concentrating on developing basic technological and management know-how in these industries. It is hoped that such an arrangement could help in adapting the labour force to technological change in the resource based primary and manufacturing industries, the lack of which is found to be a source of structural imbalance in these sectors and in the related types of occupations.

In this area of labour market adaptation of target groups of workers, the female labour force deserves special attention. To this we now turn.

4. Job Creation for Women as Target Group in the Labour Force

Female labour force happens to be in a constant state of flux, as women continue to be on and off the labour force activity. Therefore, the number of hours worked by them tends to be lower than that for men. Consequently, women appear to be at a disadvantage in many occupations traditionally held by men, particularly in the primary and manufacturing occupations. In the Province of Newfoundland and Labrador women's share of employment in the woods product industry, the mineral products industry, metal and processing occupations, for example, is found to be low and declining. These peculiar characteristics of the female labour force make women hard to be hired.

The usual policies affecting the employment of women are well known to be: equal opportunities for women in jobs, equal pay for jobs of equal value, no discrimination in employment, and right of maternity leave. While implementing these legislations in the Province of Newfoundland and Labrador, however, care must be taken not to adversely affect the sectoral efficiency in production, for that would endanger a much needed priority for the Province, namely, to rapidly diversify her resource based manufacturing industry. To bring about a compromise between the goals of efficiency and equity in this context, we recommend that sectoral modes of production be suitably reorganized, so as to adapt themselves to the peculiar characteristics of the female labour force. This could be made possible by sustaining a secondary level of the labour force in certain lines of producing goods and services, while taking advantage of lower age cost and added productivity in the production of differentiated goods and services.⁷ This mode of production of differentiated goods and services will allow for increased number of part-time and shift work, that could evolve into permanent part-time jobs, thereby augmenting labour productivity in the long run. A production reorganization of this type would be labour intensive and cost-effective, for with lower wages for the target group a lower cost of production could be obtained, particularly in sectors hit by seasonality. Part-time jobs with prospects of augmented labour productivity over the long run could also give rise to substantial service occupation diversification within the resource based primary and secondary industries. This is highly desirable from the point of view of economic diversification in the Province of Newfoundland and Labrador.

SUMMARY OF POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS

We can now conclude this paper with a summary of our manpower policy recommendations for the Province of Newfoundland and Labrador in the eighties:

1. We recommend that the Provincial Government assume a more direct role in developing and implementing active manpower programs for target groups of workers, especially in the area of pre-employment training and counselling;
2. We recommend that job creation for target groups be of a long term stable nature, capable of creating long run labour productivity;
3. We recommend that job creation in both the public and private sectors be supplemented by on the job training;
4. We recommend that a secondary line of production of differentiated goods and services be created in various sectors of the economy in order to adapt to the skill levels of those in job creation programs;
5. We recommend that the Federal and Provincial Governments in their individual and joint capacities develop appropriate wage subsidy programs for small firms and levy/grant systems of financing for large firms in the area of job creation;
6. We recommend that the Provincial Departments of Manpower and Education, School Boards, Trades and Vocational schools keep close liaison with each other in developing sound career guidance at the Secondary School level;
7. We recommend that the Secondary and Post-Secondary educational programs include pre-graduation, program-related employment experience for students needing it;
8. We recommend that the Provincial Department of Labour and Manpower develop and maintain a reliable labour market information system for general clientele use.

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MANAGERIAL EFFECTIVENESS AND SEX ROLE STEREOTYPING

Arthur A. Ponder
Department of Educational Administration
Memorial University of Newfoundland

Michael J. Fagan
Department of Education
Province of Newfoundland and Labrador

Russ Blagdon
Principal, St. Thomas Elementary
English Harbour West

During the 1970's and early 1980's we have seen a dramatic shift in the demography of the teaching force in Newfoundland and Labrador. In terms of the total teaching population, an increase of some 33 percent occurred in the number of male teachers between the years 1972 and 1980, while the percentage of women increased by 5.3 percent during the same period. Similar figures hold for administrative personnel where, for example, the increase in male high school principals was 165 percent while the percentage of women has decreased 9 percent. In fact, the only area in which the percentage of women has outstripped that of their male counterparts is in the positions of supervisors/program co-ordinators (106.7 percent vs. 69.9 percent). However, it should be pointed out that this represented an increase of only 16 actual positions for women as opposed to 51 for men. Many reasons have been suggested for these well-documented trends. Fagan et al. (1981) advance one of the more popular:

Is it that women are seen as knowledgeable of subject matter but not capable of administration and management?

(Fagan et al., 1981: 31)

Explicit in such a comment is that somehow women are seen by senior board personnel as being less effective administrators than males occupying similar positions. As a consequence of this report, the authors decided to attempt to gain some hard data which could be applied to this particular issue.

Managerial Effectiveness

Managerial effectiveness is inextricably linked to the attainment of organizational goals. Hoy and Miskel (1978) have equated the two in suggesting that "leader effectiveness is the relative level of goal achievement" (p. 181). Effective managers, however, are not cloned from a single ideal prototype; in the case of goal attainment, more than one road leads to Rome.

There is a considerable amount of research evidence which suggests that managers who are task-oriented to the point whereby the human element of the organization is ignored are successful only in the short run. Likert (1967) has used composite research data to illustrate the effectiveness of cost-reduction programs under task-centred (System 1) and employee-centred (System 4) management. Under taskcentred management, production increases may last from two to three years, but, in the vast majority of cases, they will return to their former levels for a net increase of

zero. He has shown further that, as production increases, there is a concomitant decrease in positive attributes of the human organization: workers feel a great amount of unreasonable pressure; their attitudes toward management become less favourable; motivation decreases, and so on. Thus, increases in productivity represent a liquidation of the organization's human assets. An employee-centred approach to management usually results in production increases that are less dramatic, but long-lasting. Furthermore, the value of the human organization increases rather than decreases.

Likert's (1967) research findings do not support a laissez-faire approach to management. He found that, in the vast majority of cases, the most effective managers were those whose relationships with their workers were supportive, and who used group processes of decision making and supervision, but who also maintained high performance goals and used supportive relationships and group processes to create high performance goals in workers. Stogdill (1974) in a review of studies on managerial style and effectiveness, has noted as well that employee-centred management "does not necessarily imply a high degree of permissiveness" (p. 137). Thus, the employee-centred manager, while being considerate of workers, may maintain high performance standards at the same time.

Such findings have led researchers to the conclusion that task- and employee-orientations do not represent different ends of a continuum but, rather, they are two independent dimensions of leadership (Blake and Mouton, 1964; Hersey and Blanchard, 1972; Fleishman, 1973). Being high on one dimension does not preclude being high on the other. This was first suggested as a result of the Ohio State leadership studies. According to Hersey and Blanchard (1972):

The Ohio State leadership studies seem to conclude that the high consideration and initiating structure is theoretically the ideal or "best" leader behavior, while the style low on both dimensions is theoretically the "worst." (p. 77)

Stogdill (1974), in a review of studies focusing on productivity and worker satisfaction, came to the same conclusion: there is an interaction between consideration and structure, and the most effective leaders are described as being high on both scales. After reviewing studies in the educational setting, he has concluded that:

...when teachers and principals are described (as being) high in consideration and structure, their pupils tend to make higher scores on tests of school achievement. (p. 140)

The results of a more recent study are consistent with the generalization that good managers strike a balance between task- and employee-centred behaviors. Hall (1976) administered the Styles of Management Inventory to 1878 managers and the Management Appraisal Survey to their subordinates. He concluded that:

Good managers are deeply interested in both people and production (high task/ high relationship oriented...). They use an integrative style of management in which production goals and people's needs are equally important.

Average managers were pegged by their subordinates as high task/low relationship people, so preoccupied with getting the job done that they

often forget about the people who have to do it. Poor bosses employ a low task/low relationship style... (pp. 5354).

Fiedler (1967) has shown empirically that there is no peculiar mix of task- and employee-centred behaviors which works best in all situations but, rather, leader effectiveness is contingent upon such situational characteristics as how well the leader likes, and is liked by, group members, whether the task is structured or unstructured, and the amount of formal authority a leader possesses. Empirical evidence suggests that task-oriented leaders tend to be more effective in situations either highly favourable or highly unfavourable to him/her. Employee centred leaders are more effective in situations which are moderately favourable for the leader. Research on work groups is uniformly supportive of Fiedler's findings (Stogdill, 1974). Likert (1961, 1967) has also noted that, while it seems that an employee-centred style of management is more effective than a task-oriented style as a rule, there are exceptions to the rule. In a review of studies, Stogdill (1974) found 30 positive, 24 zero, and 7 negative relationships between employee centred management and production. He found 16 positive, 15 zero, and only 4 negative relationships between task-centred management and productivity. Thus, a lack of knowledge of situational factors precludes the making of any definite statements regarding the efficacy of either management style.

Hellrigel and Slocum (1976) have investigated the effect of leadership style on worker satisfaction in situations of varying task structure. They have reported that when tasks are highly structured, a task-oriented leader's style will likely be perceived by workers as redundant and excessive. Within this task structure, a leader who is employee centred is likely to have more satisfied employees than one who is task-centred. Where tasks are highly unstructured, a task-oriented leadership style is appropriate to the extent that it helps subordinates cope with task uncertainty and clarifies the paths leading to the goals are not clear-cut, and the tasks of an educator are not highly structured. However, there is less than a consensus on this point. Hicks and Gullett (1976), for example, have suggested that the propriety of a particular leadership style is contingent upon a group of factors that may be classified as forces in the subordinates: their need for independence; their knowledge and experience; whether or not they expect to share in the decision-making process; their tolerance for ambiguity; and soon. If we accept the premise that educators desire independence, are reasonably knowledgeable and experienced, expect to share in decision-making, and can tolerate ambiguity, the conclusion which logically follows is that they will be predisposed toward working with employee-centred supervisors.

Sex Differences

Quite apart from overall managerial effectiveness, the question of whether both men and women are perceived as being equally effective when demonstrating similar roles remains an open question. Researchers have spent considerable effort in its investigation. There is a general consensus in the literature that female principals are as effective as, or more effective than, male principals. Grobman and Hines (1956) have reported that female principals are more effective than male principals 18 percent of the time. In a major study conducted by Gross and Trask (1976) the authors found that, in schools administered by women, teacher performance and student achievement are higher on the average than in schools administered by men. In citing the results of other literature reviews, Adkison (1980) has noted that "the weight of behavioral evidence shows women to be more effective than men in the principalship" (p. 317). In reporting

the results of a comprehensive literature review, Fishel and Pottker (1973) have concluded:

..studies comparing men and women principals show that there is nothing to suggest that women do not make as competent principals as men and there actually have been many findings to suggest that in some ways, women make better administrators than men. (p. 387)

Quite often, theoreticians and researchers alike have decried the relatively small number of women in educational administration (see, for example, McLure and McLure, 1974; Musella, 1974; Fagan et al., 1981). Studies done by Schein (1973, 1975) provide some clues as to why males seem to be preferred for administrative positions. She had 300 middle-line male managers identify the characteristics associated with managers in general, men in general, and women in general. Results of the study confirmed her hypothesis that managers are perceived to possess characteristics more commonly ascribed to men than to women. The same hypothesis was supported in a later study involving female managers. These studies were replicated by Massengill and DiMarco (1979) who found similar but stronger relationships.

A relevant question concerning female administrators is whether or not they are predisposed toward using a particular management style. Kobayashi (1974), in a study of the organizational climate of elementary schools administered by male and female principals, concluded that there was no significant difference between males and females with respect to being employee-centred, but females were more task-oriented. Morsink (1970), in a study of 15 male and 15 female principals, had 159 females and 169 males complete the LBDQ (Fiedler, 1974). The leader behavior of male principals was perceived by 167 teachers and that of female principals was perceived by 161. Both males and females perceived female principals as being more task-centred than males principals. Females were also rated higher on consideration than males, but, in this instance, differences were not statistically significant. Helmich (1974), in a study of male and female company presidents, has reported similar findings: male managers are more employee centred than their female counterparts, and female managers are more task-centred than male managers. Bartol and Butterfield (1976) have reported opposite findings. They found female managers to be more employee-centred than male managers, and male managers to be higher on task. Similarly, Grobman and Hines (1956) found that female principals employed democratic leadership behaviors 22 percent more often than male principals did. The Schein studies (1973, 1975) suggest that female administrators may be expected to be more employee-centred than males in that employee-centred behaviors were more commonly ascribed to women in general than to men in general. In a comprehensive review of behavioral studies, Fishel and Pottker (1975) have cited six studies which suggest that female administrators are high on both task-centred and employee-centred behaviors. Wexley and Hunt (1974) and Chapman (1975) have reported no sex-related differences in management style. These varied and often conflicting findings seem to suggest, then, that no broad general statement can be made regarding a dominant leadership style for females except, perhaps, that no such style appears to exist.

Hersey and Blanchard (1972) have pointed out that recent research has revealed that a dominant leadership style per se does not exist, either amongst females or males. This is understandable since a fair amount of research evidence suggests that no particular style is best in all situations. A legitimate question that arises, however, is whether or not, in the absence of knowledge of situational variables, top-line managers

prefer that their middle-line managers adopt a particular leadership style. A second question arising out of this one is whether or not the sex of either the top- or middle-level managers affects the appropriateness of a particular middle-level management style as perceived by top-level managers. In the study that follows, these two questions are investigated. Although all respondents involved in the study are not top level manager per se, they are all in leadership positions in education.

Method

The study, a survey questionnaire, was sent to all board-level personnel, including superintendents, assistant superintendents, supervisors, and program co-ordinators, in Newfoundland and Labrador. The instrument presented profiles of two hypothetical high school principals. The first described a principal who, in addition to being task-oriented, functioned along the lines of Libert's (1961, 1967) system 1 and 2, that is, a more authoritarian approach to school management. The second, although equally task-oriented, operated along the lines of Libert's systems 3 and 4, a much more clearly 'human resources,' democratic approach to school administration. The questionnaire then presented respondents with two distinctly different approaches to high school management. Respondents were asked to give estimates of the likely effectiveness of each of the principals on a six-point scale ranging from 1- (is not demonstrating suitability for administration) to 6- (demonstrates an unusually high level of professional skill).

In order to address the issue of possible sex bias, respondents were divided on the basis of sex. Half of each group received questionnaires in which each of the high school principals was designated as male, the other in which the principals were designated as female.

Results

Multiple linear regression was used to analyze the nature of the relationship between the set of independent variables this paper describes and the administrator's rating of the principals. The two variables, SEX - PRINCIPAL and SEX - ADMINISTRATOR, were set up as "dummy variables" so that they could be entered into a regular regression equation.

The variable SEX - MATCH/ MISMATCH was formed by combining the scores on the two variables, SEX - PRINCIPAL and SEX - ADMINISTRATOR. If a case's score on both these variables was the same, then that case received a score of 1 on the new variable SEX - MATCH/MISMATCH; if a case's score on both these variables was not the same, then a score of 0 was assigned. This new variable, then, was also in the form of a "dummy variable."

In order to help separate the effects of sex and management style, the three sex variables were brought into the regression equation first. The variance in administrators' ratings that was associated with the variance in the sex variables was removed before management style was entered.

The results of the regression analysis are reported in Table 1. As this Table indicates, the sex variables are not significant and do not explain any of the variance

TABLE 1
REGRESSION OF MANAGEMENT STYLE AND SEX ON
ADMINISTRATORS' RATING OF PRINCIPALS

Explanatory Variables	Beta Coefficient	R² Change	F	Significance Level
Sex - Administrator	-.0211	.0003	0.175	N.S.*
Sex - Principal	-.0202	.00020	.179	N.S.
Sex Match/Mismatch	.0033	.00020	.002	N.S.
Management Style	-.3164	.1001	39.519	p<.001

*N.S. - Not Significant

in administrators' ratings. Management style, however, is a highly significant indicator or predictor of administrators' ratings, explaining 10 percent of the variance.

Discussion

The clear preference for human resources management seems reasonable, especially among organizations where professional skills are at a premium. However, the lack of any apparent sex bias raises a number of important issues.

Traditionally, one of the explanations for the lack of women in senior administrative positions has been that they were deemed to be less effective. This research does not support that view. Thus, it becomes necessary to entertain alternate explanations.

First, many women have tended to interrupt their teaching careers either to have families or for some other reason. Thus, they have less seniority, on average, than their male counterparts. At the same time, they tend to have lower qualifications as well.

One of the arguments used to explain why women do not get administrative or consulting positions is that they do not have equivalent educational qualifications to men in the profession. To a certain extent this is true...

(Fagan et al, 1981:31)

In fact, women in board positions have, on average, half a year's less formal schooling than males, a figure representative of the teaching force as a whole. Since two important criteria for senior administrative posts are qualifications and seniority, these factors must necessarily militate against women.

Secondly, declining enrollments have tended to stabilize the teaching force, with little movement between or within boards. Thus, opportunities for women to secure senior administrative posts have also diminished.

Another possibility, and one not addressed in this study, is the possibility of sex bias in hiring. That is, are men thought, for whatever reason, to "need" the job more than women who may, in some instances, provide a second income for the family? Finally, Newfoundland has traditionally been a male-dominant society. Thus, it may be that some form of socialization process has taken place which makes it inappropriate for women to apply for senior administrative positions. Certainly there has been a dramatic increase in the percentage of women enrolled in, for example, graduate programs in educational administration at Memorial University. However, their actual numbers remain small.

What this study does suggest is that the decline in women holding senior administrative posts is not attributable to a single factor, such as their perceived effectiveness in these positions. Rather, it appears to be a potentially complex, multifaceted phenomenon requiring careful analysis and remedial action.

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OUR SCHOOL: PARENT PERCEPTIONS

B.J. Croskery
Coordinating Principal St. James' Regional High School
Port aux Basques

This paper summarizes the findings of the third stage of an attempt to determine various perceptions of our school, St. James' Regional High School in Port aux Basques. Previous stages of the project, reported in earlier issues of *The Morning Watch*, focused on the perceptions of teachers (vol. 10, numbers 1-2) and students (vol. 10, numbers 3-4). The final stage was aimed at the parents of our students.

The Instrument

The chosen instrument for tapping parent perceptions was the Parent Opinion Inventory (1981) of the National Study of School Evaluation. The inventory was designed to accomplish three major goals:

1. To assess parents' attitudes in reference to their school and its programs.
2. To provide parents an opportunity to make specific recommendations for improvement.
3. To provide valuable data for school personnel in the decision making process relative to program development, policy formulation, administrative organization, faculty development, and community relations.

Part A of the inventory is comprised of fifty three fixed response items. These items were numerically scored on a scale ranging from five (very satisfied) to one (very dissatisfied). Subscale means were also computed for eleven distinct areas of the school's life. Coefficient alpha reliability of internal consistency for Part A is .91. Part B of the inventory invited free response to five open-ended questions. Part B responses were classified in percentage terms, with reference to major and minor categories.

The original intent was to sample the entire population of three hundred and sixty three. Only one hundred and forty two inventories were returned, however. This is a response rate of only 39.12%. The low rate of return was a source of considerable concern since it almost certainly had a deleterious effect on the reliability of the research. Follow up work to stimulate a higher return was desirable but, for all practical purposes, impossible. School-based research, such as we have been advocating, labours under enormous time constraints and it constitutes only one of many pressures on teachers and administrators. It is worth noting that the writer assigned priority to a recent government request for follow up work to improve the return rate on a dropout study. This follow up required a personal telephone call to about twenty students who had failed to return their forms as requested. How ironic it is that a principal must assign priority to somebody else's research when he cannot adequately follow up his own!

SUBSCALE	ITEM #'s	MEAN
Intra-student body relationships	1-2	3.45
School information services	3-4	3.45
Parent involvement	5-7	3.18
Educational objectives	8-18	3.57
Intra-school problems	19-26	3.09
School program factors	27-33	3.49
Innovative programs	34-35	3.50
Student activities	36-39	3.53
Support services	40-42	3.47
Auxiliary services	43-53	3.14
General psychological climate	47-53	3.61

Results

Part A: fixed response items

Part A responses are reported in terms of subscale means (see chart).

The mean for Part A was 3.41, indicating a moderate positive response from the parents. Further analysis of the subscales is illuminating. As a preface to this analysis, it is worth recording that significant numbers of parents had no opinion on most issues. In percentage terms each item elicited an average of 21.5% of the total response in the 'no opinion' category.

The first subscale (intra-student body relationships) revealed moderate satisfaction with interpersonal relationships. Only small numbers of parents responded negatively to each item.

Item 2: Most students and teachers in our school maintain good working relationships.

9 Strongly agree
89 Agree
19 No opinion
19 Disagree
3 Strongly disagree

The second subscale (school information services) elicited a similar response to the former subscale. Item 4 on this subscale warrants further attention:

7 Strongly agree
79 Agree
5 No opinion
41 Disagree
9 Strongly disagree

Significant numbers of parents clearly feel that the school fails to inform them about educational practices. This is a very perplexing response in view of the school's conscious efforts to make its practices known. Our school produces a full page report for

the local newspaper on a weekly basis. A weekly school report on local radio details school events. Parents' evenings are held twice yearly. The home is contacted by telephone every time a student is absent. Parents are invited to school assemblies. The staff are freely available at any time for personal contact with parents. A recent, well-advertised, parents' evening drew only five parents.

The parent involvement subscale reinforces the view that parents feel neglected in the operation of our school:

Item 6: Our community is actively involved in operating the school.

5 Strongly agree
47 Agree
19 No opinion
60 Disagree
9 Strongly disagree

There is clearly a problem here. Our school is trying hard to involve parents, yet they feel neglected. Traditional forms for promoting parental involvement have been less than successful. Other avenues must be developed to ensure that parental involvement is fostered and sustained.

Most parents clearly felt that our school was meeting its obligations in the area of educational objectives. In fact only one other subscale scored higher than this one. The eleven items on this subscale covered a range of objectives which included areas of social and ethical concern, cultural issues, basic skills, and adequacy of preparation for post secondary education. The following item tapped parents' perceptions of our school's success in citizenship preparation:

Item 9: Our school is helping to teach children to be responsible citizens.

17 Strongly agree
89 Agree
8 No opinion
19 Disagree
6 Strongly disagree

Item 11 produced the highest score on the inventory. The unusually high score was both gratifying and moderately surprising - even warranting a careful review of the statistics.

Item 11: Our school is doing a good job in teaching children the basic skills. (math., science, reading)

23 Strongly agree
104 Agree
8 No opinion
6 Disagree
2 Strongly disagree

The subscale on intra-school problems contained items on discipline, drugs, theft, cheating, vandalism, and absenteeism. Here, the subscale mean was a rather lukewarm

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3.09. Concern was expressed in the form of negative responses to the items on drugs (2.58), theft (2.93), cheating (2.80), and student absenteeism (2.86). Perhaps as a result of these perceptions, parents came out quite strongly in favour of firmer discipline:

Item 19: Discipline in our school should be more strict.

44 Strongly agree
50 Agree
23 No opinion
10 Disagree
13 Strongly disagree

The subscale on school program factors included items on general goals, teacher competency and style, evaluation, course offerings, and scheduling. Here, again, the subscale evoked a moderately positive response, as indicated by a subscale mean of 3.49. Most parents felt that the school was offering a worthwhile educational experience, an experience in which competent teachers were attempting to fully develop each student. Items 28 and 29 reflect these sentiments:

Item 28: Our school is doing a good job of providing children with the opportunity to reach full potential.

9 Strongly agree
91 Agree
20 No opinion
18 Disagree
2 Strongly disagree

With respect to the pace of innovation, parents expressed a fair degree of satisfaction. Item 34, with a mean score of 3.40, reflects this stance:

Item 54: The amount or extent of educational change or innovation in our school is about right.

1 Strongly agree
65 Agree
57 No opinion
11 Disagree
1 Strongly disagree

The response to this item is interesting in view of the evident parental restraint displayed at a time of profound restructuring of the provincial senior high school program. This restructuring has clearly not alarmed parents of our students.

The student activities subscale elicited a positive response from most parents. The scope of student activities (item 36), their potential for social development (item 37), and the opportunities for student participation (item 39) were all items which drew very little negative response from parents.

In the area of support services, similar sentiments were expressed, with a resulting subscale mean of 3.47 and favourable responses to the items on guidance (3.80), health (3.30), and library activity (3.32). The school's auxiliary services of

transportation, cafeteria and maintenance were comparably perceived by parents, the subscale rating a slightly lower mean thanks to two provocative items on the school's cafeteria.

Item 45: Our school's lunch program offers a nutritional menu.

4 Strongly agree
 17 Agree
 61 No opinion
 27 Disagree
 21 Strongly disagree

It is easy to see how the response to item 45 could fuel cynicism in view of the fact that our school cafeteria has been closed for three years!

The final subscale on Part A concerned the general psychological climate of the school. The mean for this subscale was the highest of all at 3.61. Negative responses on this subscale were minimal for each of the seven items, with the average negative response amounting to 15.39% of the total response. Items 47 and 48, dealing with student interest and morale, scored 3.30 and 3.65 respectively. Items 49 and 50, pertaining to the accessibility of teachers and administrators scored 3.89 and 3.91. Items 51 and 52, on the individualization and personalisation of instruction, scored 3.47 and 3.38. The final item, which scored 3.69, expressed general satisfaction with school rules and regulations.

Part B: Free Response Items

There were five free response items on the inventory. With respect to these items, the response rate is significant. It should first be noted that the response rate for the inventory as a whole was only 39.12%. Secondly, it is not without significance that, of the returned inventories, only 59.86% of respondents completed more than two questions on Part B. Over 40% of the respondents completed two items or less from Part B - in fact many respondents returned blank inventories for the free response items.

Item 1: What do you think our school should be trying to do?

On this item 47% chose not to respond. Of those who did respond, views were almost equally divided between those (17%) who advocated preparing students for future employment and education and those (15%) who believed that school should develop the total child. This is an interesting finding since it supports the findings of Crocker and Riggs (1979) from the Public Opinion Questionnaire' which formed part of their final report of the Task Force on Education:

It was suggested that the two most important purposes which the schools should serve as 'to train a person for a job' and 'to prepare a person to cope with life'.

Item 2: What do you expect your child to do when finished with this school?

There was no response from 25% of those who returned inventories. Of those who did respond, 39% expressed the view that students should be able to pursue further

study (at various institutions) on completing school. A further 18% of respondents expected students to be able to find a good job after completing school. Here we have further support for the findings of Crocker and Riggs (1979).

Item 3: If you could change what was being taught at our school, what would you change?

On this item a massive 65% chose not to respond. Those who did respond to this item frequently commented on the curriculum in terms of perceived immediate utility. The majority of responses (24%) pointed out the need for changes in the course offerings. In this response category over one third of the respondents listed religion as a subject which should be eliminated from school. The following response was typical of this group:

'Religion should be left to parents to decide.' Other subjects singled out for elimination were history and physical education. Those who did respond to this question overwhelmingly felt that unless a subject had some immediate and very distinctive contribution to make to a student's employment prospects, it should be eliminated from the curriculum:

'I don't think history should be taught. They need to learn about the future not the past.'

Item 4: If you were asked to list the major problems existing in our school, what would they be?

Here only 34% of parents chose not to respond. Those who did respond were overwhelmingly concerned with specific interpersonal and personal issue. The need for more respect and for more amicability was a common response, with over 25% of the replies singling out these qualities as problem areas of the school's life. A further group of responses (12%) identified problems with drugs, alcohol and smoking. Finally, one group of responses (9%) identified the absence of firm discipline as a major problem in school.

Item 5: This school would be better if...

This item drew a very wide range of responses from parents, although 49% did not respond at all. No single category of responses dominated the group but several suggestions were frequently put forward. Among the most common suggestions were '...students were better motivated and more respectful' (10%), '...the curriculum were modified' (10%), and '...discipline was firmer' (7%). Significantly, a number of responses (5%) suggested that the school would be better if 'parents were better informed about the school system and encouraged to participate in the planning of their child's future'.

Summary

Three major points deserve special emphasis:

1. The extremely low response rate warrants careful consideration. The low response almost certainly stems from a number of factors. Among these

factors, weak follow up has been identified as a feature of this study. It is tempting to speculate that parental lack of interest and lack of knowledge constitute other factors in the low response rate. With respect to lack of interest, how many of the 60.88% who failed to respond remained silent because they lacked interest? With respect to lack of knowledge, the Teacher Opinion Inventory clearly pinpointed serious grounds for concern in this area. Support for this concern is evident in the large percentage of incomplete returns on the Parent Inventory.

2. Those parents who did respond were generally quite satisfied with the work of the school. The mean of 3.49 for Part A bears witness to this fact. Particular satisfaction was expressed in the area of educational objectives, where only eight respondents felt that the school was not doing a good job teaching basic skills. The item mean score for item 11 was a very high 4.04.
3. A number of parents expressed concern for more information and input into the school's life. Items 4, 5 and 6 on Part A scored only 3.24, 3.17 and 2.85 respectively. As indicated above, these perceptions are extremely frustrating for an administrator who already feels that every attempt is being made to inform parents and solicit their input into the life of the school. How many schools in the province have formally given every parent the opportunity to criticize and suggest improvements through a very detailed inventory? Perhaps the school's style of relating to parents needs further scrutiny. If this is the case, that scrutiny will be applied.

Post Script

A few comments on our project might serve as reflections on its utility and worth. Those contemplating further study in this area might profit from our insights and mistakes.

1. Reflections on the task completed

School-based research of this nature is extremely time-consuming. Very little of this project was undertaken during school hours. Data analysis and writing up both took place after school, on weekends, and during holidays. This is not the kind of project for the faint hearted or for those lacking in stamina. Neither is research like this for the thin-skinned. The principal who invited constructive criticism must be prepared to take everything thrown at him, sift it carefully, weigh it and respond appropriately. Sometimes it is difficult to accept comments like the following:

'Our school would be better if the principle at the school would take the time to talk to the pupil instead of just sending them home. A lot of parents were talking about this. I think that your principle should pull up his socks.'

Whether we like these comments or not, we cannot afford to ignore them.

Was the project worthwhile? The only answer can be a resounding 'Yes!': Careful scrutiny of the perceptions of teachers, parents and students is a sine qua non of successful administration. Only by understanding existing perceptions can we fully

grasp the reality of things as they are and fully face the challenge of transforming those perceptions into what they might become.

2. Reflections on the task ahead

A major project of this nature would be somewhat incestuous if it failed to produce positive results in the ongoing life of the school. Responses have already been made to some suggestions from the inventories. Further responses must follow, particularly where our findings reveal discrepant versions of reality. One major result of our project has been the confirmation of the teachers' perception that parents are lacking in knowledge about our school. Our response must be prudent but active if we are to involve parents in the way that some have requested.

A less overt, but no less important, result of our labour has been the discovery of a large reservoir of goodwill on all sides for the performance of our school. Teachers, students and parents demonstrate remarkable homogeneity in their general approval of the ethos of our school. Armed with this knowledge, the extent and pacing of needed innovation become less uncertain. In this light change becomes prudent and purposeful rather than rash and mindless.

3. A reflection on school-based research and development

If Stenhouse (1975) is correct in his advocacy of school-based curriculum research and development, then more time must be provided for it. Moreover, appropriate organizational structures ought to be fostered for the pursuit of such research. The idea of school-based research needs rehabilitating as a healthy alternative to current infatuation with the hand-me-down R.D. and D. models currently favoured by the Department of Education. Am I expected to subscribe to the view that the Department would prefer me to busy myself with janitorial orders for cleaning supplies at the expense of clinically assessing where my school is in order that I might guide it to where I think it ought to be? Perhaps I am being cynical in thinking that the former activity is my rightful domain.

4. A word of thanks

This project would be incomplete without thanking the teachers of our school, who so readily participated in data gathering and scoring, the Port aux Basques Integrated School Board which granted permission for the project, Mr. N.J. Kettle who, as superintendent, provided so much encouragement and, finally, every individual who took the time to complete an inventory. Special thanks are also due to Dr. Ishmael Baksh, co-editor of *The Morning Watch*, for agreeing to publish our findings.

Notes

1. The Public Opinion Questionnaire constituted part of the report of the Task Force on Education (1979)... pps. 20-23.

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HOW TIME IS USED IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CLASSROOMS

Robert K. Crocker
Institute for Educational Research and Development

The allocation and use of time is obviously an important feature of classroom life. For administrators, time is one of the major variables to be manipulated in organizing the school program. Teachers must function within the constraints of an overall schedule but, nevertheless, must make many important decisions on the use of time in the classroom. Students are under even greater time constraints, but can still exert considerable control over attending to task and pace of work. Many of the boundaries of school and classroom life are determined by time. Opening and closing of school occur at fixed times. Transportation schedules are ever present constraints. Class periods are normally of fixed length. Certain subjects demand particular time allocations. Many events occur to disrupt even the most careful plans for time use. In short, many of the events of a school are governed by the time framework.

Much of the research on time use in the classroom has been based on variations of Carroll's (1963) model, which postulates that learning is a function of the ratio of time spent to time needed to attain a particular level of performance. The primary concern of such research has been with the relationship between time use and achievement. However, time may also be used as an important variable in describing how classrooms function, in attempting to understand the constraints under which classrooms operate, and in examining the kinds of decisions and judgments made by teachers. This article looks at time from these perspectives, using data from an intensive study of second and fifth grade classrooms in Newfoundland.' Further information derived from interviews with teachers is used to help explain why certain kinds of time decisions are made.

Sampling and Data Collection

The data on time were gathered as part of a much broader study of teacher perceptions, classroom processes, and outcomes.' The general aim of the broader study was to contribute to the understanding of classroom functioning and of factors which determine classroom events.

The sample consisted of 36 second grade and 39 fifth grade classrooms located in a variety of rural and urban settings in Eastern Newfoundland. Schools were first selected randomly from a population of some 200 primary and elementary schools in the region. With a few exceptions, one teacher at each grade level was then selected in each school. A few teachers had to be replaced because of transfers and other moves occurring in the intervening summer between sample selection and data collection. However, there was almost no loss because of teachers declining to participate. Participating teachers can thus be considered to be representative of the total population of teachers in the region.

The data on which this report is based came from three sources. First, a teacher questionnaire was used to gather data on length of school day, time allocations to subjects, and other demands on teacher time. A wide ranging interview was also conducted with each teacher, part of which involved teacher elaboration and explanation on time allocations. Finally, each classroom was observed on about 20 occasions of about 90 minutes each, distributed over a complete school year. Trained observers used

a broadly based category system to gather data on teacher and student behaviors and on global features of the lesson being taught. Observations were made at about 30 second intervals, and these observations aggregated over a complete lesson to give estimates of total time spent at various activities.

Length of School Day and Allocations to Subjects

This section examines overall time allocations, including length of the school day, allocations to subjects, teacher use of time outside regular class hours, and homework. These features not only provide the framework within which more detailed classroom events occur, but also give insights into the nature of the time decisions made by teachers.

The average length of the school day, as reported by teachers, was 258 minutes for grade 2 and 283 minutes for grade 5. These figures correspond almost exactly to the statutory requirement for these grades, allowing for a 15 minute recess period. Since the statutory requirement establishes a minimum length of school day, it is not surprising that some schools were found to have longer days than required. What is surprising is that some teachers reported school days as much as 30-40 minutes shorter than the statutory requirement. Even allowing for differences in interpretation of exactly when the school day starts and ends, it is clear that differences of as much as one hour per day occur in the length of the school day.

Data on time allocations to the various subjects, in minutes per week, are reported in Table 1. A number of general features of these data are worth noting. First, the average school week, found by totalling the subject allocations (allowing for the fact that not all subjects are taught in all classes) corresponds almost exactly to five times the school day as reported above. This helps confirm the accuracy of the reports of length of school day. Second, while not all subjects are taught in all classes, a large proportion of the classes are exposed to a fairly broad range of subjects. The notable exceptions are French and social studies in grade 2 and family life in both grades. Remedial reading also appears in a small number of classes, but this is likely a function of perceived need for remediation and availability of specialist teachers. It is interesting to note that music and physical education occur in almost all classes, although these subjects are generally thought to require specialist teachers and special facilities. Indeed, as other data from the study suggest, physical education and music teachers seemed to be generally available in the schools.

Table I
Distribution of Time on Subjects*

Subject	Grade Two			Grade Five		
	No. of Classes	Mean	Range	No. of Classes	Mean	Range
Art	32	62	20-180	28	50	30-120
Family Life	20	83	15-150	12	49	10-120
French	8	59	25-100	26	91	45-200
Health	30	54	25--90	27	75	30-120
Language Arts	34	253	125-400	36	269	90-500
Library	28	38	20--70	30	49	30--90
Mathematics	36	202	100-320	37	251	150-450
Music	36	57	30-100	36	60	30-120
Physical Educ.	33	48	30--90	35	67	30-180
Reading	32	348	150-540	34	253	150-425
Religious Educ.	35	110	20-210	34	110	30-175
Remedial Read.	6	106	50-210	10	200	120-375
Science	34	67	30-210	35	90	10-160
Social Studies	16	59	30-100	36	163	90-320
Other	2	120	90-150	6	83	30-200
Total	36	1252	-----	39	1403	-----

*All times are minutes per week.

The two most striking features of the data are the extreme range of variation in allocations to specific subjects, and the relatively small allocations to subjects other than language arts/reading and mathematics. The interview data indicate that teachers considered themselves to be largely in control of the timetable (with the exception of subjects taught by specialists). The timetable data thus suggest that the range of subjects to which students, and the specific times allocated to each subject, are largely a function of teacher perceptions of the relative importance of subjects. It is quite clear that teachers consider language arts/reading and mathematics to be of overriding importance at both grade levels. This point is reinforced by the observation data which indicate that, in fact, teachers spend more time at these subjects, and less time at other subjects, than that allocated in the timetable. Similarly, a number of teachers reported in interviews that they took time from the other subjects to gain time for the major subject areas.

Although language arts/reading and mathematics occupy the largest proportion of time in all classes, the range of variation is considerable, even in these subjects. Within the constraint of the overall school day, it is clear that different teachers make widely different choices about time allocations.

Observed Classroom Events

The results presented in this section are derived directly from the observation system. Again, space permits only a sampling of the information available in the full report.

One of the main concerns of the study was with the amount of time actually spent on academic activities, time on task on the part of students, and choice of tasks. Data on these points appear in Table 2. These data indicate that classroom activities are overwhelmingly academic in nature, that students are on-task most of the time, and that most tasks are teacher chosen. In interpreting the data, it should be noted that the observations included only times during which lessons were in progress. Various breaks in the school day were therefore not counted. It is thus likely that the high proportion of academic and on-task time reported is not sustained over a full day. Nevertheless, the observations suggest strongly that teachers and students attend to the business at hand and experience few diversions while lessons are in progress.

Table 3 gives data on the patterns of communication among teacher and students. Here we find some distinct evidence of variations by subject and grade. For example, in grade two mathematics, teacher communication is fairly evenly divided between the whole class and individual students. In grade five mathematics, there is some shift towards teacher-class communications, but the overall pattern remains teacher-class and teacher-individual. Language arts has somewhat more teacher-group interaction in both grades. In most other subjects, the dominant form of communication is teacher-class.

Table 2

**Mean Times Academic Activities, Student On-Task Behavior
and Task Choice by Grade and Subject**

Grade	Subject	Mean Lesson Length	Academic	Student On Task	Teacher Chosen Task	Student Chosen Task
2	Math	33.7	32.1	28.4	27.7	3.72
	Language Arts	48.7	45.8	41.9	40.4	5.36
	Rel/F.L.	26.0	24.7	22.6	22.4	1.56
	Soc.Stu.	24.2	22.8	21.5	21.1	.97
	Science	28.5	27.1	24.8	24.5	1.71
	Art	27.0	25.4	22.7	22.4	3.51
	French	19.4	18.8	16.3	16.5	1.36
	Other	18.2	16.7	16.2	15.8	1.09
5	Math	40.7	39.1	35.8	35.0	3.26
	Language Arts	42.5	40.4	37.40	36.1	3.40
	Rel/F.L.	27.6	26.2	24.29	24.3	1.66
	Soc.Stu.	34.1	32.7	30.01	29.7	2.73
	Science	30.0	28.5	25.80	25.5	1.80
	Art	32.3	28.1	27.13	24.9	4.20
	French	31.5	30.6	26.8	27.1	.95
	Other	20.7	19.9	16.56	14.9	.83

All Times are minutes within a single lesson.

Table 3

Teacher and Student Communications Patterns by Grade and Subject

Grade	Subject	Teacher				Student		
		Class	Group	Indiv.	Class	Group with Teacher	Indiv. with Teacher	Student Alone
2	Math	13.5	.68	15.9	11.2	.34	1.34	18.3
	Language Arts	21.4	6.82	15.6	19.0	3.41	1.53	20.9
	Rel/F.L.	17.7	.26	4.16	15.3	.26	.60	7.28
	Soc.Stu.	19.1	.0	1.45	18.4	.0	.83	3.15
	Science	24.5	.0	2.57	21.7	.0	1.09	2.57
	Art	9.7	.27	12.15	7.0	.54	.78	15.7
	French	16.3	.0	.39	15.5	.19	.16	2.13
	Other	9.7	.55	3.28	12.0	.18	---	3.82
5	Math	19.9	.41	15.1	17.9	.41	1.68	18.3
	Language Arts	20.4	3.40	11.9	18.3	1.70	1.10	17.4
	Rel/F.L.	18.8	1.66	3.31	17.4	.55	.62	6.35
	Soc.Stu.	21.8	1.71	4.77	19.4	.34	.66	10.57
	Science	21.3	.90	5.10	18.6	.00	.64	6.60
	Art	5.81	.32	16.8	1.29	.32	.37	19.06
	French	22.7	.00	4.10	14.8	.00	1.04	11.03
	Other	15.5	.83	1.04	11.4	.83	---	4.55

All times are minutes within a single lesson.

From the perspective of individual students, the picture is somewhat different. In language arts and mathematics, time is almost evenly divided between whole class communication and working alone. In other subjects, class communication is by far the dominant category. Despite the fairly high level of teacher-individual communication in certain subjects, it is clear that any one student can command only a very small amount of the teacher's time.

The data on communications patterns, supplemented by interview data, present a picture of mathematics lessons as being taught primarily by teacher presentation and seatwork, with the teacher attending to individuals during seatwork. Language arts activities are similar except that somewhat more group work is found, especially in grade two, where within-class grouping for reading is fairly widely practiced. Subjects other than the major ones, with the notable exception of art, seem to be taught almost entirely through teacher presentation.

This picture is reinforced by the data on student activities presented in Table 4. Most student time is spent either attending to the teacher or writing (the latter category includes a variety of specific activities which would be indistinguishable to an observer). In subjects other than language arts and mathematics, with the notable exception of art, the dominant activity is clearly attending to the teacher.

These data begin to suggest that language arts and mathematics lessons are characterized by teacher presentation, in which the student's role is to attend to the teacher, and seatwork, in which the student largely functions alone in some form of written activity. In most other subjects, the seatwork component is reduced in favour of

additional teacher presentation. This impression is reinforced by global lesson data which indicate that about two-thirds of time in mathematics lessons, and only a slightly lower proportion in language lessons, is occupied by drill and practice activities. The proportions for drill and practice in the other subjects are much smaller. When interviewed on this point, teachers indicated that there is a clear emphasis on achievement in language and mathematics but no clear achievement expectations in other subjects. This emphasis influences the time spent on drill and practice. In subjects other than the main ones, it is possible to engage in more of what teachers tended to call "discussion," where this term implies teacher presentation with some student participation, particularly in response to the teacher.

Discussion

The picture which emerges from the data on overall time allocations is one of substantial inter-class variation, with a few stable features. The length of the school day is reasonably stable, although the variations are larger than might be expected, considering that there is a statutory requirement on minimum length of school day. Mathematics and language clearly dominate the school timetable, especially in grade two. Despite this, a relatively broad curriculum seems to exist, even though the amount of time devoted to subjects other than the two dominant ones is often very small. The dominant subjects seem to benefit from additional time allocations beyond the nominal

Table 4

Mean Times on Selected Student Activities by Grade and Subject

Grade	Subject	Attending to Teacher	Resp.	Read.	Writing	Waiting	Idling
2	Math	10.5	2.37	1.01	13.9	2.70	2.03
	Language Arts	19.5	3.41	3.90	17.1	2.92	2.44
	Rel/F.L.	14.0	2.34	.52	5.7	1.04	1.04
	Social Studies	17.2	1.94	.48	1.7	.97	.97
	Science	20.5	2.85	.86	1.43	1.14	.86
	Art	5.94	3.24	.0	10.3	2.16	1.35
	French	15.5	1.94	.0	.97	.39	1.16
	Other	6.55	3.82	.36	2.55	1.09	.55
5	Math	17.5	2.85	1.22	16.3	1.63	1.63
	Language Arts	19.1	2.55	4.68	14.03	1.28	1.70
	Rel/F.L.	16.9	1.93	1.10	4.97	.83	.83
	Social Studies	19.8	2.05	2.73	7.16	.68	1.36
	Science	18.0	2.70	1.80	4.50	.90	1.50
	Art	1.29	6.78	.97	10.66	.65	.97
	French	13.6	2.21	1.26	11.66	.0	.0
	Other	11.6	1.86	1.04	4.97	.21	.62

timetable, at the expense of other subjects. The wide variations between classes in time allocations attest to the degree of teacher control of the timetable and to differences in teacher decisions on the relative importance of different subjects. Nevertheless, the variations observed were not sufficient to negate the basic perception that language and mathematics are of overriding importance.

The dominance of language and mathematics can be partially explained by several factors which emerged from teacher interviews. First, it is obvious that there is a strong emphasis on achievement in these subjects in the system as a whole. It seems reasonable for teachers to accommodate this emphasis in their timetable decisions. Alternatively, there are few if any achievement criteria, and little emphasis on performance, in other subjects. A further possible explanation lies in the nature of the curriculum. Curriculum content in the major subjects is clearly defined and sequenced, while that in certain other subjects is more ambiguous (teachers made particular reference to social studies in this context). There are certain subjects with which some teachers indicated they felt uncomfortable. Again, it is natural for teachers to de-emphasize such subjects, to the extent that they can control time allocations.

The data on instructional practices reveal that classroom activities are overwhelmingly academic and task oriented in nature. Furthermore, classroom tasks are strongly teacher defined and directed. In general, teachers are found presenting to the whole class or working with individuals during seatwork. Students are generally found at their desks, attending to the teacher or engaged in seatwork. Although teachers engage in a good deal of communication with individual students, any one student can rarely expect to be the target of the teacher's attention.

The observation data reinforce the picture of dominance of language and mathematics and add substantially to this picture. Not only are these subjects dominant, they are also taught differently from other subjects. The emphasis on seatwork with drill and practice exercises, especially in mathematics, reflects the achievement emphasis already mentioned. It is interesting to note that, in the absence of large amount of time for drill and practice in other subjects, it is possible that as much new content can be dealt with in these subjects as in the dominant ones. The difference is in the level of performance expected of students.

Much recent research on teaching, especially that based on time models, suggests that higher achievement is associated with a high degree of academic emphasis in the classroom, with allocated time, and with time on task on the part of students (e.g. Fisher, et. al., 1978). The strong academic orientation, and the emphasis on language and mathematics in the classrooms of this study would thus lead one to expect high levels of achievement in the basic subjects in these classrooms. On the other hand, wide variations in achievement between subjects would be expected when major differences in time allocations to different subjects occur within a fixed overall time framework. Unfortunately, this study gathered data on achievement only for mathematics and reading (not for other areas of language arts). Preliminary analysis of these data (Crocker, 1982; Crocker and Brooker, forthcoming) does suggest that achievement is associated with allocated time and with other variables associated with high academic emphasis and direct teacher control of time use.

The results of this study raise a number of interesting questions for practice. It is obvious that the question of time trade-offs is an important one. Given the relationship between performance and time, teachers must consider the possibility that high performance in some areas must be traded off against lower performance in others. The basic decision by teachers in this study seems to have been to gain performance in language and mathematics at the expense of other subjects. Nevertheless, teachers were by no means uniform in their choices on this matter.

This raises the question of the degree to which teachers should be responsible for such choices. On the one hand, it might be argued that the degree of emphasis required in certain areas is a function of the characteristics of a particular class. Classes which are perceived to be weak in mathematics, for example, could be allocated additional time in that subject. On the other hand, curriculum design, in this province, is not considered to be a teacher function. This implies that judgments on performance, and hence time allocations, should not be a matter for individual teacher decision.

It would be interesting to study the degree to which variations in teacher decisions on time are based on judgments of class characteristics, judgments on the expectations of others, the teacher's own convictions about the relative importance of subjects, or other factors. If, as the study suggests, there is little emphasis on performance in subjects other than the core ones, it is understandable that teachers would trade time on these subjects for time on the core subjects. What is not clear is whether this lack of emphasis is primarily one of teacher perceptions or is a more pervasive feature of the system. The existence of other subjects in the curriculum, and the preparation of guidelines and other materials in these subjects, suggests that there is some expectation that students will achieve something. On the other hand, the provincial testing program does not include tests in subjects other than the core ones. Similarly, there is an impression that there is wide public concern for performance in language and mathematics but less concern for other subjects, at the elementary school level. How much these factors influence teachers is not known.

Footnotes

¹ Because of space limitations, only the major highlights of the data are presented here. A complete report (Crocker, 1983) is available from the Institute for Educational Research and Development.

² The broader study, known as the Teaching Strategies Study, was conducted by a research team headed by five principal investigators: Terry Boak, Robert Crocker, Michael Fagan, Ethel Janes, and William Spain.

³ The research team acknowledges with gratitude the cooperation of the principals, teachers, and students who so gracefully tolerated the intrusions into school life required by the study.

⁴ A complete description of the observation system is given in the Manual for Classroom Observers (Crocker, Brokenshire, Boak, Fagan, and Janes, 1978).

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**POLICY DEVELOPMENT BY NEWFOUNDLAND
SCHOOL BOARDS: POLITICAL OR OTHERWISE**

**Dennis L. Treslan
Gwen J. Tremblett**

Frequently mentioned, confusing and often misunderstood, educational policy making is widely touted as a dynamic, changing arena within the political process. As major actors in this process, school boards serve as one of the most autonomous policy making systems in our society, responding to political influences and choosing between conflicting alternatives while at the same time serving as caretakers of public interest in education. Ostensibly, educational leaders are faced with the dilemma of reconciling competing demands in the free play of politics within the policy making process - or does something quite different actually take place at the local level?

Studying the nature of school boards as political systems provides an avenue for analyzing the political characteristics of educational policy development, particularly as it relates to various groups and individuals involved in this process. Locally, and particularly in Newfoundland, little is known (yet much is suspected) about the politics of school board policy making. Specifically,

1. How do school boards define policy?
2. How do administrators, board members and program coordinators perceive their school board's policy making process?
3. To what extent does current policy development concur with Agger's model of policy making?
4. Which individuals, groups, bodies or agencies influence policy development within school boards and to what extent?
5. What forms of communication channels exist between school boards and their various publics to provide information and feedback on policy issues?

Answers to these questions were obtained from a study conducted in 1983-84 involving three randomly selected Newfoundland school boards. Utilizing both a structured interview and questionnaire technique, Superintendents, chairmen, school board members, senior administrators and program coordinators from the selected school boards participated in an analysis of educational policy development within their districts. The questionnaire was a modification of that developed by Coleman (1979).

While it cannot be assumed that the definitions of policy offered by superintendents and board chairmen accurately describe school boards as policy making structures, it does provide an interesting perspective on how those in leadership positions within these structures perceive this concept. A most frequently mentioned attribute is that of "guideline." An additional feature seems to be a relationship to the overall district governance by the school board. Interestingly, characteristics such as permanence, values, scope of reference and generality are not mentioned. In fact, only one of six individuals interviewed referred to policy as evolving from educational philosophy.

Based on responses to this study, most educational policies are perceived to be unplanned. They are simply the result of a reaction to a perceived problem or need in the district. A majority are of a curriculum or administrative nature, generally initiated by the superintendent. Occasionally, policy issues are introduced by other senior administrators, but rarely by school board members, chairmen, teachers or other interest groups. In instances where these groups and individuals do become involved, policy debate revolves around religious matters or major decisions affecting the community, -viz. school closures.

No specific policy development guidelines correctly exist in the school boards surveyed. Yet, all respondents indicate that general procedures for developing policies are fully understood and adhered to by policy makers! Interestingly, a distinction is readily made between policy decisions and administrative decisions. Specifically, policy decisions are seen as the responsibility of the school board whereas administrative decisions are recognized as the responsibility of administrators in the day-to-day operation of schools - therefore more receptive to interest group input. (Worthy of note is the tendency of chairmen and superintendents to use the terms "policy" and "administrative rule" interchangeably.)

The policy making process within boards surveyed generally does not portray what Downey (1977) describes as a shift in emphasis from rational, information-based policy making to the political, influence based mode. This is borne out by the fact that nearly all respondents believed administrators should and do have a maximum level of involvement in policy making. Although the rational dimension of policy making appears much stronger than the political dimension, two major decision areas emerge as being influenced by the political mode: planning and facilities; and denominational issues. Yet, despite this fleeting presence of a political dimension, the sheer dominance of the rational model (based on technical criteria and expert advice) indicates the closed tendency of Newfoundland school boards as political systems. Most board policies are prepared by assistant superintendents with occasional teacher input. Although a board member might infrequently initiate a policy issue, this is an exception since member involvement typically does not occur until the draft policy is presented. Input from the external environment rarely transpires, with such exchanges best described as sporadic.

Since most existing board policies closely resemble administrative rules, the policy making process followed in these instances was carefully examined in this study. Agger's (1964) model of policy decision making served as an examination medium. This model derives from experiences associated with decisions being made in a political arena. Thus, it is assumed that groups or individuals outside the system under study interact with policy makers on potential policy issues. However, such interaction occurs infrequently in the boards surveyed, with most policies formulated, deliberated and evaluated by the internal organizational structure. Notwithstanding this fact, all stages in Agger's model can be accounted for in school board policy development. Policies which reach the board are always formally considered and few are rejected or modified substantially. (It must be pointed out that major adjustments are deemed unnecessary because senior administrators have thoroughly researched an issue before its presentation. Board consideration becomes merely a rubber stamping exercise!) Promulgation of decisional outcomes generally takes the form of verbal or written communication to those affected, with policy effectuation reported to be a major responsibility of assistant superintendents.

Perhaps the most striking finding of this study is the dominant role played by senior administrators, especially the superintendent, in school board policy making. While policy research generally favors a balance between administrators and school board members in such an undertaking, evidence here suggests a radical departure from this norm. As the most frequent initiator, developer and presenter of policy issues, the superintendent acts as chief policy maker. In defining the issues for discussion purposes at board meetings, this person enforces a powerful control mechanism. Moreover, each superintendent interviewed perceived himself to act as a spokesperson for the board in major policy issues. Policy deliberators frequently approach him with their concerns. In a similar vein, the school board relies heavily on his expertise in communicating policy decisions to those affected by them. As such, the superintendent not only acts as an access channel, but as a gatekeeper of pertinent information for both groups.

Denominational representatives received the lowest level of perceived involvement of any group in the policy making exercise. This suggests either a low opinion of these individuals as a group or no real distinction between them and other school board members in general. Interviewers could also perceive no substantive difference between elected and appointed school board members relative to input effectiveness.

Inasmuch as policy making in the boards surveyed occasionally involves the articulation of : interest groups, only three provincially based groups are deemed to exert major influence in policy decisions. In order of influence these are: (1) The Department of Education; (2) The Denominational Educational Committee; and (3) The Newfoundland Teachers' Association. Local groups and individuals perceived to influence policy include teachers, parents and parent teacher groups. (No ranking intended.)

Both formal and informal channels of communication are currently utilized by deliberators of Newfoundland school board policy. Formal channels include face-to-face verbal contact between policy deliberators and policy makers, along with written communication in the form of handbooks and memos. Informal face-to-face contact is also employed through traditional social structures. Although informal ties are less easily defined, reference was made by all interviewers to church and community based groups. Within the internal district structure, political output is frequently generated by senior administrators and teachers through the committee system. On those rare occasions when interest groups attempt input to the school board, lobbyists communicate their concerns directly to the superintendent. Policy decisions affecting such groups are usually verbally communicated back to the groups and community through the media.

To conclude, this investigation of Newfoundland school board policy making has revealed that policy decisions currently derive from a "closed system" source. To assist in changing this practice, specific recommendations are offered to educators in this critical area of educational administration. First, the Department of Education should initiate extensive inservice activities for superintendents, senior administrators, board chairmen and members to aid them in developing a clearer understanding of the nature of policy and policy making. Second, school boards should develop written guidelines for policy development to serve as an established method for identifying policy issues, making policy decisions and reviewing existing policy and administrative rules. Third, school boards should develop written policy handbooks

which clearly distinguish between policy and administrative rules and circulate these throughout their respective districts. Finally, the development of a course in Policy Studies for graduate students in education would greatly assist, since recent trends in Canadian educational policy making point towards pluralistic governance. Implications of this fact - that policy making is a result of related events enacted over time and involving the interaction of individuals and groups - has not been verified in this Newfoundland study!

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**INTEREST GROUP IMPACT ON SCHOOL BOARD DECISION
MAKING: HOW EFFECTIVE IS IT - REALLY?**

**Dennis L. Treslan, Educational Administration, M.U.N.
Beverley A. LeMoine, Principal, St. Mary's Elementary**

Examination of major influences in Canadian education reveals a potent force at work in the decision making process. School systems represent a complex network of interest groups engaged in "decision influencing" those issues affecting their positions and/or roles. This suggests a substantial shift from the more traditional approach where only provincial governments, trustees and administrators wielded power as major educational influencers. Today, one observes students, teachers, administrators, parents and related associations making major demand inputs in school system policy development.

Interest groups are comprised of actors, aware of the commonality of their goals and the commonality of their fate beyond simply their interdependence with regard to the conduct of work (Bacharach and Mitchell, 1981). Specifically, this suggests a group of individuals with a common concern who wish to influence all or specific activities in an organization. Just how successful these interest groups are depends on the presence of three major functional and effectiveness variables, namely, relative permanence, origin and organizational structure. Since interest groups may be located both within the internal and external organizational environment, their strength is facilitated by favorable exchanges between group members and organizational structures.

To examine the impact of interest group involvement locally, a case study analysis was undertaken to assess their effectiveness in affecting a school board's decision to close a particular school. Answers to the following questions were sought in this study:

1. Relative to this particular school closure, what was the initial problem defined by the governing school board?
2. What probable solutions were considered to solve the specific problem?
3. Was this decisional outcome an output of (a) the formal organization, or (b) other actors within the system?
4. What operational procedure did the formal organization follow in reaching its decision?
5. What were the demands, functions and resources of the interest groups?
6. Who participated in the various levels of decision making and at what stage?
7. How did the various groups communicate their demands to the school board?

A major hypothesis describing schools as political systems suggests that educational decisions are frequently swayed by forces outside the traditional formal organization. Power and authority gradually accumulate in the hands of people who are neither elected or accountable to any particular office. Since it is the nature of the

decision itself which influences who has input and who succeeds or fails, educators must acquire the skills of a political strategist when dealing with the structure, function, resources and characteristics of interest groups. The extent to which this hypothesis was upheld in this situation was closely studied.

The problem, initially defined by this particular school board, was one of declining enrollment and the resulting effect on programs and teaching positions. In a time of economic restraint, the board felt obligated to find a solution to this problem, and the most viable move appeared to be school closure. Upon reflection, some board respondents advanced two other reasons for this decision - the need to extend central office space and the need to provide staff positions for a new facility. Clearly, all respondents were directly or indirectly addressing an extension of the declining enrollment issue.

By way of alternatives to actual school closure, a number of avenues were proposed. These included transferring in students from a two stream school to offset this decline in numbers; bussing students from the district periphery to city center schools experiencing declining enrollments generally; and examining population shifts so that projections might be made to better cope with anticipated population changes.

Several solutions proposed by the impacted group (full-time staff members of the closing school, vice-principal, school chaplain, and president of the Home and School Association) included initiating a program to solicit increased enrollment; using the school for research and development in conjunction with the University, and using the Home and School Association as a source for increasing financial resources. [This study could not determine if these alternatives were ever considered by the board.]

The decisional outcome in the form of school closure was an internal system decision, based on a superintendent recommendation. It has been determined that his suggestion resulted from research findings produced by professional staff members dealing with the larger issue of district needs and requirements. Although legislators (school board chairman, vice-chairman, secretary, chairman of facilities, and chairman of property) and senior officials (superintendent, assistant superintendent, business manager, director of elementary schools, and principal of the closing school) believed an opportunity was provided for interest groups to address the closure issue, impacted members were emphatic in their statement to the contrary. Clearly, forces outside this system had no effect on the decision making process in this matter.

To reach its closure decision, the school board simply examined recommendations regarding operational procedure from central office staff. Although these recommendations were not always accepted by the board, previous decisions had been based on this criteria, and this decision was no exception. It is interesting to note that a number of study respondents (legislators and senior officials) believed interest groups had been active in this decision long before it received board finalization. The impacted group viewpoint completely contradicted this statement!

Interest group demands focussed on two specific concerns in this issue. The primary concern was to prevent this school from closing, whereas a secondary concern was an interest in becoming part of the decision making process. From information gathered in this study, it appears that the Home and School Association's

function was to lobby both the internal and external environment, while simultaneously serving as an informal information source for teachers and reflecting their concerns back to the board. Teachers functioned to maintain equilibrium in the educational environment, since the restrictions imposed through an employee-employer relationship prohibited any other viable action. The chaplain exerted influence through an emphasis on church-school relationships, while an individual school board member provided representation to both board and public, facilitated by sharing information and acting as an intermediary between opposing forces.

Resources available to interest groups included having elite representation on the school board in the form of the Chaplain and the individual board member alluded to earlier. The vocal Home and School Association president served as an effective demand articulator, while the fact that two staff members had rather influential spouses created an additional resource. In theory, at least, this provided interest group members with elite access to the decision making process in this issue. Moreover, since the chaplain's congregation included many parents and children from the school in question, this too served as a further mobilization resource to broaden any necessary support base.

Detailed examination of the process used to derive this major decision reveals that all stages of Agger's (1971) policy decision making model were followed although probably unknown to participants. Policy formulation occurred when the superintendent decided that changes in population trends were soon to force school closures in this district. Reflecting policy deliberation, the superintendent invited his professional staff to investigate the needs and requirements of the board in light of recent population shifts. Organization of political support was implemented by the superintendent, but only with a select group of school board members. Comments from study respondents suggest it was at this stage that rumor of the possible closure surfaced informally. Denied by central office, the decisional process had now become "political", with opposing sides seeking to solicit a support base capable of influencing the potential closure decision.

Authoritative consideration involved the superintendent bringing the school closure recommendation forward at a board meeting. Study respondents recall an aura of vagueness surrounding this decision - a decision viewed as synonymous with closure of a kindergarten class one year earlier. Legislators and senior officials moved quickly to initiate this decision, whereas the impacted group chose to consolidate their efforts in opposition to the board. As promulgation of the decisional outcome, the board decided to keep the school closed to regular students despite interest group demands. Policy effectuation resulted in the school board renting the school building to government for education of children with special needs. The rumor that the building would become additional central office space was officially laid to rest.

To facilitate interest articulation in this issue, interest groups resorted to a number of structural approaches. Publicity was the chief means of increasing public pressure. Other tactics included approaching school officials and politicians; forming group coalitions; approaching school board members directly; approaching the superintendent and other senior officials directly; and making formal written submissions to the school board - with little or no consequence!

In summary, the purpose of this study was to examine the role of interest groups in educational decision making - more specifically, their impact on a specific school board decision to close a neighborhood school. A closure decision was focused on since this issue reflected a politically volatile environment giving rise to interest group formation. Timing of the study was particularly important since school boards and public were generally immersed in meeting the demands of declining enrollments, frequently resulting in school closure.

What, specifically, was learned from this study about the effectiveness of interest group impact on school board decisions? To begin with, the decline in student numbers was evidence that changes were taking place in the internal environment as a consequence of community changes. Population shifts and mobility trends in the external environment resulted in demands for new schools in the peripheral areas of the district. Hence, two legitimate demands competed for scarce resources and someone had to decide. In this case, the superintendent initiated action by the professional office staff to research the needs and requirements of the board relative to student population. Input from this group supported the need for peripheral schools and reaffirmed the problem of declining enrolments in the inner city area, causing the superintendent, acting as a political broker, to initiate the closure decision.

Support from the school board was at best minimally affected by interest group activities. Interest articulation was facilitated by with input demands which surfaced from an individual school board member; the school chaplain, serving as a boundary spanner due to his elite position; and the Home and School Association president acting as gatekeeper between teachers and school board. Overall, the conversion process extended through a lengthy period of time due to complex interrelationships within and among the group members involved, ending with a closure decision "mirroring the structure of power and privilege" (Easton, p. 17).

One further question begs attention from this study, namely, why was any one interest group more effective than another in influencing the decisional outcome? Using Steele's (1981) model of interest group interactions, some degree of prediction can be made to explain each group's success in affecting the school board's decision in this study. This model provides for a total of eight interest group descriptors:

1. ad hoc - appointed
2. ad hoc - emerged
3. standing - appointed
4. standing - emerged
5. formally organized - appointed
6. formally organized - emerged
7. informally organized - appointed
8. informally organized - emerged

[However, this model, while extremely valuable, had limitations for some groups because of the dual capacities in which they served.]

As a formally organized group, the Home and School Association was assigned responsibilities and a division of labor. However, the Association emerged as a result of parent initiative rather than being formally appointed by school board or government. Consequently, it lacked administration endorsement and support.

Examination of the anomic interest - the Chaplain - generates two considerations. In one respect, he was an appointed member of a formally organized board. On the other hand, in his capacity as a special interest, he served as the less powerful and effective emerged force. Whether the school board recognized his participation as school board member first or special interest first could not be determined in this study.

The individual school board member, whom many identified as an interest group member, falls into a similar dilemma. Whether the governing structure, the school board, saw her role as board member or interest group member is difficult to assess. As an appointed member, she was given an endorsement to distribute a questionnaire. Yet, the motive behind this endorsement was held suspect by legislative members.

An analysis of the school board as a formally organized and appointed interest group provides insight into its ability to deal with political demands. Drawing on Steel's work, the school board had the endorsement and support of the administration. Consequently, its suggestions and recommendations carried considerable weight. It also had the available resources and divisions of labor which could and did ensure increased effectiveness in success.

In conclusion, it can be stated categorically that the impact of interest groups in this particular board decision was minimal at best, bringing about no specific change. The hypothesis stated earlier was not supported by information gained in this study. Whereas the relative permanence, origin and organizational structure of identified interest groups was quite evident, they lacked the accumulated power and authority necessary to affect this board's closure decision. It is doubtful that this was in any way attributable to the possession of political skills by school board members. Perhaps what really emerged in this study of interest group effectiveness was evidence of a "closed system" in Newfoundland school board politics.

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EXPECTATIONS AND EXPERIENCES OF STUDY AND PERFORMANCE IN THE TRANSITION FROM ELEMENTARY TO JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Matilda Cluett

Even though researchers would probably agree that the transfer from elementary to junior high school is a significant and potentially difficult stage in a child's development, until recently very little research had been done on that aspect of school life. As transfer to junior high school occurs at around the age of eleven or twelve years, it seems that the rapid intellectual and social development associated with that period might be affected by the environmental change. However, not all reports tend to agree. For example, whilst Doe (1976), Ball (1975) and Hawthorn (1976), among others, found that environmental change, that is, changing one's school, is detrimental at this age, the opposing view contends that the extra stimulation provided fosters child development (Plowden, 1976). The fact is that neither view is completely satisfactory because of the manner in which most studies have been conducted. Most studies have not given sufficient attention to students' perceptions of the transition.

The purpose of this paper is to report on one aspect of an elementary-junior high school transition study. The research problem for this study was one of trying to understand how students, who were experiencing the trauma of adolescence, experienced the transition from elementary to junior high school. In other words, this study tries to sensitize educators to the expectations and experiences of the transition period, as they are perceived by the students themselves. For unless one can understand the transition period from the students' point of view, the nature and outcome of the teaching-learning process, at the junior high school level, will not be completely understood. This paper will give an explanation of the data collection and analysis and will report on the research findings for the expectations and experiences concerning study and performance.¹

Data Collection and Analysis

The first phase of the research was carried out in May 1983 in a suburban elementary school (K-6) of about 425 students. During this phase of the research an open ended questionnaire was administered to ninety grade six students, who would be attending a central high school in the same suburb in September. The questionnaire pertained to students' expectations of junior high school. These questions, covering a wide range of topics, were directed at finding out the students' expectations regarding study and academic work, extra curricular activities, friendship patterns, parents' attitudes regarding the transfer, among others. Students' expectations were further assessed when twenty of these students, selected at random, were interviewed on the same topics.

The second phase of the research took place in the central high school where those students had been transferred for grade seven. This phase of the study was done towards the end of May during the students' grade seven year. Eighty-eight of the same students, who were now nearing the end of the grade seven year at the central high school, were again asked to respond to a questionnaire. This was very similar to that given a year earlier, except that the questions were worded to elicit

responses regarding their experiences in the grade seven program. It was not convenient, however, to do interviews with grade seven students. But, given the detail of comments from the grade seven classes, this is not seen to present any drawback for the purposes at hand.

These two sets of data, then, the grade six data, which provided the students' expectations for junior high school, and the grade seven data, which supplied their experiences in junior high school, present a picture of the expectations and experiences of students during the transition period.

Data analysis for the study was very similar for both the grade six survey and the grade seven follow up survey. In both cases, themes were drawn from students' comments on the various aspects of the open ended questionnaire. Following this a qualitative analysis was done on the various themes. Percentages were also used to add another dimension to our findings. Conclusions and implications for this study are subsequently based on the dominant themes in the student comments.

Expectations and Experiences Concerning Study and Performance

An analysis of the study and performance expectations along with the study and performance experiences reveals at least three important conclusions, which might be stated as follows: (1) students found that the grade seven academic program was more difficult than they had expected, (2) in the grade seven survey, fewer students responded that they were doing "very well" or "better than last year" than had been expected from the grade six data, and (3) the percentage of children who reported "doing poorly" or "worse than last year" was higher in grade seven than the grade six data had led us to expect.

With regard to the difficulty of the academic program, it had been demonstrated repeatedly in the grade six data that they expected grade seven to be more demanding academically. Students wrote, for example, "yes, it will be harder because all the tests will be harder", "grade seven will be tough because I will have to take notes and read a lot more". This idea was also revealed in the Mitman et al. (1981) study. In the present study it was found that grade seven students did indeed find that the grade seven program demanded more of them (Table 1).

As was evident from grade seven comments, one of the main reasons why school work was considered to be more difficult was that students were now required to write mid-term and final examinations. This seemed to be an area of grave concern as is revealed in these comments: "We will have to study for tests and after that study it all over again for exams"; "Grade seven will be much harder because of a new adventure - exams." Coupled with this was the idea of having more courses to take and more teachers to work with - "Yes, there will be a lot more courses and I will have to work hard to keep track of everything"; "Yes there are more children and teachers to get to know" - as well as having more homework to do: "many more teachers giving you work"; "more school work and more homework", a reality which they had not expected (Table 1).

It is interesting to note that about one-third of the students, during their grade six year, had expected to do "very well" in grade seven: "I expect to do very well"; "I expect to do well because I'm going to study harder". However, only about half of

those actually reported having done so. Also, forty-six percent of grade six students expected to do better in grade seven than they had done in grade six, claiming, for example, "I think I will definitely do better" or "I'm going to improve my grades because my parents will be happy and so will I", but only about thirty percent reported having done better (Table 1). These figures indicated that many of these students were not meeting their own expectations as far as academics were concerned. This is an interesting phenomenon and is undoubtedly partly due to the fact that the grade seven program, with the introduction of formal examinations, is more demanding. One must not overlook, however, the likelihood that the drop in academic performance is partly due to the trauma experienced by those students during the transition, coming as it does at a very important and yet very difficult period in their development. This idea of the transition affecting student performance, because of its occurring during the onset of adolescence, has been pointed out in studies done by Simmons et al. (1973), (1977), Blythe et al. (1978), and Nettleman (1982).

A further look at the data reveals that only a relatively small percentage of students expected to do poorly in academics, or to do worse than they had done in grade six. In other words, there was a high degree of confidence along academic lines. The grade seven comments show that, toward the end of the grade seven year, this confidence had diminished considerably. Fifteen percent actually reported doing poorly and twenty-four percent said that they were not doing as well as they had done the previous year, the following being examples of their observations:

At the beginning I was doing good, but now I'm going down hill.

I'm doing bad because we got too much work up here.

My grades are down from last year because the work is more harder.

Worst than last year because I'm just getting adjusted.

If it can be assumed that many of the "lower ability" or "poorly motivated" students were in this group, then this idea is in line with the findings of the Ward et al. (1982) study. They found that their "low ability" or "poorly motivated" "types" often did poorly in the first year after the transition to junior high school. This idea is supported also in a study by Youngman (1978).

Clearly, the academic program was expected to be heavier and more demanding, but it proved to be even more demanding than students had expected. In addition, students were generally not meeting their own expectations in academics. Many students had expected to do "very well" but not many did and many of the seemingly "slower" students were performing less well than they had anticipated. In other words, there were more students doing poorly or not doing as well as they had expected than was suspected according to the grade six data.

The theoretical stance of this type of research suggests the need for greater appreciation of the students' definition of schooling, especially during the transition period. In educational writings, it is the child centered theorists who come closest to this approach, largely because of their concerns to treat students as persons. Since behaviour is forged by the student out of what he/she perceives, interprets and judges, those studying teaching-learning situations must focus on the perspectives of all participants, teachers and students alike. Focusing specifically on the transition

from elementary to junior high school, for example, the student perspective is at the core of understanding the social and psychological complexities of this phase of schooling.

Table 1
Expectations and Experiences Concerning Study and Performance

Expectations	%	Experiences	%
Expect school work to be more difficult and require more study	63	School work more difficult and requires more study	80
Expect school work will be more difficult because of more teachers, courses and books	12	School work is more difficult because of more teachers, courses and books	39
Expect to have more homework	8	Have more homework	21
Expect to do fairly well in grade seven	58	Am doing fairly well in grade seven	65
Expect to do very well in grade seven	32	Am doing very well in grade seven	16
Expect to do poorly in grade seven	2	Am doing poorly in grade seven	15
Expect to do better in grade seven than in grade six	30	Am doing better than in grade six	46
Expect to do about the same as in grade six	43	Am doing about the same as in grade six	45
Expect to do worse than I have done in grade six	7	Am doing worse than I did in grade six	24

The expectations column represents the grade six data (90 students) and the experiences column represents the grade seven data (87 students).

The grade seven students in this study have entered a new "status passage" in their school careers. They have had to establish themselves in a new situation; they have had to interpret and define new situations relating to new physical surroundings, new teachers, new classroom structures and new friends. In short, they had to learn to cope in a new situation while, at the same time, maintaining and preserving a desired image of self. The subjective reality of students in transition needs to be

understood. There is a need for a greater appreciation, on the part of educators, for the subjective careers of such students.

Since many children were worried, concerned or unhappy with the academic program, educators would be wise not to let this continue without being investigated. The academic objectives and expectations at the grade six and grade seven level must be re-evaluated.' Efforts by educators in this area could eliminate unnecessary frustration during the transition year and this, in turn, could help alleviate some of the problems that occur with unmotivated and frustrated junior high students who, very often, eventually become members of the "drop out" population.

FOOTNOTES

1. This is part one of a two part paper. In Part Two other aspects of the research findings will be discussed.
2. Since this study was conducted, a committee of educators from the central high school and its three feeder schools has been set up to look at the objectives of the grade six and grade seven math programs. It is hoped that similar committees will study other aspects of the academic programs.

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**REPORT ON THE NATIONAL FILM BOARD/EDUCATOR'S FORUM ON
WOMEN'S STUDIES IN SECONDARY SCHOOL
Now Available**

As part of an ongoing program to revitalize exchanges between film makers and educators - to facilitate production of well-targeted films for education, and to promote film use in the classroom - the NRF recently hosted a forum on women's studies in secondary school.

Educators, and family life and women's studies coordinators from several provinces met with NFB women film makers from across the country and Studio D for two-and-a-half days of dialogue. They explored major factors affecting the self-image, attitudes and expectations of today's female high school students. The status of women's studies in secondary schools, and how film making and film utilization can help generate attitudinal changes and challenge the status quo. **The report on their discussions and recommendations will be invaluable to film makers interested in reaching teenagers, and to educators looking for a succinct, up-to-date summary of women's studies and female student issues.**

The Report contains findings that will surprise many readers. For example, despite a formal endorsement of sex equity by the importance of women's studies to ministries of education there is an abysmal gap in implementation, compounded by pervasive, unofficial resistance from others in the education chain, including parents. Sexual discrimination continues to be perpetuated in schools and classrooms, often in subtle ways. Like teenage female students themselves, much of society assumes that equality is in place. Such a disheartening picture is brightened by the commitment of individual teachers and by the positive efforts of teachers' federations and societies.

According to educators' findings and several major research surveys, the "reality" of today's female teenagers is deeply tinted with myth. Mass-media images, usually absorbed indiscriminately and without discussion, are considered to play a major role in this state of affairs. For example, a stunning number of female students hold that a relationship with a man is the key to their security, in a "forever" marriage. Despite statistics revealing the contrary, many female students believe they will never have to work. When they do envision careers, they cast themselves as "super moms" who can easily juggle home, family and job, and afford nannies and annual European vacations.

Forum participants recognized that the teenage years are a particularly vulnerable - even volatile - period of physical and emotional upheaval, and of search for self-identity. Peer pressure and media images appear to be particularly influential for this age group. Female teenagers attempt to mould themselves into the day's pronounced ideal body image, often struggle internally with critical problems related to early sexual activity, are caught in shaky self-esteem issues and, with little guidance to understand their own psychology or today's world, easily retrench to assimilate unquestioningly the traditional stereotypic roles of women perpetuated by the media.

Educators feel there are ways that educational film makers can counteract the pervasive mass-media approach. Much of the report summarizes the discussion about optimal film making approaches for secondary school audiences, including vital general guidelines that take into account school structure. They helped pinpoint

twelve crucial areas in which films are needed, and stressed that male as well as female populations must be reached if there is to be hope for change. Further, participants "unanimously agreed that films portraying women in all aspects of life must be integrated into all curriculum areas during the formative elementary years" in order for needed changes to pervade society.

Copies of the "Report on the NATIONAL FILM BOARD/EDUCATORS' FORUM ON WOMEN'S STUDIES IN SECONDARY SCHOOL" (April 20-22, 1986) can be obtained by contacting JoAnn Harrison, National Education Officer, The National Film Board, D-5, P.O. Box 6100, Montreal, P.Q. H3C 3H5.

**THE USE OF SCHOOL TIME:
"ACADEMIC LEARNING - FIFTY-ONE PERCENT
OF THE ENTIRE SCHOOL YEAR"**

**Donald Hodder
Seventh Day Adventist Academy**

**Terrance Boak
Faculty of Education
Memorial University of Newfoundland**

Introduction

Educators and parents are interested in variables that influence students' achievement. Bloom (1973) said that time is limited by life and this places a real limitation on what one can learn. Brophy and Good (1986) stated that the opportunity to learn is limited by the length of the school day and school year. Railsback (1985) stated that time spent on noninstructional matters is time lost for learning. Good and Beckerman (1978) mentioned that "learning was positively related to low rate of time lost because of poor management of classrooms" (p. 193).

Derevensky, Hart, and Farrell (1983) showed that Canadian innercity schools spent a large proportion (approximately 80%) of instructional time actively engaged in behaviour conducive to learning. High-achieving pupils demonstrated only slightly more "on-task" behaviour than did low-achievers, thus learning as you would suspect not only depends on time on-task but other variables as well. The actual results showed high achievers on-task 85% of the time, while low-achievers were on-task 75% of the time. The difference amounted to six minutes per hour.

Guida (1983) found time on-task (both overt and covert) was positively related to summative achievement. This finding corresponds to other studies conducted by Anderson (1973) and Hecht (1978).

Other researchers, namely Lang (1984) and McGarity and Butts (1984), maintained that students' rate of engagement in instructional activities is a critical teaching task. Students who spent more time engaged in instructional activities exhibited higher achievement gains.

Fisher, Berliner, Filby, Marhave, Chaer, and Dishaw (1980) concluded from their study of Beginning Teacher Evaluation Studies as follows:

1. The amount of time the teacher allocated to instruction in a particular curriculum content area is positively associated with student learning in that content area.
2. The proportion of allocated time that students are engaged is positively associated with learning. Students who pay more attention in class, learn more.

In summary, research has shown that the allocation of time is not as important a factor in academic learning as is the actual participation spent on the task.

The intent of this study was to examine the engaged academic time by students on various subject areas and determine the amount of time lost from academic activities in the classroom during a regular school day.

Method

An observation instrument was developed to measure the amount of time students were engaged in various activities in the classroom. Two main categories of observation, on-task and off-task, were recorded. Off-task activities were divided into three sub-groups: descriptive behaviour, outside activity and miscellaneous off-task activities. The miscellaneous category included student idleness, movement around classroom, preparation for the lesson that was to be completed prior to the class, and off topic discussion not related to the immediate lesson.

Sample

The study was conducted with twelve pupils who participated in the subject areas observed. The pupils observed (eight girls and four boys) were at the 1000/2000 level ranging in ages from 14 years to 18 years with an average age of 15.4 years.

Procedure

The classroom observer was positioned at the front corner of the classroom so that all target students were clearly visible. The observer completed Part A of the instrument prior to class and completed Part B of the observation during class for each target pupil selected.

The observer recorded whether the target pupil was on-task or off-task. If on-task, a slash (/) was recorded under the on-task column and the observer waited ten seconds before observing the next target pupil. If the observer decided the target pupil was off-task, the actual off-task activity was noted under the appropriate column by the use of a slash (/). The observer continued the process until all target students were observed and recorded. The process was then repeated until the termination of the class by the teacher.

Information regarding the year's schedule of events and unscheduled holidays were obtained from the administrative files for the year 1985-86.

Analysis and Results

The analysis of the data was examined by following several procedures. Reported in this paper are the following results:

1. The composite of all on/off task activities occurring during an average class period (See Figure 1).

2. Summary and extrapolation of Days on/off task as a percentage of total teaching days (See Table 1).

The results of this study suggest many possible conclusions:

1. During an average class period (40 minutes), the time on-task by the pupils is 63.1 %.
2. Females, on the average, are on-task more than males (65.4% for females as compared to 59.4% for males).
3. Most off-task behaviour, 12.3%, is due to idleness, males (17.1 %) and females (9.4%).
4. Of the actual teaching time, Mathematics (82%), Bible (75%), Biology (72%), English (65%), and Literature (70%).
5. The prime time for teaching students occurred at the 20-25 minute interval with 84% of the students on-task.
6. Intervals near the beginning of class time (0-5 minute) and intervals near the end of class time (35-40 minute) had the least time on-task for the entire class (62% and 50% respectively).
7. The correlation between the ranking of achievement and on-task behaviour was 0.67 with the probability of 0.03.
8. A number of periods are lost due to extra-curricular activities throughout the year. Although these activities are important, 246 periods (16.6%) were not on-task by the students because of activities other than academic learning.
9. When all off-task activities were taken into consideration, the amount of academic learning was 51 % of the entire school year. From a total of 190 school days, the average class is actually engaged (on-task) only 96.9 full days.

The realization that academic learning occurs less than one half of the time should be astounding. But many activities other than academic learning are needed for personal growth and development. Nevertheless, teachers should be aware of the valuable time within their control. As small as it is (51 %), this time must be used to the highest degree of efficiency. Time is a valuable commodity. It passes by only once and can be used only once. Past time is history, future time is not yet ours. The present is all we have and it is up to all of us to make the best possible use of it.

TABLE I
Summary - Days On/Off-Task As A Percentage

	Days	Percentages
Total Days of Teaching (government regulation) -	190.0	100.0
3 Paid Holidays -----	3.0	1.6
2 Administrative days -----	2.0	1.1
Teaching Days Left -----	185.0	97.3
A. Lost Days Due To:		
Unscheduled Holidays (storms) -----	2.0	1.1
Prayer -----	1.3	0.7
Assemblies -----	1.3	0.7
Science Fair -----	1.0	0.5
Winter Carnival -----	1.0	0.5
Sports Day -----	1.0	0.5
Bike-a-thon -----	1.0	0.5
Furnace Problem -----	1.0	0.5
2 PTA Meetings -----	0.8	0.4
Professional Development Days -----	2.0	1.1
Examinations (January, June) -----	19.0	10.0
Days Lost for Above Reasons (A Total) ----	31.4	16.5
Number of Days Left to Teach -----	153.6	80.8
B. Time Lost to Off-Task Activities		
Ending Class Early -----	3.1	1.6
Students Absent -----	4.1	2.2
Students Tardy -----	0.3	0.2
Late Starting Class -----	7.2	3.8
Student Disruptive Behaviour -----	6.3	3.3
Outside Classroom Activities -----	1.7	0.9
Idleness -----	18.9	9.9
Movement -----	0.5	0.3
Organizational -----	5.8	3.1
Wait Time -----	0.5	0.3
Off Topic -----	3.1	1.6
Other -----	1.8	0.9
Undecided -----	3.4	1.8
Days Lost to Off-Task Activities (B Total) -----	56.7	29.9
Total Number of Days Students Are Not Engaged in Academic Learning -----	93.1	49.0
Total Number of Days Students Are On-Task ----	96.9	51.0

Note: One teaching day equals eight class periods of 40 minutes each.

Figure 1

**On/Off Task Activities
Average Class Period**

(INSERT FIGURE HERE)

The reader must be cautioned that several factors limit the generalizability of the results. The sample was taken from one school with a total enrollment of only 75 students. The pupils and teachers in the school knew each other well and their relationship was considered very good. A positive relationship may have biased the results either positively or negatively.

The number of different periods observed for each teacher and subject area was not considered large and all the observations occurred within a two week span.

The observations were completed by one trained observer. Reliability checks for the observer were taken by other trained observers in the development stage of the instrument and were greater than 80 percent accurate.

Conclusion

This study was conducted over a two week period with the on/off task behaviors being recorded. Further studies should include the effects concerning off-task behaviours with respect to time of day, teacher style, time of year, class size, sex of teacher, and/or socio-economic status of the students.

Improvements are needed in many areas of schooling to reclaim lost time and provide the students with as much academic learning opportunity as possible. Academic learning opportunity devoid of the poor quality of instruction, poor preparation by teachers, poor student conduct and perseverance, and poor extra curricular planning should be provided. Administrators and teachers must sit down together to plan and devise ways to increase the on-task activities and to provide students with a better educational system.

In this study time spent on academic learning was the prime variable of concern. The authors recognize that schools are also responsible for the promotion and development of spiritual, moral, psychological, cultural, and physical development and that these are not only necessary but essential for the development of the whole person. From Figure 1 and Table 1 the total number of days students spent on the above is small relative to actual off task activities.

The authors of this paper believe that the results of this study are conservative and students and teachers are not engaged in academic learning any more than 50 percent of the total number teaching days. We, as educators, must avoid lost time to activities that have little or no educational purpose.

One must instill in each student the realization that their future position in society depends on the use of time while in school. An unknown author wrote:

So I must make the most of time
And drift not with the tide,
For killing time's not murder
It's more like suicide.

According to William E. Holler, "Success is good management in action". If students, teachers, and administrators would manage time well, success would have to follow.

NOTES

Mr. Donald Hodder is principal and teacher at Seventh Day Adventist Academy in St. John's, Newfoundland.

Dr. Terry Boak is Associate Dean and professor in the Faculty of Education at Memorial University of Newfoundland in St. John's, Newfoundland.

Mr. Hodder completed this study of On/Off Task Activities as part of the requirements for his Field Study in Education. He completed the requirements for the Master of Education in Teaching Program in Fall, 1987. A copy of the complete Field Study may be borrowed from Dr. Boak.

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EDUCATIONAL CONTROL SHIFTS IN THE ATLANTIC PROVINCES CONFIRMATION AND SURPRISE

Dennis L. Treslan
Department of Educational Administration

Change forces currently impacting on local school systems have the potential to alter significantly an established mode of educational governance. Within our pluralistic environment, the once familiar exercise of educational decision making has become an arena of political intrigue as individuals and groups representing vested interests manoeuvre to control their children's education. The more that policy decision channels are influenced by demands of aroused school constituents, the more responsive boards and other administrative decision making/control units should become, resulting in greater external control over decision making. Thus, as one examines the political character of educational governance in terms of power relationships, decision processes and communication flows, the issue of who controls and who should control the decision process in education acquires considerable importance. In fact, awareness of control shifts - past or anticipated - may serve to minimize conflict in this regard and contribute to a better understanding of educational governance.

RESEARCH PROBLEM

To investigate the manner in which educational systems cope with internal and external pressures, one dimension of Atlantic educational governance was recently examined, namely, perceived individual and group control/control shifts over educational decision making related to authoritative allocation of resources. More specifically, this study addressed the following questions:

1. Which administrative levels presently control educational decision making?
 - a. Are respondents' perceptions of current control significantly affected by the following variables: district size; jurisdiction; language; religion?
2. What shifts in control over educational decisions have occurred at each administrative level in the last five years?
 - a. Are respondents' perceptions of past control significantly affected by the following variables: district size; jurisdiction; language; religion?
3. What shifts in control over educational decisions are projected to occur at each administrative level in the next five years?
 - a. Are respondents' perceptions of projected control significantly affected by the following variables: district size; jurisdiction; language; religion?
4. In which decision areas do these changes/shifts affect the pattern of control across the administrative levels identified?
5. What factors exert a centralizing or decentralizing influence on past and projected changes in control over educational decision making?

6. What implications might control shifts over educational decisions have for:
 - a. system management structure?
 - b. educational roles?
 - c. system effectiveness and efficiency?
 - d. system tendency towards openness/closedness?

Literature Relating to a Conceptual Framework

Contemporary research in the complexity of modern social systems reveals that individuals and groups affected by these systems should play active roles in the control process thereof. Traditionally, the control process has been viewed as "...unilateral: one either leads or is led, is strong or weak, controls or is controlled..." (Tannenbaum, 1968, p. 12). In fact, a number of researchers deem it inappropriate to assume that the total amount of control in any social system is a fixed quantity, a 'zero-sum game' - that is, that increasing the power of one party should necessarily mean a decrease in power of the other. Rather, the total amount of power in the system should be looked upon as a synergistic function, where individuals and groups may jointly enhance their influence and power (Tannenbaum and Kahn, 1957; Likert, 1961; Parsons, 1963). Given the current bureaucratic governance structure of education, achievement of this control conceptualization has implications for system management. Examination of educational reform in the United States and changes in educational governance in Western Canada reveals that control is susceptible to pluralist politics, where decisions are frequently influenced by coalitions of individuals and groups manoeuvring to control educational policy. In both situations, the literature depicts a resultant trend toward centralized control in education (Kratzman, 1982; Odden, 1986).

Clearly, these centralizing trends are disconcerting for educators. Teachers and administrators must become political strategists if they are to shift educational control to a more decentralized position. It has been suggested that pluralist politics contains the key to achieving this goal, simply because this process implies assertion of influence by concerned groups, conflict creation, forced confrontation, due process demands, coalition formation, and solicitation of public support - in essence, an exercise of shifting the locus of control over educational decision making towards lower administrative levels. Recent shifts in educational control and those projected in the near future suggest that demands for increased public involvement in, and local control of, the educational process cannot be ignored. From both the school board and school level, there is a call from educators for greater public participation in the educational process (Isherwood, Williams and Farquhar, 1981; Moynes, 1984). Non-dictatorial or democratic leadership by administrators must be encouraged to more effectively include parental and public involvement (Ponder, 1986). Although there is general support for a shift to local educational control, whereby the public is fairly and equitably represented, the literature points to a need for a balanced power relationship between public and system administrators. Influence, power and authority are all inherent components of educational governance. If in fact the assertion of influence by concerned groups, conflict creation, forced confrontation, due process demands, coalition formation and the solicitation of public support all play a role in the governance of an educational system, then the control process can become a complicated and ambiguous one for many educators to come to terms with.

Whereas current research into control over educational decision making recommends increased individual and group participation, the existing bureaucratic form of control over specific decisions has been relatively stable - with only a few distinct shifts having occurred and others projected to occur in the near future. If in fact this is the case, as verified in a study conducted in Western Canada (March, 1981), this existing control profile might be expected to dominate any changes in control pattern.

Two alternative control patterns can be quickly visualized, each representing a diffusion of power within provincial systems of education. The first pattern could depict a proportional increase in control at all administrative levels, with a particularly large gain in control for the local school level internally and the community externally. Although the possibility of this situation arising in Canadian education exists, according to Miklos (1974) it may be difficult to validate empirically due to decentralization and centralization forces occurring simultaneously.

A second pattern would seem to describe more accurately the shifting, fluid nature of control in educational governance. This pattern would not assume a proportional increase/ decrease in decision making control. Instead, the emphasis would be on net gains or losses of control. Clearly, upper administrative levels could experience some control loss in certain decision areas, while lower administrative levels could gain. Coleman (1977) supports this possibility by arguing that the factor most responsible for such shifts is the rising professionalism and increasingly militant attitude of teachers generally. In his view, the groups experiencing net losses of power include provincial governments, trustees and administrators while net gains are enjoyed by teachers, teachers' associations, special interest groups, parents and, to a lesser extent, students. Other studies tend to agree with the observation that there has been a period of power diffusion in education, thereby supporting the existence of this second control pattern (Farquhar, 1980; Williams and Powell, 1980).

Research on control over educational decisions has traditionally focused on involvement in decision making by various administrative levels. By analyzing this control over specific decision areas and determining possible changes in control loci due to various professional, administrative and environmental factors, an opportunity is afforded to examine the "politicalness" of educational governance and ascertain the extent to which educational control may have been altered between 1982 and 1992 in Atlantic Canada.

Design of the Study

The population for this study consisted of all 98 superintendents and/or directors of education in the Atlantic provinces - namely, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island and Newfoundland - during the 1986-87 school year. These chief executive officers were assumed to be familiar with their respective districts to the extent that they might detect control shifts both past and anticipated, in addition to accurately describing the present pattern of educational control therein. It was further assumed that their unique administrative position, located between provincial government (department of education) and local school boards, could afford them an opportunity to candidly express a viewpoint concerning the decision making roles of various individuals/groups [departments of education, school boards,

superintendents/directors, principals, teachers and community] in the governance structure of Atlantic provincial education.

The four Atlantic provinces were chosen partly because of convenience and partly because of the need to complete the Canadian educational governance mosaic by studying possible control shifts in this region.

The study instrument was a questionnaire responded to by 72 superintendents/directors (75.0 percent return rate). Composition of the questionnaire was drafted from a list of decision items initially used in studies by McBeath (1969), Treslan (1977) and March (1981). Additional items, reflecting recent developments in Atlantic provincial education, were generated by the researchers and members of the Department of Educational Administration at Memorial University of Newfoundland. Decision areas comprising the first part of this instrument focussed on finance and business management, curriculum and instruction, staff management, pupil management, organizational structure, and school community relations. Each decision area contained four specific decision items.

A Likert-type scale was utilized with (1) indicating a negligible amount of control over decision making of this nature and (5) indicating a high amount of control. Respondents were asked to make three estimates of the degree of control over decisions in their jurisdiction: (a) recollection of the situation as it was in 1982; (b) perception of the situation as it is now in 1987; and (c) prediction of the situation as it might be in 1992.

The second part of the instrument examined those factors/forces deemed to affect the locus of control over educational decision making. A Likerttype scale was again employed with (1) indicating strong decentralization and (5) indicating strong centralization. The following factors/forces were included in this section: restrained economic climate; calls for public accountability; collective agreement demands; department of education regulatory policy; School Trustees' Association coordinative policy; school board district planning policy; permissive social climate; pressure from a professional Teachers' Association; growth of teacher professionalism; impact of the Charter of Rights and Freedoms; demand for public participation; curricular demands of post-secondary institutions; teacher training demands of faculties of education; demands from specific interest groups; intensified media presence, and potential offshore development.

The third part of the instrument provided respondents with an opportunity to express their views on the manner in which perceived alterations in educational control might impact on their school system.

Two procedures were adopted in order to validate this instrument. All faculty members of the Department of Educational Administration at Memorial University were asked to examine the questionnaire for clarity, suitability and relevance, readability and omissions or additions. Students in two graduate seminars in educational administration also viewed and commented on the instrument.

A measure of reliability was obtained from the study population through utilization of the internal-consistency method known as the Alpha Reliability Coefficient. Coefficients achieved on each part of the instrument ranged in value from .6104 to .8870.

Data analysis involved application of the following procedures: (i) Data were presented in one-way frequency distribution tables to reveal control profiles for each time period studied; (ii) Two-way analysis of variance was utilized to study the effect of jurisdiction and district size on respondents' perceptions. Significant findings were followed up by applying the Student-Newman-Keuls Procedure to determine between which specific jurisdictions and district sizes this significance occurred; (iii) One-way analysis of variance was utilized to study the effect of religion and language on respondents' perceptions, and (iv) Responses from open-ended questions were analyzed for response patterns, with appropriate tables prepared to reveal superintendents'/directors' responses. As expressed in the March (1981) study, attention was paid to the caution expressed by Cormier (1971) for the need to distinguish between 'significant' and 'important' differences. However, tests of significance were considered necessary to establish a value by which the difference between any pair of measures could be considered as substantial.

RESULTS

Question 1. Current Educational Control

This study has accepted a basic definition of control as a process in which individuals and groups possess the authority to influence actual decisions made. Among the six decision areas examined, current educational control was concentrated at the local district level in all areas except two - curriculum and instruction and finance and business management. In these two areas, the department of education was perceived to be firmly in control, followed closely by superintendents and school boards. In the remaining four decision areas, principals, superintendents/directors and school boards wielded moderate to strong control over the decisioning process. Teachers played a very minor control role, with the exception of pupil management where they wielded strong control influence - exceeding that accorded school boards. The role of the community in affecting decisional control was currently perceived to be near negligible. Whereas superintendent's/directors' perceptions of current control were not significantly affected by the variables of district size and jurisdiction, two additional variables - language and religion - did cause significant variation in responses. Francophone school boards in New Brunswick were perceived to be more influential than Anglophone boards in wielding control over organizational structure, pupil management and finance and business management decision areas. Francophone teachers were like-wise perceived to wield greater control than Anglophones over staff management decisions. A similar perception of Francophone communities applied to the organizational decision area.

Religion significantly affected Newfoundland respondents' perceptions in only one decision area - pupil management. Here, Roman Catholic respondents accorded stronger control to principals than did their Protestant counterparts.

Question 2. Past Control Shifts (1982-1987)

During the five-year period between 1982 and 1987, no noticeable control shifts were detected in five decision areas - organizational structure, curriculum and instruction, staff management, pupil management, and school-community relations. Interestingly, the department of education continued to exercise a major control

influence over curriculum and instruction decisions throughout this period, while relatively strong local control was wielded over the remaining four decision areas. Thus, while a minimal increase in control was perceived across a majority of control levels throughout this time period, the pattern of control in these five decision areas remained constant.

The finance and business management decision area contained the only perceived shift in control throughout this period. Whereas the department of education was perceived to wield strong control over this area in 1987, such was not the case in 1982 when superintendents and school boards were perceived as major influencers of decision making in this area. Thus, control was viewed as having shifted from the local level to the departmental level in this five-year period.

Superintendents'/directors' perceptions of decisional control in 1982 were further examined to ascertain the effect of district size and jurisdiction on responses. Both variables significantly affected responses pertaining to perceived teacher influence on staff management decisions. Large districts revealed greater amounts of teacher control over this decision area than did medium-sized districts. Similarly, urban districts indicated the strongest amount of teacher control influence in this type of decision.

Language impacted on New Brunswick respondents' perceptions of 1982 decisional control in four decision areas, namely, organizational structure, staff management, school-community relations, and finance and business management. Within the organizational structure decision area, Francophone boards and communities were perceived to wield more control than their Anglophone counterparts, while the reverse applied for principals. Whereas Francophone communities were perceived to be more influential than Anglophone communities in financial decisioning, Anglophone superintendents/directors and principals exceeded Francophone control influence in staff management and school-community relations decisions respectively.

Religion significantly affected Newfoundland respondents' perceptions of 1982 decisional control in three decision areas, namely, staff management, pupil management and school-community relations. Interestingly, Roman Catholic principals were again perceived to exert greater control influence than Protestant principals in each of these decision areas. The each of these decision areas. The marked decrease in the number of decision areas revealing religion impact on respondents' perceptions in the five-year period from 1982 to 1987 is a matter for interesting speculation.

Question 3. Projected control shifts (1987-1992)

There were no shifts in control projected for the five-year period between 1987 and 1992 in five of the decision areas examined - curriculum and instruction, staff management, pupil management, school-community relations, and finance and business management. Although each administrative control level was projected to experience some growth in control influence, the greatest increase was expected to materialize for the community. Again, relatively strong departmental control was projected to continue in both the curriculum and instruction and finance and business management decision areas, constituting a continuation of the status quo in Atlantic

Canada. Local district control was anticipated to remain strong in the areas of staff management, pupil management, and school-community relations.

The only projected control shift expected over the next five years occurred in the organizational structure decision area. Here, local district control was projected to continue but teachers were expected to become more influential than school boards, despite the fact that control envisaged for both groups would remain relatively low. Respondents' perceptions of projected decisional control were again examined relative to two situational variables, namely, district size and jurisdiction. Whereas district size did not significantly impact on respondents' perceptions, their views were significantly affected in one decision area by the jurisdiction variable - pupil management. In this case, rural superintendents/directors perceived themselves to wield a much stronger future control over this decision area than did their counterparts in rural/urban settings.

New Brunswick respondents' perceptions of projected control were significantly affected by the language factor in four decision areas - organizational structure, pupil management, school-community relations and finance and business management. Only school board and community future control influence were so affected. In each case, Francophone respondents perceived their school boards and communities to wield greater future control influence than did Anglophone respondents.

Newfoundland responses relating to perceived future control wielded by selected individuals or groups were not significantly affected by the religion factor in any of the six decision areas examined. This finding is in stark contrast to perceptions relating to current and past control over educational decision areas.

Question 4. Alterations in Educational Control Patterns (1982-1992)

In the past five years (1982-1987), a slight strengthening of control influence by all administrative levels was perceived across the six decision areas examined. Growth was greatest for the community. Yet, in five decision areas, there was no shift in control detected among individuals and groups, and the control pattern remained constant in these five decision areas. The only shift identified by respondents pertained to the finance and business management area. Here, control shifted from the local level (school boards and superintendents) to the departmental level in this five-year time span, thereby altering the control pattern.

Growth in control influence for all individuals and groups was perceived to continue for the immediate future (1987-1992) in each of the six decision areas. However, the pattern of control was projected to shift in only one decision area - organizational structure. Although strong local control was perceived to continue in this area, teachers were expected to become more influential than school boards.

To demonstrate the perceived constancy of control, over Atlantic provincial education between 1982 and 1992, a single mean score for each administrative control level was calculated across the six decision areas tested. Table 1 lists the derived means and also provides a control ranking for each of those specific time periods studied, namely, 1982, 1987 and 1992.

Quite clearly, the ranked control pattern currently existing in Atlantic Canadian education has generally continued to exist in the past five years and is projected to continue on into 1992. Although one control shift was detected in each of the past and future five-year time periods respectively, no extreme control shifts were perceived to occur in either of the six decision areas examined in this study. What has occurred between 1982 and 1992 is a rather consistent growth in control influence perceived for each individual and group participating in the decision making process. This constancy in control pattern suggests that moderate to strong educational control is currently concentrated at the local level. [It should be noted that some specificity of individual decision area control is eliminated due to the averaging process used in this table.] Only two decision areas - curriculum and instruction and finance and business management - depicted continuous control by the department of education, as previously stated.

Question 5. Factors Influencing Control Decisioning

Respondents were asked to report their perceptions of the degree to which each of sixteen factors influenced the locus of control over decisions between 1982 and 1987 and between 1987 and 1992. These sixteen factors, suggested by the literature and Atlantic educators, included both environmental and operational forces. Figure 1 graphically displays the relative centralizing or decentralizing influence depicted by the response mean of each factor for 1982-1987 and 1987-1992.

Table 1

Mean ranked control wielded by administrative levels for 1982, 1987 and 1992
(Decision areas combined)

Administrative Control Level	Year		
	1982	1987	1992
Department of Education	2.50 (5)	2.62 (5)	2.72 (5)
School Board	3.22 (3)	3.31 (3)	3.45 (3)
Superintendent	3.59 (1)	3.62 (1)	3.69 (1)
Principal	3.40 (2)	3.47 (2)	3.57 (2)
Teacher (s)	2.55 (4)	2.69 (4)	2.83 (4)
Community	1.53 (6)	1.71 (6)	2.01 (6)
N = 72			

Figure 1

Degree of centralizing or decentralizing influence exerted on educational decision making by influence factor (1982-1987-1992)

Factor	Effect		
	Decentralizing	Neutral	Centralizing
Collective Agreement demands			
Restrained economic climate			
Department of Education regulatory Policy			
Pressure from a professional Teachers' Association			
Calls for public accountability			
School Board district planning policy			
Curricula demands of post-secondary institutions			
Growth of teacher professionalism			
Teacher training demands of faculties of education			
Potential offshore development			
Impact of the Charter of Rights and Freedoms			
Demands from specific interest groups			
Intensified media presence			
School Trustees' Association regulatory policy			
Demand for public participation			
Permissive social climate			

Legend: _____ 1982 to 1987
 ----- 1987 to 1992

Generally, these sixteen factors, as indicated by the graph, positioned themselves in three major clusters - those which consistently had a centralizing influence, those which had relatively little influence, and those having a centralizing influence on the locus of educational control. For the period 1982 to 1987, four factors had a mild centralizing influence on decision making. These included collective agreement demands, restrained economic climate, department of education regulatory policy, and pressure from a professional Teachers' Association. Two factors - demand for public participation and permissive social climate - were perceived to exert a mild decentralizing influence during this same period. Little or no measurable influence was affixed to the remaining ten factors tested.

Interestingly, the same general influence pattern - with only minor changes - was projected to continue for the period 1987 to 1992. The strengths of the major centralizing forces were projected to increase somewhat, with six new forces expected to wield a centralizing influence. These included calls for public accountability, impact of the Charter of Rights and Freedoms, demands from specific interest groups, intensified media presence, School Trustees' Association regulatory policy and the demand for public participation. This last factor represents a reversal of the perceived effect wielded during the period 1982 to 1987. Only one factor - permissive social climate - continued to be perceived as a mild decentralizing influence on the locus of educational control. It should be noted that those factors perceived as contributing to decentralization of educational control during 1982-1987 and 1987-1992 were environmental in nature, while those perceived to have a centralizing influence during the same time periods were a combination of environmental and operational factors.

Question 6. Control Shift Implications for System Functioning

Superintendents/directors were afforded an opportunity to express their frank opinion on the manner in which perceived shifts in educational control might affect their school system's management structure, effectiveness and efficiency, tendency towards openness/closedness, and educational roles. In each case, responses were many and varied, but respondents did verify the reality impact of possible control shifts. In general, the nature of the control shift - its intensity, direction, duration and issue orientation - governed responses to this part of the study. Any shift to centralized control at either the local district or departmental level was perceived to intensify the power and authority of educational roles, causing the system to become closed and protective of itself. The exact opposite was envisaged in shifts to decentralized decisional control. In general, there was similarity or consistency in response pattern across each of the four Atlantic provinces, indicating that the issue of control and control shifts - past, present and projected - is of similar concern to practising administrators in differing educational settings.

CONCLUSIONS

Perceptions of current educational control in the Atlantic provinces have confirmed the presence of a highly centralized educational governance structure indicative of a traditional system somewhat closed to environmental input. Firm control by government over two decision areas - curriculum and instruction and finance and business management - suggests a relative absence of local initiative in

decisions relating to curriculum and district/school financing. Four decision areas - organizational structure, staff management, pupil management and school-community relations - revealed a strong local district control influence. Decisions in these areas pertain to the service mission of education (both school and district), necessitating daily decisional input from superintendents/directors, school boards and principals. It can be concluded that policies within these decisional areas are normally developed and implemented on a local basis. Generally, the educational system seems mainly receptive to input from local educators. Outside groups, such as the community, are perceived to wield currently little or no direct control influence.

With the exception of the department of education retaining strong control over curricular decisions, local school districts were perceived to exert considerable control over a majority of educational decision making throughout the five-year period between 1982 and 1987. In fact, the pattern of control remained relatively stable with the only major shift transpiring in the finance and business management area. Interestingly, the educational system as a whole was perceived to be immune throughout this period to input from community groups in all decision areas examined. Such a system might well be termed complex, bureaucratic and somewhat closed!

The bureaucratic educational control profile, along with the traditional authority pyramid perceived to exist in the Atlantic provinces between 1982 and 1987, was expected to remain essentially intact for the immediate future - 1987 to 1992. In other words, there would continue to be strong governmental control exerted over curriculum and instruction and finance and business management decisions, while local districts would continue to influence all other decision areas examined. Notwithstanding the positive control variation detected for each individual or group between 1987 and 1992, it can be concluded that according to the respondents a majority of educational decisions would continue to be made by professionals within a system perceived to remain highly centralized.

Whereas the traditional educational control profile was assumed to apply to all educational systems generally, regardless of district size or jurisdiction, respondents' perceptions were significantly affected by both variables, relative to past teacher control influence in staff management decisions. These same respondents' perceptions were similarly affected by the jurisdiction variable when projecting future superintendent/director control over pupil management decisioning. Since no research to date has suggested that these variables should affect perceptions of control, this finding represents a curious departure from the assumption previously stated.

Constituting a further surprise, Francophone respondents perceived their school boards, communities and teachers to wield greater control influence than did Anglophone respondents in a number of educational decisions. Francophone district autonomy relative to educational control was perceived to exist since 1982, when respondents described these systems as being more amenable than Anglophone systems to local community and educator control. Perceived responsiveness of Francophone districts to community input, while retaining a considerable degree of local autonomy throughout 1992, suggests that an attitude supportive of participatory democracy persists in these settings.

The impact of religion on Newfoundland respondents' perceptions of past and current control influence of principals represents an additional departure from current

literature in the area. Traditions associated with the denominational system of education in this province quite likely led to Roman Catholic principals being perceived as more influential than Protestant principals. However, the substantial decrease in the number of decisional areas impacted on by this factor between 1982 and 1987, and the fact that no decisional areas were projected to be so affected by 1992, leads one to conclude that whatever traditional impact religion was perceived to have had on the principal's role in local school decisioning would disappear by 1992. Administrative implications of such a conclusion can only be conjectured at this point in time.

Since only one out of four perceived centralizing factors between 1982 and 1987 was operational in nature, it might be concluded that the nature of environmental forces was such as to continue encouraging educational systems to become protective or somewhat closed to preserve control wielded by professional educators. In that the Charter of Rights and Freedoms (an environmental force) was viewed by respondents as having a strong centralizing effect on educational systems in the immediate future, it would appear that as systems cope with the pluralism associated with individual rights and freedoms, control wielded by both central office personnel and government will be increasingly intensified to minimize confrontation/conflict arising from individual interpretation of the law and participatory demands resulting therefrom.

Only one factor- permissive social climate-was perceived to consistently wield a decentralizing in Atlantic provincial education for the period 1982 to 1992. Respondents were obviously mindful of an environmental climate conducive to individuals and groups having a say in their destiny.

Based on respondents' personal opinion of how control shifts over educational decisions might affect their particular district, it can be concluded that the issue of who wields control was perceived to be very real, presenting an issue that must be administratively addressed. Moreover, superintendents/directors from four different provinces displayed familiarity with the politics of education to the extent that there was an awareness that governance in their respective districts was closely tied to the pluralist politics of educational control.

IMPLICATIONS

Since the perceived pattern of control wielded by various individuals and groups in educational decision making has been and will continue to be quite stable over the ten-year period studied, one might expect the status quo to remain in place vis-a-vis decision making. That is, curriculum and instruction decision making will reflect strong departmental control, slowing any effect local initiative in curriculum design might have in Atlantic provincial education. Moreover, since the finance and business management decision area will also remain within departmental control, local district autonomy with respect to district finances can be expected to remain minimal.

A generally perceived growth in control wielded by all individuals and groups between 1982 and 1992 notwithstanding, the role of the community in wielding control influence is worthy of further examination. If perceived growth is realized, the educational system will have to develop avenues whereby receptivity to interest/

pressure group demands can be utilized in the governance process. However, should the system fail to respond in this fashion, the future could well bring mounting community pressure and resulting conflict.

Given that respondents' perceptions of educational control were affected by district size and jurisdiction in specific decision areas over the ten-year period under study, it would appear that situational variables do influence local district governance. If this is the case, the traditional educational control profile hypothesized to apply in education can be expected to vary slightly throughout the Atlantic provinces such that governance in large urban districts may be somewhat anomalous to that in other settings. This has interesting implications for the "politicalness" of many educational roles.

Language has been confirmed as a significant factor in respondents' perceptions of educational control influence, in this instance suggesting that Francophone districts are somewhat unique in their openness to individual and group decisional input. This implies that changes connected with the professional autonomy-popular participation debate are occurring in these settings. It is possible that these districts can provide important clues for enhancing system responsiveness to both professional and community influence across the Atlantic provinces. In particular, advancements in school community relations may be derived from careful study of these unique settings.

The fact that religion significantly affected respondents' perceptions of past and current control, but not projected control, suggests that whatever differences have derived from the denominational nature of Newfoundland education may diminish in the future. This finding provides an important clue for the need to closely examine the Newfoundland educational system in the light of current reality constraints so as to create a stream-lined denominational system of education attuned to the demands of the year 2000 and beyond.

Since moderate to strong control over educational decision making has been, is, and will continue to be exercised at the local district level in all decision areas examined, it might be expected that change in Atlantic provincial education will reflect local leadership. If this is the case, administrators' attitude towards change becomes crucial because, as change agents, they will have to lead rather than merely respond.

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CONSTRUCTING RELATIONSHIPS WITH SCHOOL

Joe Gedge
Assistant Superintendent
Exploits Valley Integrated School Board

INTRODUCTION

Over the past decade or so there have been many attempts to document problems with our education system and offer solutions to our high dropout rate and general low academic standing. There is no doubting the sincerity of these efforts but for the most part they have been limited by analytic techniques of statistical correlation and thus have failed to capture the reality by which people live their lives. And there is no intention in this article to undermine the changes that we have effected in this province over the last few years; yet we continue to have serious problems in our schooling. We do have the largest dropout rate in Canada and the lowest scores on just about any measure of academic achievement. I would also conjecture that were we really to inquire into the morale of teachers in this province, we would find that they are highly dissatisfied with their work and frustrated by the way their professionalism is repressed. But perhaps the phenomenon that is most unique to this province, and the one that might eventually lead us into meaningful research, is the great difference that exists between rural and urban schools. Here rural and urban are not cast in terms of size, whether one town is larger or smaller than another, but are understood instead as differences in life style, family practice, socioeconomic conditions, and student aspirations, all of which help shape subjectivities and constitute the raw material from which parents and children construct their relationships with school.

It seems to me that if we are to get at the root of problems with our schools we have to go beyond restating and deploring the symptoms. To understand schooling in this province we must inquire deeply into the broad situational reality that Althusser (quoted in Apple, 1979, p. 253) defines as "complex interconnections, contradictions, and sets of ideological, structural, and cultural relationships that loosely determine any social process." And if we are to be moral in our prescriptions we must be sensitive to the consequences that our decisions have on other peoples' lives. We must, it seems to me,

consciously strive to hear that which is not audibly spoken, that we examine our own practices - and those of society- to find the roots of oppression, until we can assure ourselves and others that each child has reached his or her own potential. To do less is a disservice to education; to do less is to deny the collective and social potential in ourselves; to do less is not good enough. (Olson, 1984, p. 133).

We must always be mindful "that schooling is more than a straight-forward mix of neutral curriculum and antiseptic pedagogy ... for the contents of the curriculum (be they authoritarian or permissive; directive or participatory) are root, trunk, and branch moral issues whose implementation forms the core image of what we perceive as sacred and profane, valuable and worthless."

In other words, we, as educational leaders, must come to understand the essence of the reality that we help construct and live. It is not good enough that we pontificate from our position of authority or knowledge. Neither is it sufficient to buttress our

impositions against the technocratic rationality of expediency and objectivity, for objective techniques are used by subjective will and intention.

The study from which the few comments offered in this article are lifted was guided by those principles as it explored the construction of student relationships with school. This was an ethnographic study conducted in two different socio-economic communities in the province, one being a fishing community and the other built from commercial and professional activity. The interpretation offered comes from interviews with sixteen Grade Nine students, their parents and teachers, along with classroom observation over a three-month period, and description of community life and family practices. In addition, curriculum materials and selected documents such as teaching guides and committee reports were critiqued as to their relevance to the problems that children seem to be presenting.

This study attempted to learn more about why some students do well while others do poorly. The exploration was twofold: the first component dealt with the ideological interplay expressed as relational patterns among the family, community, and school. It looked at how relations with school are shaped by the latent and operant ideologies and practices obtaining in the home, school, and larger community, and as a secondary question, it was about how this relationship varies across urban and rural sites. As a second component it analyzed the curriculum and curriculum process with a view to understanding what there is about the learning experience that alienates so many students. The first part of this article deals with relations as a matter of ideology. The second focuses on the curriculum.

A relational design was adopted on the assumption that student attachment to and success in school somewhat result from the interaction that is established from the subjective and objective conditions children experience at home and in the community, and the meanings they ascribe to everyday lived experience.

Since I thought it important to avoid the type of analysis derived from correlational data and mathematical manipulation in the positivist tradition, this inquiry was developed from a set of critical concepts and the notion of situational and structural causality. That is to say, instead of trying to isolate specific variables or factors and ascribe variance value to them, I sought to get some insight into student response patterns by describing and interpreting a broad section of the social context in which students find themselves. This interpretation was advanced against established critical concepts, the principal ones being ideology, culture, class, the sociology of knowledge, and hegemony. (See for instance Giroux 1981 and 1983.)

Relations as a Matter of Ideology

In the broadest terms, the kind of relationships that children construct with school is shaped from the cultural context which they inherit and in which they live, and their concern about jobs, both in the symbolic sense having to do with status and the like and in the economic sense of ensuring a reasonable standard of living for themselves and their children. This relationship, at least in part, stems from the internalized ideology and identity that people make with their cultural and class conditions. The ideology and practices that define the relationships with school grow from concrete experiences that people have, the objects in the environment in which people live, and the histories that help shape their subjectivity. Children are continually surrounded by messages that

speak in one way or another to school. These messages are telegraphed through family discourse, through the subtleties of family relations and example, and are embedded in the material content of daily life such as family pictures and shared anecdotes. Some speak to the benefits of schooling by way of family encouragement and example, while others question the use of education by showing the success of friends and relatives who have done well without an education both in and out of the province. Others see an economic pessimism that deters them from the compromise and discipline required by school. They ask, what is the sense of getting an education when many who have must still go to the mainland to find work or remain unemployed? Family influence, through encouragement and control, sometimes effects the desired goal while others establish a bond with their cultural experience and environment that is of more value than the benefits of school. For those latter students, schooling has neither intrinsic interest nor extrinsic appeal. They do not enter the competition nor submit to its demands. To the contrary, they often exhibit behaviours that are irritating to parents and teachers and disruptive in school.

People expressed a pride in and bonding with their cultural and natural surroundings. They showed a pride in their skills and satisfaction in mastering a sometimes harsh and demanding economic reality. The value that these people place on manual and physical skills and the importance to their daily lives often compete with the respect they hold for academic and abstract knowledge offered in school. They also felt advantaged by fresh air, clean water, and the freedom to explore and enjoy local resources. As one man indicated, he would trade employment for these privileges. Some in fact do. Fishermen often spoke of the adventure and autonomy associated with the fishery, even though the financial rewards were often marginal and had to be supplemented by government.

So, regardless of how particular life styles are viewed by the makers of hegemony or where they fit in the social mosaic, there are those who hold on, with gratitude, pride, and a deep sense of accomplishment, to the life with which they are familiar. There is an intransigent resolution to perpetuate the culture they have inherited and an almost stubborn indignation for those who suggest otherwise. But, at the same time, there is an implicit plea for recognition and equality - recognition of the richness and quality of their life style and cultural capital. While only subtly expressed, and perhaps not well understood, they seem to be asking for admission into mainstream social values and school practice. They find, though, that instead of enriching their culture and building personal confidence, schools implicitly invite them to abandon their roots, identity, and life style in favour of an alternative they neither value nor desire.

For those people, cultural dislocation is neither easy nor desirable. One respondent, who wished something different for his daughter than he was prepared to sacrifice for himself, made this point quite poignantly: "I'm quite happy living here in Happy Haven. I like the hunting and fishing. I can handle unemployment just for that." There is one fact of most rural communities that should not be overlooked. For those who wish to stay in this social milieu, fishing and other manual jobs are always a possibility, and they require absolutely no formal schooling. Furthermore, the fishery promises a longevity, a sense of long-term security, that is not offered by many of the industrial projects undertaken in this province.

School means something different for those who see it as a means to an end. The relationship is one of attachment and compatibility which serve as motivational forces in that the school is seen as the vehicle, the passage-way, to a better life. This motivation

is not intrinsic to the experience but lies largely in the by-product - the promise. For those children who see schooling as a credential for admission into postsecondary institutions, or the security and status of high paying and prestigious jobs, it matters little what the content of the curriculum is because the immediate discontent is suppressed by the long-term goal. The fact that many students who expressed a dislike for the immediate experience continued to apply themselves seems to indicate that they would buy into school regardless of the curriculum. The only concern that these people showed about the content was whether or not it advanced their chances at post-secondary institutions. For instance, the desire to have chemistry in the school was not out of intrinsic interest but out of concern for admission to and general preparedness for a university education.

These students wish to do different things with their lives and see the school as a vehicle or passageway to a better life. They view the school as the provider of credentials required to buy into or maintain a set of benefits they have learned to value and desire. The fact that it requires a cultural shift has no negative consequence because their vision is not tied to the status quo. Regardless of the price or the lack of intrinsic interest in the immediate experience, those students attach themselves diligently to their goal, and for the most part succeed.

For those, however, whose vision is not advanced by school and must rely on intrinsic relevance and pleasing social relations, the story is much different. These students have neither intrinsic interest nor are they motivated by the ulterior and extrinsic pay off. They simply see no reason to buy into the institution we call school. There are good moral reasons why we should not attempt to alter other people's view of the good life but since attendance at school is a social obligation, it seems reasonable that the experience be somehow rewarding to the individual as well as to society. It is also reasonable to expect that if these students were presented a more relevant experience their attachment might be stronger and achievement higher.

The second and perhaps the more pragmatic ingredient in shaping the nature of this relationship is economic and status utilitarianism. School, for the most part, is sold and understood as preparation for a job. For those with low motivation, schooling has virtually no extrinsic appeal nor intrinsic interest except that generated by the enthusiasm of teachers, their sensitive interaction with students, and judicious navigation through the learning materials. The motivation that students have for school stems primarily from the extrinsic benefits that its credentials provide relative to the labour market and social status. Success in schooling becomes important to those seeking upward mobility and to those whose families have already achieved social prominence because the type of job, such as manual or mental, indoors or outdoors, reflects and symbolizes the social hierarchy in our class structure. For those whose aspirations can be fulfilled through the application of practical skills, such as those required by fishermen, miners, or unskilled labourers, which of course are peripheral to the hegemonic school curriculum, schooling serves no real purpose and thus has little if any appeal.

This underlying tension is present in both urban and rural schools in that personal satisfaction and the views that people hold about their lives are inextricably tied to school. School, in turn, is demonstrably biased in favour of what has become understood as middle class values and the implicit virtue of its life style. Thus, this narrow and unidimensional *raison d'être* of school evokes a clear response from most of the students; it is either necessary and useful, or irrelevant and useless. Consequently, since it is most often found useless in rural areas, as shown through higher dropout rates, the problem emerges more clearly and most poignantly around the configuration of class differences,

in this case rural versus urban. Many students view schooling, as it is currently understood and practised, to be neither relevant to nor necessary for the jobs that accompany and sustain the economics of this cultural group. Nor, of course, does it add much to the quality of life followed in this so-called lower class of rural Newfoundland.

The observations that people offered suggest that people exposed to urban life see a more immediate need for education and more often make direct linkage between school credentials and socio-economic security. They see a wider variety of vocational possibilities that require schooling, and thus they develop a more positive response. Some parents in the rural area have achieved a satisfying social status through schooling and are intent on having their children maintain this accomplishment. Others have not yet arrived but are still climbing the pyramid. There are still others, especially in the rural area, for whom schooling has little purpose or relevance to either their present lived reality or to an aspired future. They are not dependent on the school's credentials nor are their lives enhanced by what it offers. Consequently, they have abandoned its ideological promise and rejected its labour. Simply stated, schooling, in both its objective and subjective forms, caters to the interests of some and alienates the others. No matter how the argument is presented, fishing and many of the other non-skilled jobs in Newfoundland, do not depend on book learning or the education peddled by schools.

It seems, then, that some major shifts in the meaning and purpose of schooling and how it is presented are necessary if students are to build a positive and supportive relationship. Perhaps the most basic, is the need for educators to adopt a critical orientation to their profession so that they may examine the status quo and ask fundamental questions about the nature of school, and its relevance to personal growth and social building: whom does school serve and why? It seems we must, as Greenfield (1986) argues, seek to understand the essence of the phenomena that constitute schooling and "begin ... with a conception that sees administration (and leadership) as a set of existential and ethical issues" (p. 73). In this regard, school promoters should recognize the cultural diversity that exists in this province and realize the strong bond that often develops between people and their class. We must therefore add cultural enrichment to the purposes of school and legitimize the cultural capital that is available from our local environment and history. Finally, we must realize that all classes or cultural groups have a need for and right to a job and economic security, competence and confidence in their culture, and a sense of legitimation in the total social fabric.

Relations as A Matter of Curriculum

An analysis of curriculum materials and the verbal response of teachers and students further illuminates the relational interplay around school discussed in Part I of this article by showing the tension that exists between students and teachers and the learning materials they are presented. This evidence strengthens the basic thesis that, for those students who do not have an ulterior purpose for school, their negative response and lower level of achievement, which has been found to signal dropout, result from their view that the schooling experience is irrelevant to their personal lives and culture.

Students are struggling with a curriculum that they view to be largely irrelevant and inappropriate. The amount of material is overwhelming for students, as well as teachers, resulting in an over preoccupation with covering the course and getting the program done. Furthermore, the substance of the content for the most part ignores the

local cultural and historical reality and stands in competition with a way of life that is highly valued and emulated by many students. And, the curriculum is basically abstract and is thus incomprehensible to many students, making for low level memorized learning, further alienating students from learning and the practical knowledge and skills that sustain life in much of Newfoundland.

Tension in the classroom arises when students are confronted with curriculum materials they consider irrelevant, too broad, and generally abstruse. Their response is negative and often troublesome for teachers whose role becomes primarily mediatory. That is to say that teachers' time and energy are directed more at mediating the negative responses of students than in directing the learning of a highly motivated cohort of learners. They are constantly trying to devise control strategies and invent motivational techniques in an effort to maintain the viability of schooling and ensure relative success for themselves and their students.

Teachers openly confess that the students' learning is for the most part low level and largely meaningless, but yet they feel obliged to adhere to the prescribed and packaged programs. They seem to be restrained and bracketed by the real and symbolic authority embedded in textbooks, teacher guides, and other departmental documents, even though they have a deep understanding of and generally subscribe to the current principles of instructional theory calling for relevance, creative and critical thinking, resource based teaching, discovery learning, and flexible programming. By attempting to make the curriculum materials relevant to local interests and be innovative in their teaching approaches, teachers show a genuine commitment to the learning and personal needs of their students. As well, they demonstrate an expertise and competence that is unfortunately underutilized but would no doubt be more pronounced were they free to make professional decisions.

Their prime role, though, as facilitators of learning, is thwarted by the inconsistency and contradiction between the degree to which they are held responsible on the one hand, and on the other by the degree to which they are given the autonomy and freedom to do what they feel necessary and effective. Consequently, teachers are torn between their own philosophical orientations and the prescriptions handed down through curriculum related documents. For the most part, given this dichotomy, they choose the legally safe route and cover the material as best they can, realizing at the same time that learning is virtually rote and low level. However, when the syllabus invites discretion and offers flexibility, as in the Junior High English program, teachers generally choose a series of learning experiences that is effective and satisfying to most students. In those cases the tension and conflict are less severe and relationships more positive and constructive.

The current practice which produces this curriculum appears to be sustained by a set of assumptions and principles that are incongruous with the reality it intends to fit. First, it is based on the view that curriculum is principally a commodity, a set of materials that can be identified, packaged, and delivered to, and ultimately consumed by students. It is perhaps this commodity orientation that causes the concern for coverage, which in large measure influences what teachers do creating anxiety within and tension between teachers around the implicit expectation to cover curriculum materials. The reason that teachers teach from the textbook is precisely because that is how curriculum is understood and presented to them. In this regard teachers are as much victims of a "system" as are students. It is also possible that teacher burn-out comes from having to bury their personal expertise and professionalism under a blanket of prescription and

routine passed down by others. Second, there is the strong suggestion that the knowledge selected is neutral, unbiased, and appropriate for all learners, except of course for those whose intellectual ability is inferior and incapable of learning the regular program. For them, alternative programs or lower level forms of the conventional material are authorized. Third, it is assumed that teachers and students are, and should be, passive consumers rather than interactors and mediators in the creation of knowledge and meaning. And, fourth, a consensual perspective on organization activity is taken for granted, as opposed to a view that acknowledges a cultural process played out around perceptual and ideological differences. The problems ensuing from those rather debilitating assumptions are further exacerbated by a curriculum process that is undeniably centralist, clearly reflecting a lack of confidence or trust in teacher competence and suspicion of professional discretion. It is as if learning in mathematics, music, and the like would not be as good were teachers not following and held accountable for provincially prescribed program materials.

The implicit assumptions on the part of curriculum developers that curriculum is simply a packageable and consumable commodity and that they are operating in a homogeneous social and bureaucratic structure result in tight prescriptions regarding content, priorities, and time, depriving teachers the freedom required to negotiate meaningful learning experiences for children. This regulatory system is based on a hierarchical notion of organization and arises no doubt from a perceived need to be accountable, on the assumption that those in higher positions have the authoritative right or administrative prerogative to impose on others even though for the most part teachers are as qualified and diligent as their superordinates. In the abstract, teachers are cast as professionals with knowledge, expertise, and discretion, but in practice they are treated as a historical, a philosophical, and passive consumers of others' decisions, even though they hear rhetoric espousing the need to adjust the materials and asking for a pedagogy to suit the learning needs of students.

The assumption that curriculum is a neat packageable commodity to be delivered to and consumed by teachers and students fails to recognize the complex negotiation process that engages students and teachers at the classroom level. The assumed neutrality of school knowledge misses the ideographic nature of reality and the cultural diversity in this province. There is, of course, an aspect of neutrality, or commonality, in our curriculum in that it is nearly universally unappealing and considered by many to be "junk." But in so far as cultural and class relevance is an issue, the materials are anything but neutral. They are accepted for their surface utility by those seeking the long-term promise offered, but are virtually insulting to those who desire cultural enrichment and wish to build personal confidence to live in rural Newfoundland.

Teachers' comments and classroom performance indicate that teachers are caught in an uneasy dilemma between philosophical demands for forward looking teaching strategies and the practical restraints imposed by others. This tension, exacerbated by the reality that teachers are ultimately responsible for its success, gives rise to feelings of self-guilt which further undermines the confidence required if schools are to be responsive to children. It seems that teachers need to express their expertise and competence in making decisions and feel confident that their decisions are legitimate and trusted.

The conventional definitions of and approach to curriculum thus effectively restrict its meaning to the surface features of school programs or course content, hiding the basic assumptions and implicit principles that are perhaps more important and of greater

consequence than the material itself. It is perhaps time that we develop a much broader orientation which acknowledges at least four dimensions to curriculum.

(1) **A basic orientation** - the underlying principles and assumptions. We must move away from the stereotypical notion that curriculum is a packageable commodity arrived at through the selection of textbooks. Instead, it must be viewed as a dynamic, professional, and collaborative process of selecting learning experiences that have intrinsic appeal more appropriate to the personal and learning needs of the student.

(2) **The process** - the procedures of curriculum development and manner of presentation to teachers and students. Surely, with the quality of our teaching force, the availability of support services, and almost continuous professional development, we can decentralize our curriculum making activities and legitimize and build on what some teachers are already doing by way of making learning, and thus schooling, more relevant. It is time we began looking outward, focusing on the reality we should be serving instead of brokering professional rhetoric and textbook publication.

(3) **The form** - the nature of the learning materials and how they are packaged for distribution and learning. Learning resources need be neither abstract nor abstruse, and in many cases learning need not be vicarious. To the contrary, teachers should be freed to make curriculum from a variety of resources, both material and human. Since learning is enriched by interaction with other people perhaps more than from textualized knowledge, why are people not a more integral part of the curriculum we present to students?

(4) **The content** - the specifics of the learning materials that are selected and prescribed. Here, suffice it to say that local content should form a greater proportion of the curriculum. We must challenge the assumption and question the tradition that imported knowledge is superior to that which is local and indigenous.

If we take a broader and more dynamic orientation to curriculum, it becomes the most central and vital aspect of the whole schooling enterprise. All other parts are tied directly and dependently to the way curriculum is made, thus serving to enable or restrict fundamental efforts in the transformation of school. Expectations of and for leadership revolve essentially around programming and instruction, which in turn are directly tied to the reality of the curriculum process. The freedom of teachers and other local educators to modify or make curriculum to fit cultural and individual needs is in no small measure influenced by the curriculum process and the control mechanisms that are unwittingly or otherwise built into curriculum materials and teacher guides. The meaning that students attribute to school and the ensuing relational patterns are largely shaped by the intrinsic appeal and relevance of their daily learning experiences. And, the level of professionalism and morale of those working in the field are closely tied to their role in curriculum making.

Thus, it can be argued, curriculum is the nexus and nucleus around which to build practical solutions to the problems we define, whether they be related to achievement, dropout, or various forms of discipline. It is through curriculum that teachers and other educators may exercise the professional or discretionary dimension of their role. And, it is curriculum that provides the empowering leverage to construct an educational experience that is more attractive and rewarding to the children that schools intend to serve. It is around curriculum that educators can be challenged and genuinely held

responsible to practice a pedagogy that is rewarding to themselves and enriching for their students.

A reconciliation of these tensions and contradictions, then, seems to require some major shift in the perspective on and practices of curriculum making in this province. It seems necessary that curriculum architects adopt a perspective on curriculum that acknowledges its negotiated dimension, allowing a clearer focus on the work and perception of teachers. Instead of closeting the process, it should be more decentralized and flexible to allow teachers the flexibility and freedom to select content and make curriculum that begins with the experience and knowledge that has local appeal and relevance. Instead of an approach that at best looks inward from a foreign perspective, learning would likely be enriched if the world were presented in the first instance through the windows of local experience and lived anecdotes.

A full diet of academic and abstract knowledge that deals mainly with other people's lives and their physical space results in a paralysis of student interest and frozen optimism. Knowledge that is packaged in textbook form, symbolically and concretely blocks out and belittles what students, parents, and teachers might have to offer, and, in a moral sense, eclipses the heritage on which these people stand. Even though program packages are presented along with explicit expectations for creative and resource-based teaching, the control built into the symbols and procedural detail effects only low level learning and student cultural alienation.

The centralist perspective on curriculum making virtually disempowers practising professionals, reducing pedagogy to low level and superficial teaching strategies around mostly , foreign and irrelevant curriculum packages. Teachers can do little more than fantasize change and negotiate around internal self-perpetuating obstacles. There is little autonomy to lead and little discretion in making learning organic to the culture it serves. And, the climate of the school continues to be shaped by feelings of cultural and professional rejection, inferiority, and fatalism. Consequently, it would seem necessary that the perspective on and process of curriculum development be loosened to allow, and expect, more equality among professionals in the creation of culturally and personally relevant learning, and collaborative leadership.

It seems that a significant aspect of improving students' relationships with school and thus in increasing the effectiveness of schooling lies with building professional confidence among teachers and other local educators by providing them the competence to practice truly resource-based teaching so that they can construct curriculum that is personally rewarding and culturally enriching. Teachers must be encouraged to integrate local resources, both material and human, into the learning experiences they offer children in this province.

Curriculum makers must also recognize the element of contestation and bias and accept the reality that selected knowledge is neither neutral nor objective. At the same time it must be realized that there is no virtue or benefit in replacing one form of inequality with another. Since no single prescription would avoid this problem, the sensible response seems to be to provide real alternatives such as those we see in the Junior High English program, which would allow flexibility, discretion, and relevance, foster teacher confidence, and give authority and ownership to local educators.

It is argued, then, that were the perspective on curriculum broadened, the process of construction decentralized, and the form modified to allow more human input, which

would make it less abstract and more resource based, schooling would in all likelihood reflect more realistically the context on which it was made, and thus increase interest among students. This position does not imply that the conventional disciplines of knowledge disappear nor is it intended that the integral concepts that support these disciplines be abandoned. The core argument is that the content or surface features of the curriculum should be changed to reflect the natural and social environment in which students live, which in turn would symbolize a greater respect for the lives and cultures of the people served. This argument is presented also on the premise that it is not so much the surface features per se of the curriculum that matter in the learning process as the quality of interaction that obtains between the teacher and student and the interest that students show for the subject. Standards and quality seem to be conversely related to the level of abstraction, since when students did not understand the material, they reverted to memorization and teachers to coaching. Also, in this regard, since many students do not see school fitting into the big picture, the only alternative, it seems, is to modify or rig the experience in a way that is personally gratifying and rewarding. This alternative, as long as it prepares students for post-secondary education and satisfies job market requirements, would not only be accepted, but in all likelihood would enhance the quality of learning for all students. And since the argument for job relevance is not so much in terms of specific skills but in general thinking capabilities and knowledge, it should matter little what the content of the curriculum is, providing it ensures intellectual rigor and scholarship.

It must also be realized that some subjects need be modified less than others, since the nature of the content varies across disciplines. Mathematics for instance carries with it a somewhat standard language and a universal set of concepts limiting the need for cultural adjustment. Yet problem solving seems to be gaining some prominence as a piece of mathematical inquiry and might thus open up some possibilities for such modification.

This article is not advocating, nor did teachers appear to be asking for, complete independence in the curriculum process. The specifics of their involvement would have to be worked out within a prudent and judicious framework, but there seems to be a need for greater involvement on the part of teachers in the process. The Department of Education must continue to play a vital role in education in this province but their ideology would perhaps be better served were they more sensitive to and in tune with reality than with abstract ideas. In any case there is no evidence to suggest anything but improvement were teachers given more discretion in and ownership for curriculum making. To the contrary, where experienced teachers are adapting programs to suit the interests of students, the level of student understanding seemed to increase along with the enthusiasm and morale of teachers. Teachers seem to carry the necessary knowledge around in their minds from their own education and experience, and attempt to ensure that students reach a reasonable level of performance before advancing.

The possibility of making school too provincial obviously calls for balance and reason. It would not be sensible to discount the fact that children in Newfoundland live in and are co-consumers of modern society. And it would be unwise to provide them an education that would preclude smooth transition from one setting to another. To make this interpretation from this article is to mistake its main message, which is to make children sufficiently comfortable with and confident in their own culture and themselves to participate effectively and confidently in the world at large. It seems that before children can learn others' language they must have internalized one of their own. Before one can appreciate others' history, he or she must understand and appreciate his or her

own. And before one can acquire a world view, one must first look through local windows. No, the curriculum should not be totally local but sufficiently so to build an affinity with and prevent alienation from that which is familiar and indigenous.

A Final Word

The few observations that I have shared in these articles invite some fundamental rethinking and suggest a basic reorientation to the way we perceive our roles. As Paul Olson was quoted to say in Part I of this article:

We (must) consciously strive to hear that which is not audibly spoken, ... (and) examine our own practices - and those of society-to find the roots of oppression, until we can assure ourselves and others that each child has reached his or her own potential. To do less is a disservice to education; to do less is to deny the collective and social potential in ourselves; to do less is not good enough.

Schooling, though, will not be made better easily or simply as a consequence of documents such as this one. Instead, fundamental changes in attitude and practice are required, within ourselves, in teacher training institutions, the Department of Education, and school boards to empower teachers to respond to the rights of all students to a high school education. And, it is crucial that teachers use critical concepts and theory to understand the cultural context in which they operate so that they may help construct a new reality of equality and optimism within themselves and among those whom they serve.

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SMALL SECONDARY SCHOOLS: MAKING BETTER USE OF DISTANCE EDUCATION

**Austin J. Harte
Principal
Roncalli High School**

Introduction

During the summer of 1987, as part of the Ed.D. program at the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, Toronto, I completed an internship at Ontario's Independent Learning Centre (ILC). An interest in small schools led me to examine how correspondence or, as it is more frequently referred to nowadays, distance education, can be used to supplement the day-school programs of small secondary schools. Subsequently, I developed a project whereby having identified a number of small secondary schools as successful users of ILC courses, I surveyed these schools in an attempt to determine why they had a higher than average success rate. The findings of my research were not surprising. They confirmed what I suspected - success with distance education in the day-school setting has much to do with the degree of structure imposed at the school level and the extent that the school might be considered an "effective" school. What follows is a summation of my report on the use of ILC courses by small secondary schools in Ontario.

The starting point of my research was the hypothesis that small schools can generally make better use of correspondence courses than their larger counterparts. In the smaller school the administration may know all the students thus allowing for closer overall monitoring of student achievement. Students in small schools often rely less on the teacher and consequently have more opportunity for self-direction. Beckner (1983) claims that since individualization of instruction is often a necessity in small schools, these schools tend to be more learner centered with more independent learning. Tailoring schedules, instructional materials and programs to meet particular student needs is easier.

Veselka (1980) suggests, among other things, that the curriculum in small schools should have a strong emphasis on training in self-directed study and the development of initiative. Pinsent (1980) outlines a number of practical suggestions for improving the quality of small schools including the use of correspondence courses to enable students to gain credits not offered in the local school. He maintains that learning through correspondence can be as effective as regular instruction. Furthermore, he claims that if supervision is provided and students are self-motivated, the effectiveness can be enhanced.

My study attempted to determine what strategies are employed by five small schools identified as successful users of ILC courses. For the purpose of the study a secondary school was considered "small" if it has a student enrolment of 300 or less in grades 9 to 12 (1986-1987). It is considered an effective user of ILC courses if both its completion and activity rates with ILC courses are higher than average. Finally, a third purpose of this study was to make recommendations as to how small secondary schools in Ontario might improve their success rates with ILC courses.

The study utilized two methods of data collection: statistical analysis; and structured interviews conducted by telephone and, in one case, in person. The statistical

analysis involved the construction of activity rates and completion rates for some forty small secondary schools identified as users of ILC courses. The data on each school was retrieved from ILC's computer storage. Using TLC's comprehensive report forms, each school's percentage of students who completed or who were currently active as of May 31 (had submitted a lesson within the last 32 days) in courses for which they enrolled since April 1, 1985 was calculated as that school's activity rate. A separate completion rate as of May 31, 1987, was constructed for each school which enrolled students between April 1, 1985, and December 31, 1985. This completion rate was based on the assumption that any student who registered for a course between April 1, 1985, and December 31, 1985, had sufficient time to complete. In both cases the non-starters (those who registered but who did not submit at least one lesson) were omitted. Thus the completion and activity rates were based on the number of actual starters in each school. To increase the validity of the study all schools with less than ten students who actually started a course were dropped. From the remaining list of small schools five were identified as successful users of ILC courses. Table 1 below provides the completion and activity rates for the five schools.

TABLE I

SCHOOL	COMPLETION RATE*	ACTIVITY RATE**
1	38% (43%)	59% (71%)
2	55% (64%)	57% (63%)
3	60% (60%)	66% (66%)
4	N/A	79% (89%)
5	20% (50%)	33% (50%)

* Actual completion rate of students enrolled between April 1, 1985 and December 31, 1985. Figures in brackets excludes those students who failed to complete at least one lesson, i.e., non-starters.

** Present status of all students who enrolled since between April 1, 1985 and March 31, 1987. Figures in brackets excludes non-starters.

The teacher co-ordinators and principals of these five schools were interviewed in an attempt to determine why their schools had better than average success with distance education courses. Since the literature on effective schools stress the importance of the principal's role in determining the over-all learning environment characteristic of the school, it was felt that it would be important to determine the perceptions of the principal as to the value of ILC courses in his/her school. In other words, did effective users of ILC courses have principals who saw ILC as an effective means of improving the school program and who played an active role in monitoring the progress of students taking these courses? The questions posed to school co-ordinators and principals centered on such topics as:

- school imposed regulations and/or requirements
- screening and counselling services
- scheduling of ILC courses

- supervision of ILC students
- tutoring of ILC students
- monitoring of student progress
- role of the co-ordinator and principal

Conclusions

ILC offers a very worthwhile service to small secondary schools in the province of Ontario. For the most part, however, this service remains underutilized. While this study found that some 43 of a possible 61 small public, separate, and French-Language schools with an enrolment of 300 or less (approximately 70%) registered students with ILC, the actual completion rate is, in fact, only about 33 percent. The large majority of schools studied had completion rates much below fifty percent. Furthermore, if one was to include the non-starters, those who did not submit any lessons at all, the completion rate would be even much lower again.

There are, however, some small secondary schools, although few in number, which do appear to make more effective use of ILC courses. Five of those schools were identified in this study and their day-school co-ordinators and principals interviewed. The following conclusions are drawn from the analysis of the data collected through the interviews.

- A. Three of these five schools appear to be very structured in their use of ILC courses; the other two seem to be only somewhat structured. All, however, have in place a structure whereby students are screened and counselled before registering for a correspondence course and by which their progress is monitored on a continual basis. For example:
- while only two of the schools impose additional regulations beyond those set by ILC, all tend to use ILC regulations as a screen to discourage students they feel are not capable of independent learning. The general rule appears to be that if a student cannot make it in the classroom, he/she would not be able to handle correspondence courses and thus are discouraged from taking them. Generally, students must have demonstrated an ability for independent learning.
 - all five schools appear to have effective counselling services whereby students are made aware of the difficulties and responsibilities in completing a correspondence course.
 - regular checks are made to ensure that lessons are completed. In some cases students are, in fact, on a schedule set by their school; records are kept of completed lessons; and in two schools lessons are collected and mailed by the day-school co-ordinator.
 - in all five schools students are assigned to either the library or to a classroom during their spare period and are expected to work on their correspondence lessons. They are usually supervised and attendance is taken.
- B. It would seem that much of the success with distance education courses in the five schools studied depends upon the day-school coordinator. The co-ordinators

interviewed appear to project a positive attitude towards ILC courses and, in fact, treat them much like any other school course, checking to ensure that lessons are completed and that students are on-task.

- C. The active support of the principal was evident in all five schools. The principals interviewed recognize the value of ILC courses in supplementing their school's program but at the same time realize the problems inherent with correspondence courses in high school. In two of the interviews, the problem of adequate time to monitor student progress was raised.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are based on the data analyzed in this study; they represent the views of the writer and not necessarily those of ILC.

1. **ILC courses used in day-school instruction should be more structured.**

If ILC courses are to be more successful in the day-school situation, they must be structured more along the lines of the regular day school courses. It is recommended that in the case of day-school students a greater number of supervised examinations be given. At the very minimum the present unsupervised mid-term examination should be changed to a supervised examination.

Small secondary schools could make greater use of ILC courses by structuring them within the school timetable and corresponding with the school year or term. Several courses, each with a low student enrolment, could be scheduled at the same time with one "teacher facilitator" acting as a resource person.

2. **Counselling and screening of students taking distance education courses should be increased.**

Schools should exercise greater control over who is permitted to register for correspondence courses without supervision. Students should have demonstrated the ability for independent learning and should be counselled as to the level of difficulty of the course and the internal requirements set by the school.

3. **Monitoring of student progress at the school level should be increased.**

Students completing ILC courses through a day-school should not be left on their own. The school should take the responsibility for scheduling the students' work, checking the completion of lessons and reporting the progress to parents. The student contract used by some schools might be one means of increasing the credibility of taking a correspondence course. The day-school co-ordinator, with the support of the principal, must ensure that the students taking correspondence courses are task-oriented.

4. **Day-school co-ordinators should be provided greater time to carry out their responsibilities.**

In many small schools given adequate guidance services, many of the responsibilities of co-ordinating correspondence courses could be assigned to the counsellor who, in turn, could rely upon the support of other staff members.

It is the belief of this writer that the services offered by ILC can be of enormous benefit to small secondary schools. The onus, however, is on the school to take advantage of these services and to fit them within the existing parameters of the day-school. There is usually a greater opportunity in small schools for close monitoring of student progress. Much depends, I suspect, upon the extent to which the small school might be considered an effective school - a school with a mission to provide the broadest opportunities for its students. But let us not, for one moment, think that even an effective school cannot become even more effective!

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LEGAL CONSIDERATIONS IN SCHOOL BOARD-STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS

Jim Cooze
Faculty of Education

Understanding why a school board enjoys corporate status requires looking at the nature of a corporation in law. Hence, this article gives a brief overview of the nature of a corporation. Consideration is also given to the concept of occupier's liability, as well as the duty owed by the school board to the student in this regard. And, using case illustrations, an analysis of different situations which could result in school boards being held vicariously liable for the negligent acts of their teachers is provided, along with the school board's liability for student injuries resulting from student transportation.

THE SCHOOL BOARD AS A CORPORATION

In the eyes of the law a corporation is a person; that is, it is viewed as a legal person. However, in order to distinguish between the corporate legal person and the human legal person the corporation is sometimes called a legal entity rather than a legal person (Symth & Soberman, 1983). In fact, according to Black's Law Dictionary a corporation is

An artificial person or legal entity created by or under the authority of a state or nation ... ordinarily consisting of an association of numerous individuals, who subsist as a body politic ..., which is regarded in law as having a personality and existence distinct from that of its several members, and which is, by the same authority vested with the capacity of continuous succession, irrespective of changes in the membership, either in perpetuity or for a limited term of years, and of acting as a unit or single individual in matters relating to the common purpose of the association, within the scope of the powers and authorities conferred upon such bodies by law.

Thus, the corporation is regarded, in law, as a distinct entity which is separate from the individuals who comprise it. The corporation is capable of entering into contracts; it can sue and be sued; it can own property, and it can contract debts (Lipsey et al., 1982).

It is generally held that school boards, since they have a legal identity similar to private corporations, may be classified as quasi-corporations (Valente, 1980). According to Enns (1963:36), even though the school board has corporate status, it cannot be considered a municipal corporation. In fact, he points out that the American courts have held that "a school district is a quasi-municipal corporation." In addition, Enns draws a distinction between a municipal corporation and a quasi-municipal corporation in that the former has a dual function (private or proprietary, and governmental), whereas the quasi-municipal corporation has only a governmental function, that of providing educational services.

In a similar vein, Anderson (1983:3) points out that the school board, as a corporation, "can do only those things it is empowered to do by statute", and, should its members act beyond these powers, "the acts are ultra vires." Furthermore, she notes that a school board trustee may be held personally liable for his or her actions if it can be shown that the trustee acted maliciously, capriciously, in a discriminatory manner, or in bad faith.

TORT LIABILITY AND THE CORPORATION

According to Halsbury's Laws of England (Simonds ed., Vol. 9, 1954: 87-88), a corporation is liable to be sued for any tort provided that

1. it is a tort in respect of which an action would lie against a private individual;
2. the person by whom the tort is actually committed is acting within the scope of his authority and in the course of employment as agent of the corporation; and,
3. the act complained of is not one which the corporation would not, in any circumstances, be authorized by its constitution to commit.

Thus, an action will lie against a corporation for such torts as trespass, assault, negligence, nuisance, malicious prosecution, and libel. In order to make the corporation liable for such acts "the relation of principal and agent, or master and servant, must be established between the corporation and the person who commits the tort in respect of the tort in question" (p. 88). If damages should result during the proper exercise of statutory functions by the corporation, then it is exonerated from any action at common law.

NONFEASANCE AND MISFEASANCE

Even though school corporations are granted discretionary powers by the legislature they are not obligated to use them and there is no liability for not doing so. However, if they do exercise discretionary powers, they must strictly adhere to the terms of the statute and may, in the event of exercising that power imperfectly, be liable for any resultant injuries. Moreover, where a statute imposes a duty to exercise a particular power, failure to do so could result in an action for injury by the party for whose benefit the duty was imposed. Furthermore, if there is no absolute duty, but merely a duty to exercise reasonable care and diligence, then in the case of injury, the onus is on the plaintiff to prove negligence or misfeasance in the matter (Simonds, Vol. 30, 1954).

SCHOOL BOARD AND OCCUPIER'S LIABILITY

Occupier's liability refers to that domain of the law which deals with the liability of an owner or occupier of land for injuries sustained by persons while on the land; and, since it is a branch of the law of negligence, consideration

must be given to the duty owed by the occupier or owner to the different categories of persons who, from time to time, might enter upon the land. In addition, consideration must be given as to whether or not the occupier meets the standard imposed by the law in a particular case (Mackay, 1984).

The standard imposed on the occupier will vary according to the category to which the visitor belongs. These categories are described by Symth and Soberman (1983:81) in the following order - invitee, licensee, and trespasser - with the occupier owing the highest obligation to the invitee and the least obligation to the trespasser.

An invitee is described by these legal writers as being a person who has the permission of the occupier to enter "the land" on business; in this situation the occupier obtains some material benefit, or at least the probability of a benefit, from the invitee's presence. An example of an invitee would be a customer in a retail store. In such a case, the duty owed by the occupier to the invitee involves his taking steps to prevent injuries from hazards of which he is aware and also those of which, as a reasonable person, he ought to be aware. Consequently, an occupier will be liable for an injury caused to an invitee by a hazard of which he had no knowledge, as long as it can be proven that if he had taken reasonable care he would have known about the hazard.

The licensee category includes visitors who are on the property with the tacit or express permission of the occupier but from whom the occupier will not receive any economic benefit. An example would be a friend paying a social visit in which case the duty of the occupier to the licensee is to remove potential hazards of which he has knowledge. However, even though a reasonable person in the place of the occupier ought to have realized that a hazard existed, the occupier, in this case, has no liability for hazards unknown to him.

A trespasser is a person who is on the property without the invitation or permission of the occupier; he is there unlawfully. As a result, the duty owed by an occupier to a trespasser is minimal; however, the occupier must guard against deliberately creating an unsafe condition that would be injurious to the trespasser, such as, setting traps or firing a gun at him.

In general, students are considered as having the status of invitees while they are on school property and engaged in ordinary activities; and, as invitees, the standard of care owed to them is that enunciated by Justice Willes in the classic case of *Indermaur v. Dames*:

We consider it settled law that [the invitee], using reasonable care on his part for his own safety, is entitled to expect that the occupier shall on his part use reasonable care to prevent damage from unusual danger, which he knows or ought to know; and that, where there is evidence of neglect, the question whether such reasonable care has been taken, by notice, lighting, guarding or otherwise, and whether there was contributory negligence in the sufferer, must be determined by a jury as a matter of fact.

In a more recent Canadian case, *Portelance v. Board of Trustees of Roman Catholic Separate School for School Section No. 5*, Justice Schroeder of the Ontario Court of Appeal expressed the following similar view:

Inasmuch as pupils enter school premises not as mere volunteers or as a matter of grace, but in accordance with statutory right and duty, they enter "on business which concerns the occupier and upon his invitation, expressed or implied." Thus they are in the same position as persons who enter premises as of right, i.e., as invitees.

It is important to note, however, that, as MacKay (1984:147) points out, the courts have decided in several cases that the duty of care owed to students is higher than that owed to a regular invitee. For instance, in the case of *Brost v. Board of Trustees of Eastern Irrigation School Division No. 44 et al.*, the school principal and the school board were held liable for damages sustained by a six-year-old girl who was injured during school recess when she fell off a swing while being "pumped" quite high by another girl during which time, or at any other time, there was no supervision of the children by a teacher. In considering the applicability of the higher standard of care, Justice Ford of the Supreme Court of Alberta, Appellate Division, made the following comment:

The law that governs the degree of care of school authorities to safeguard pupils against injury must assert itself in the circumstances of any given case, and I think that the standard of care of a school board towards its pupils is of a higher degree than that to an invitee.

Consequently, it is clear from the foregoing that school boards have a duty to their students to take necessary precautions to make the school property as safe as possible and to warn students of any concealed or unusual dangers that may be present.

SCHOOL BOARD AND VICARIOUS LIABILITY

In law, a corporation is viewed as an artificial person which is distinct from its members and not capable of acting in *propria persona*; its acts must be executed only through its agents or servants. As a result, its liability is a vicarious liability for the acts of those servants or agents, who perform any act or neglect to do any act which is authorized or permitted by the corporation and lying within the scope of its agents' employment (Heuston, 1977:428).

The concept of vicarious liability has been defined by Fleming (1983:338) as follows:

We speak of vicarious liability when the law holds one person responsible for the misconduct of another, although he is himself free from personal blameworthiness or fault.

Hence, vicarious liability, as it applies to the school board, is an indirect liability in which the school board is responsible through no fault of its own for the wrongs committed by its servants (teachers, janitors, etc.), provided that the servants were acting in the course of their employment. As MacKay (1984:134) points out, the doctrine of vicarious liability has its origin in the law of master and servant where the employer was only liable for acts that resulted from the employer's order, but now vicarious liability "has been expanded to all torts committed by an employee while acting in the course of employment and extends well beyond actions that were expressly commanded by the employer." Furthermore, MacKay notes that the present rationale "is clearly the promotion of reasonable loss allocation" whereby, in the case of student injuries, the school board is in a much better financial position than the teacher to compensate the injured student for damages.

Similarly, Lamb (1957:48) points out that in order for a school board to be vicariously liable for negligence acts committed by its principals, teachers, or any other of its servants, the following three facts must be established:

1. that the relationship of master and servant existed;
2. that the action by the servant was within the scope of his employment; and,
3. that there was the absence of the degree of care which would be exercised by a "careful father."

With regard to these three points, he further notes that the second is of greatest importance to the defendant school board, especially since the courts have taken a fairly broad approach in defining the scope of employment; the first point, however, is usually very easy to determine, and the third point "is often intangible."

Notwithstanding the foregoing, if a teacher acts in a manner that exceeds his or her authority and if the act results in a negligence charge, then the school board is automatically exculpated. This is illustrated in the case of **Beauparlant v. Board of Trustees of Separate School Section No. 1 of Appleby**, whereby the teachers of one school had declared a half holiday for the purpose of transporting a group of students to a school 11 miles away in order to attend a concert being held to celebrate the birthday of a priest. The students were crowded into the dump of a stake-body truck and, while en route, one side of the truck's dump gave way. This resulted in many of the students falling onto the road with one student being seriously injured. In this case the school board was exonerated from the charge because the teachers had exceeded their authority by declaring a half holiday for the trip without seeking or obtaining consent from the school board.

In addition, if it can be shown that no amount of supervision on the part of the teachers could have prevented the accident, then again the school board will be exculpated. The case of *Scofield et al. v. Public School Board of Section No. 20, North York*, whereby a female student was injured while she was tobogganing on school property, illustrates this point. In this regard, Justice Jeffrey of the Ontario Court of Appeal stated that

so far as supervision is concerned, there was supervision, and further that no amount of supervision would have prevented this accident ... I therefore conclude that in the circumstances the defendant board is not liable.

Moreover, no claim for damages will lie against a school board if an accident occurs at a time when no statutory duty of supervision is placed on the board. As an illustration, in the case of Koch et al. v. Stone Farm School District, in which a twelve year-old male student was injured when he jumped from a woodshed which was on the school grounds, the action was dismissed. In handing down his judgment, Taylor J. stated

In the case of mere non-feasance by a board of trustees constituted under the School Act no claim for reparation will lie except at the instance of a person who can show that the statute under which the trustees act imposed upon them a duty towards himself which they negligently failed to perform.

It appears, then, that school boards may be held vicariously liable for the negligent acts of teachers provided that the teachers were acting in the course of their employment. However, if teachers act in a manner that exceeds their authority the school board will not be held liable for their actions. Furthermore, if it can be shown that no amount of supervision could have prevented an injury to a student, or a student sustains an injury when no statutory duty of supervision is placed on the school board, then the action against the school board will not be successful.

SCHOOL BOARD AND PUPIL TRANSPORTATION

In Canadian school systems, students are transported to and from school either in buses owned by the school board and operated by hired drivers or else by independent contractors hired by the school board. With regard to the former mode of transportation, the bus driver and the school board are clearly in a master and servant relationship and, consequently, the school board can be held vicariously liable for the negligent acts of the bus driver, provided that he is acting in the course of his employment. In the latter case, however, a different relationship exists - that of an employer and an independent contractor - and this somewhat alters the liability of the employer. But, what is the liability of the employer for tortious acts of an independent contractor? To answer that question, Halsbury's Laws of England (Simonds edition, vol. 25) was consulted from which the ideas that follow were retrieved.

Unlike the relationship that exists between master and servant, a contractor is regarded as a person carrying on an independent business and, in general, the employer is not liable for his tortious acts nor for the tortious acts of the contractor's servants. However, if an employer personally interferes with the work of the contractor or the contractor's servants and directs the manner in which the work is to be done, then he is, in fact, placing himself in the position of the master; hence, he becomes liable for any injury sustained by a third person if that injury results from the contractor's actions

while he is carrying out the employer's directions. Furthermore, if an employer is bound by a statutory obligation to execute a particular work, he cannot escape liability for injury sustained by a third person if that injury results from the negligent act of an independent contractor who has been engaged to execute that particular work.

In order to establish whether or not a person is truly an independent contractor, one must determine, not only whether the employer retains the power of directing what work shall be done, but also whether he controls the manner in which it is to be done. If such is the case, then the person doing the work cannot be classified as an independent contractor.

In applying the above principles to school boards, with regard to pupil conveyance, it may be said that a school board is not liable (when exercising its discretionary powers) for torts committed by independent contractors who provide pupil transportation. However, if the school board interferes by giving frequent directions to the bus drivers, such as regulating pupil conduct on buses and changing bus routes, then the school board is placing itself in the position of master and, therefore, making itself liable. As a matter of fact, this point is well illustrated in the case of *Baldwin v. Lyons and Erin District High School Board*. Here, the school board, though not under any statutory obligation to provide pupil transportation, hired Lyons, who owned three school buses, to transport students to and from school. Unfortunately, one of the buses was rammed by a train when the bus driver failed to stop at a railway crossing. As a result, the bus driver and several students were killed. In this case the trial court held that, since there was evidence that the principal and school board frequently gave directions to Lyons and his bus drivers, the drivers were, in fact, servants of the school board; thus, the trial court held that the school board was vicariously liable for the negligence of the bus driver killed in the accident. However, on appeal to the Ontario Court of Appeal, that decision was reversed.

In any event, if the school board is under statutory obligation to provide pupil transportation, then it cannot escape liability even if the duty is assigned to an independent contractor.

SUMMARY

This article presented a description of the school board as a corporation which receives its powers from statutes; and, like other corporations, it may sue or be sued. Also, it was pointed out that with regard to occupier's liability the school board, in general, owes a duty to students equivalent to that owed to an invitee and, therefore, it must take all necessary precautions to ensure that the school grounds are free from hazards that may result in student injury. In addition, it was noted that the school board, since it is a statutory corporation, can act only through its servants and, therefore, it is subject to vicarious liability for the wrongs committed by its servants, providing they were acting within the scope of their employment when the wrongful act was committed. With regard to student transportation, it was shown that school boards are not liable for torts committed by independent contractors who transport students to and from school if these contractors are

hired under the discretionary powers of the board. However, if the school board interferes in such a way as to create a master-servant relationship with the bus driver, it will automatically make itself liable. Notwithstanding the foregoing, if the school board is under statutory obligation to provide pupil transportation, then it will be held liable for the torts of its bus drivers whether or not they are independent contractors.

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**FACTORS INFLUENCING THE CAREER ASPIRATIONS OF
FEMALE EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS IN
NEWFOUNDLAND AND LABRADOR**

**Myrtis V. Guy
J.M. Olds Collegiate
Twillingate, Newfoundland**

Introduction

Although the teaching profession as a whole is predominantly female, women still hold very few positions of leadership within the educational system. Statistics from both Canada and the United States indicate that the greatest proportion of female educators cluster at the classroom level and the proportions of female administrators decrease as the level of responsibility in the hierarchy increases. Since women enter the educational system in great numbers, one would expect the dominance of women on the first rung of the career ladder to be a positive feature for their career advancement in the educational hierarchy. Instead, there has emerged a division of labour in the educational system whereby women instruct and men administer. The largest number of female administrators occupy less powerful support positions, are in the lowest administrative categories, and virtually disappear at higher levels.

Explanations for women's under representation in educational administration focus on two major themes: the nature of women's career aspirations and sexual discrimination in hiring. The former explanation implies an internal barrier to upward mobility, while the latter implies an external barrier operating in society. Some writers claim that the responsibility for the lack of female administrators rests with female educators themselves in their passive acceptance of the situation. Gosse (1975:140) concluded in her study of female educators in Newfoundland that they did not perceive themselves as administrators and were not sufficiently competitive. Howe (1973:100) stated emphatically that the crucial issue in women's education is aspiration.

Purpose of the Study

The major purpose of this study was to ascertain the present status of women in education, examine the career aspirations of female administrators in the province of Newfoundland and Labrador, and determine factors influencing these aspirations.

Research Questions

More specifically, this study attempted to answer the following questions:

1. What is the present status of women in education in Newfoundland and Labrador as evidenced from an analysis of the proportions of

female teachers, female school administrators, and female district office personnel?

2. What are the career aspirations of female administrators in Newfoundland and Labrador as evidenced from an analysis of their desire to:
 - (a) remain in administrative positions presently held for the duration of their careers?
 - (b) attain administrative positions involving greater responsibilities?
3. To what extent are the career aspirations of female administrators in Newfoundland and Labrador influenced by demographic characteristics, family background, sex-role ideology, family obligations, professional credentials, professional involvement, and encouragement from others?
4. What factors are perceived by female administrators in Newfoundland and Labrador as barriers to and facilitators of their career aspirations?
5. What reasons are given by female administrators in Newfoundland and Labrador for their career aspirations?

Design of the Study

To ascertain the status of women in education in Newfoundland and Labrador for the school year 1986-87 two sources were utilized: various school system directories and information supplied by the provincial Department of Education.

No existing study could be found that provided a suitable questionnaire which could be used to collect the data required for assessing the influence of various factors on career aspirations of female administrators in Newfoundland and Labrador. Therefore, it was necessary to develop a suitable questionnaire, referred to in this study as the "Female Administrator's Questionnaire". The questionnaire was divided into four (4) separate sections. The first section was designed to examine career aspirations. Respondents were asked to indicate their desire to remain in the administrative position presently held or their desire to attain an administrative position involving greater responsibilities. To examine career aspirations further, respondents were asked to indicate their current position and the highest position they wish to attain during their career. The second section was designed to provide information from respondents regarding demographic characteristics, family background, professional credentials, professional involvement, encouragement from others, family obligations, and sex-role ideology. The third section was comprised of two (2) questions, designed to examine the perceptions of female administrators regarding factors that have influenced their career aspirations. The fourth section consisted of two (2) open-ended questions, asking respondents to indicate the reasons for their career aspirations.

The population for this study was comprised of all recorded female educational administrators in Newfoundland and Labrador employed for the school year 1986-87. Questionnaires were sent to all females designated as administrators. These included 35 department chairpersons, 81 vice-principals, 125 principals, and 59 central office personnel for a total population of 300.

Analysis of Data

The status of female educators for each school system and the province as a whole was tabulated as frequencies and percentages. Data gathered from the questionnaire with respect to the respondents' career aspirations were also tabulated as frequencies and percentages. These data divided the respondents into three groups: those who expressed a desire to REMAIN in their present administrative positions, those who aspired to ATTAIN administrative positions involving greater responsibilities, and those who were UNDECIDED in their career aspirations.

Using the three levels of aspiration as the dependent variable and the factors outlined in question 3 of this study as independent variables, relationships were determined between the level of aspiration and each factor. To assess the statistical significance of marital status, parental education, parental occupation, parental family income, hometown population, birth order, teaching certificate, office(s) of leadership, and sources of encouragement as influencing factors, the chi-square (or X^2) test was applied. A one-way analysis of variance was used to assess the statistical significance of age, experience, number of children, age of children, household /childcare duties, and sex-role ideology as influencing factors. The level of significance for all testing was set at the .05 level.

Data for the respondents' perceptions of factors influencing their career aspirations were tabulated as frequencies and percentages. Reasons provided by respondents for the nature of their career aspirations were also tabulated in frequencies and percentages and a broad cross section of responses summarized.

Approximately 75% (225) of the women returned completed questionnaires for inclusion in the analysis of this study. The approximate response rates for each school system were: Integrated, 73%; Roman Catholic, 76%; Pentecostal, 100%; and Seventh Day Adventist, 50%. The approximate response rates for each subgroup were: department chairpersons, 71%; vice-principals, 84%; principals, 77%; and district office personnel, 61 %.

Findings

Status of Women in Education

As outlined in Table 1, 4,671 (54.2 percent) of the 8,623 teachers employed for the school year 1986-87 were women. However, the percentages varied with different school systems. From the total of 1,229

school administrators, 241 (19.6 percent) were women as illustrated in Table 2. Again, percentages varied with different levels in the hierarchy and with different school systems. Table 3 shows that females comprised 59 (20.1 percent) of the total 293 central office personnel. Percentages varied with different positions at the district office level and with different school systems.

Career Aspirations of Female Administrators

Table 4 depicts career aspirations expressed by respondents, distribution by subgroup and desire indicated. One hundred and six (47.1 percent) of the 225 respondents expressed a desire to REMAIN in their present administrative positions, while 95 (42.2 percent) expressed a desire to ATTAIN administrative positions involving greater responsibilities. A third group of respondents, a total of 24 (10.7 percent) indicated they were UNDECIDED in their career aspirations.

Factors Influencing Career Aspirations

Female administrators who wished to REMAIN were older than those who were UNDECIDED. Females who wished to ATTAIN were the youngest of the three groups. Mean ages for the REMAIN, UNDECIDED, and ATTAIN groups were 45.2, 39.2, and 38.3 years respectively, statistically significant at the .05 level.

Marital status was found to be related to career aspirations at the .05 level. Contributing to this relationship was the higher percentage of the REMAIN category in religious orders (22.9 percent), compared to the percentage of the ATTAIN category in religious orders (8.5 percent).

The number of children for all three groups of females was relatively small. No statistically significant relationship was established between career aspiration and the number of children. The mean ages of dependent children for all three groups of aspirants were approximately the same and were not significantly related to career aspirations. Family obligations were not significantly related to career aspirations. Also, there was no statistically significant relationship between family background and career aspirations.

Female administrators who wished to ATTAIN had a mean score on the sex-role ideology scale that was lower and more towards the "liberated" end of the continuum than did the other two groups of aspirants. A statistically significant relationship at the .05 level was established between sex-role ideology and career aspirations.

Those females in the ATTAIN group had a larger percentage (85.1 percent) with certificate levels of VI, VIII, than did the other two groups. A statistically significant relationship was established between level of certificate and career aspirations. Years of teaching/administrative experience and career aspirations were found to be significant at the .05 level. Those who wished to REMAIN had the highest mean years (23.9 years) of experience. Involvement in the NTA Special Interest Councils and Provincial Executive was found to be statistically related to career aspirations. Encouragement from others and career aspirations were not significantly related, except encouragement from family members which was found to be significantly related.

Table 1

Distribution of Teachers in Each School System by Sex

School System	M	%	F	%	Total
Integrated	2512	51.3	2383	48.7	4895
Roman Catholic	1208	36.9	2063	63.1	3271
Pentecostal	217	50.8	210	49.2	427
Seventh Day Adventist	15	50	15	50	30
Total	3952	45.8	4671	54.2	8623

Source: Supervisor, Teachers' Payroll Division, Department of Education, Government of Newfoundland and Labrador, July, 1987.

Table 2

Distribution of School Administrators in Each School System by Sex

School System	Department Chairpersons				Vice-Principals				Principals				Total			
	M	%	F	%	M	%	F	%	M	%	F	%	M	%	F	%
Integrated	163	9 4.8	9	5.2	169	84.5	31	15.5	322	89.9	36	10.1	654	89.6	76	10.4
Roman Catholic	78	7 5.7	25	24.3	77	60.6	50	39.4	104	55.3	84	44.7	259	61.9	159	38.1
Pentecostal	14	9 3.3	1	6.7	16	100	-	-	42	93.3	3	6.7	72	94.7	4	5.3
Seventh Day Adventist	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	60	2	40	3	60	2	40
Total	255	8 7.9	35	12.1	262	76.4	81	23.6	471	79.1	125	20.9	988	80.4	241	19.6

Source: Supervisor, Teachers' Payroll Division, Department of Education, Government of Newfoundland and Labrador, May, 1987.

Table 3

Distribution of Central Office Personnel in Each School System by Sex

School System	Department Chairpersons				Vice-Principals				Principals				Total			
	M	%	F	%	M	%	F	%	M	%	F	%	M	%	F	%
Integrated	20*	100	0	-	38	97.4	1	2.6	94	79.7	24	20.3	152	85.9	25	14.1
Roman Catholic	12	100	0	-	18	85.7	3	14.3	42	57.3	31	42.7	72	67.9	34	32.1
Pentecostal	1	100	0	-	2	100	0	-	6	100.0	0	-	9	100.0	0	-
Seventh Day Adventist	1	100	0	-	0	-	0	-	0	-	0	-	1	100	0	-
Total	34	100	0	-	58	93.5	4	6.5	142	72.1	55	27.9	234	79.9	59	20.1

* One board did not employ a superintendent.

Source: The Newfoundland and Labrador SCHOOLS DIRECTORY, 1986-87.

Table 4

Female Administrators' Career Aspirations Distribution by Desire and Subgroup

Desire	Department Chairpersons		Vice-Principals		Principals		Curriculum Coordinators		Assistant/Assoc. Superintendents		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Remain	10	40	29	42.6	55	57.3	12	36.4	-	-	106	47.1
Attain	12	48	34	50	29	30.2	17	51.5	3	100	95	42.2
Neither	3	12	5	7.4	12	12.5	4	12.1	-	-	24	10.7
Total	25		68		96		33		3		225	

Perceptions of Barriers and Facilitators

The factor perceived by female administrators as the most hindering one was lack of professional credentials. The one perceived as least hindering was family constraints. The factor perceived as most facilitating to career aspirations was professional credentials. The one perceived as least facilitating was employer's encouragement.

Reasons for Career Aspirations

The reason most often given by female administrators for wishing to ATTAIN was the need for a challenge. Being content/satisfied with their current position was the reason most often given for wanting to REMAIN.

Conclusion

A situation exists in this province whereby there is an imbalance in favour of females as classroom teachers, but an imbalance in disfavour of females as school administrators and central office personnel. Female Administrators in this province occupy staff positions rather than line positions and the imbalance in disfavour of females becomes greater as administrative responsibilities increase until they become nonexistent at the superintendency level. The Roman Catholic System has a higher percentage of female administrators at every level in the hierarchy.

There are female administrators in this province who do not aspire to positions involving increased administrative responsibilities, including the superintendency. Female administrators who do not aspire are older, more "traditional" in their sex-role ideology, are nearing retirement, have less university education, and are less involved in professional organizations. Female administrators who aspire are younger, more "liberated" in their sexrole ideology, are in the beginning or middle of their careers, have more than one university degree, and are involved in professional organizations.

Marital status and family obligations are not factors acting as deterrents to career aspirations of female administrators. Family background and encouragement from others, except from family members, are not significantly related to career aspirations of female administrators.

Female administrators perceive lack of credentials as a barrier to their career aspirations and acquisition of credentials as a facilitator of their career aspirations. Some view the attainment of increased administrative duties as a challenge. Others wish to remain in their current positions because they are content.

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**EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS: AN INTROSPECTIVE
ON PERCEPTION**

or

AN ATTACK ON "COMMON SENSE"

**R. Lloyd Ryan, Ph.D.
Assistant Superintendent
Notre Dame Integrated School Board**

Professor Wilfred Martin (1989), in an address to a group of school superintendents, has stated that administrators and teachers often do not perceive schooling from students' points of view. He suggests that, sometimes, when educators are engaging in instructional and school-managerial activities, ostensibly "for the good" of students, they are actually alienating students from schooling, creating failures, and causing dropouts. It would appear, then, that educators are exemplifying a sort of blindness, unwittingly or wilfully, since very few teachers or administrators will acknowledge that the behaviors are creating failures. In a similar vein, Costa (1989) suggests that school administrators may be perceptually blind and that they may be evaluating teachers and program effectiveness while, at the same time, "rendering [them] ineffective" (p. 10).

It is important for educators to recognize that it may, sometimes (maybe, most times), be very difficult for them to realize (and even more difficult to acknowledge) that their good intentions may not appear to be so to students or to subordinates and that the outcomes of our professional behaviors are much less than we hoped they would be. It is even more important to realize that we react to situations according to how we interpret the indicators on which we selectively focus, that is, according to how we interpret our perceptions, or according to which perceptions we allow ourselves to experience. It is worthy of note that perceptions are so critically vital that the objective of psychoanalytic therapy (à la Freud) is to help individuals change their perceptions of themselves and their contexts. Maybe, educators need to challenge their perceptions by engaging in values clarification and other introspective activities.

That educators may not be aware of what they are doing, let alone being aware of the effects of their behaviors, is the startling and disturbing conclusion that one might reach after examining Davis' (1982) research. Davis found, for example, that teachers did not do in class what they had declared they intended to do, nor did they, subsequently, describe accurately what they had done during their classes.

Educators are not alone with this propensity to behave according to perception. It seems to be endemic to most or all people professions, and maybe to non-people professions as well, as was demonstrated in the now famous Hawthorne studies. This phenomenon is characteristic of children (Chandler, 1988: 5), and it is equally characteristic of adults, with disturbing consequences. There is a growing awareness, for example, that research results may be seriously flawed by this very problem. Stevens-Long (1984),

addressing the issue, says: "Ultimately ... it is the direct effect of the experimenter on the experiment that is most influential. At every turn, the researcher's beliefs, expectations, attitudes, and decisions are decisive". She says further: "Expectations can and do influence how evidence is collected, recorded and interpreted" (p. 38). The work of Rosenthal (1966) and Achenback (1978) corroborate these views. These investigators have concluded that researcher bias has determined the outcomes of research with adult subjects, with school children, and even with white rats. Rosenthal, in particular, reviewed a number of research projects and demonstrated that the researchers found exactly what they were looking for. In reference to this, Stephens-Long says that "The effects of the experimenter's expectations are surprisingly consistent and disconcertingly substantial almost every time" (p. 39). She suggests that unexpected research results have been rejected simply because they did not meet the experimenter's expectations, or because they conflicted with "common sense". Boorstin (1985), in his study of the history of technology, has noted the same phenomenon. He says that the major obstacle to discovery was not necessarily ignorance but, rather, the illusion of understanding.

Brown (1981) adds a cautionary note to the discourse:

Facts, of course, are always facts, although ... how they are regarded, and whether or not they are perceived, is likely to be strongly influenced by the prejudices of the times. But it is the assumptions lying behind the facts and the frame of response into which they are fitted that most clearly show the prevailing ideology (p. 44).

This is probably no better illustrated than in society's refusal to accept the heliocentric structure of the solar system. Aristarchus of Samos correctly hypothesized it more than two thousand years ago. Yet it "was rejected in favor of a monstrous system . of astronomy which strikes us today as an affront to human intelligence, and which reigned supreme for fifteen hundred years" (Koestler, 1977:51-52). That is, "Common Sense" was victorious over truth.

Since the functions of educators - teachers and administrators - are so vitally important, and since their behaviours have such tremendous and long term effect in terms of students' lives and, ultimately, on the whole of society, it is imperative that they attempt to see clearly, and acknowledge explicitly, the effects of their behaviours. Otherwise, not only may their actions belie their avowals, but they may be involved in destroying children rather than building them up.

That may appear to be a severe indictment - and it no doubt is. But it does not stand alone. Cuban (1989), for example, seems to support this view rather strongly. He says: "Unless policy makers and practitioners begin to consider how problems involving schools are framed, they will continue to lunge for quick solutions without considering the fit between the solution and the problem. In doing so, well-intentioned educators may perpetuate lies that harm children, rather than help them" (p. 270). As George Barnanas (1955) warned, "There is no worse lie than a problem poorly stated" (p. 153).

Cuban may have been reacting to teachers who, supposedly in a genuine attempt to prepare children "for the real world", proceed to institute so-called "high standards", give failing marks, insist that children "repeat grades", never mind the contrary research, and at the extreme absolutely refuse to give A's, except very rarely, because "only the best of the best can get an A in my course". It is also not difficult to find educators who try "preparing children to think" by insisting that they memorize notes copied from the chalkboard in preparation for a test, teach them "to be creative" by providing dittoed sheets to be coloured ("Stay within the lines!"), teach problem-solving and divergent thinking by insisting on the one right solution methodology, use marks as a disciplinary weapon, advocate the socializing role of school ("Children have to learn to get along, to cooperate...") while insisting on desks in rigid rows, and on low noise levels attainable only by religious sworn to silence, and avow self-discipline while insisting on rigidity that would be the envy of a boot camp drill sergeant. All of these practices occur under the supervisory benevolence of educational administrators who firmly believe that they are genuinely committed to the best possible education for children.

It is important to note that if one misperceives a situation or event, then that person experiences a blindness with respect to the objective reality of that situation or event. When perceptual blindness occurs within the educational establishment, resulting behaviours may be not only inappropriate for objective actuality but also quite detrimental to it. One might surmise that this perceptual blindness may be the cause of most of today's educational problems. Witness the so-called "effective schools movement", for example, and the detrimental effect to that is having on the lives and education of lower-class and ethnic children. Then, consider the case of educational change. Educators and their administrators are being accused of being frozen in time, of being anachronisms. Professor Ponder (1981), for example, queries whether educational administrators are educational dinosaurs. It is doubtful, however, that very many educators - teachers or administrators - have the courage or self-confidence to admit this possibility. This observation leads to the question whether one may refuse to "see" - not a new question, to be sure, since we have the old aphorism "None so deaf as those who will not hear; none so blind as those who will not see".

Piaget (1972) has pointed out that people remember not what they perceive but, rather, their own interpretations of what they perceive and that perceptions are interpreted according to their level of assimilation. Some people say that we believe what we see; Piaget seems to say that we see what we believe, that our concepts get in the way of our percepts. By extension, this means that we are likely to reject or fail to see that which we are not, or have not been, psychologically prepared to see, that we may be blinded by our "common sense".

Are educators, characterized by a similar problem? An editorial in a Canadian daily newspaper suggests that they are. There, it is advocated that "doctors of education" and, by implication, all educational leaders, should be prosecuted for malpractice. Does the editorial writer see something that educators can't, or won't, see? Lest we too quickly become defensive, it may be worthwhile to listen to one of North America's more prominent educators,

Mario Fantini (1981). He says: "We find ourselves with a school system which is now almost obsolete, based on a set of assumptions that are no longer operationally valid, and which have outlived their usefulness" (p. 4).

Chamberlin (1969) also addresses this phenomenon, but by using a slightly different construct. He notes: "The perspective we adopt tends to determine the categories established, the terminology employed, and finally what is seen. Thus the adequacy of a view of the field depends upon the inclusiveness of the perspective". He observes, further, that in the field of education "...a wide-angle lens is imperative" (p. 9).

A number of other people have been intrigued with this human propensity to see selectively. Roger Brown (1964) addresses the notion when he asserts that "Once observations are turned into theories, a blindness sets in for the phenomena not represented in the theories". Walter Kerr (1968), addressing the same issue under the term "premature specificity", claims:

All of us must see more, hear more, risk more, embrace more if we are to understand the bad fit and perhaps get a better one ... and so our heads swivel to get a closer look, above all, for a more inclusive look - without predisposition, without automatic exclusion of any kind, without selection. If we are going to select beforehand, we shall miss the same things we missed last time. Indeed, if any principle of selection is to function at all, it must be the principle of selecting now what was never selected before. Nothing can be called irrelevant if we are trying to find out what relevance is (p. 11).

While Kerr's recommendations may be difficult to put into practice, given that all observation (or at least all perception) is theory and value laden, it seems important that educational administrators consistently attempt to do as he suggests. The difficulty should not be a deterrent, in spite of the fact that even the words we choose to describe our perceptions, i.e., our lives begin to conform to the words we chose to utter.

The notions of readiness and perceptual blindness are closely related. Rogers (1962), in discussing the value of being open to one's perceptions, suggests that we should attempt to relay sensory input to the intellectual process without its being "... distorted by defense mechanisms..." (p. 23). He seems to mean that if we are open to new perceptions or ideas, then we will be able to consider a variety of decisional and behavioral alternatives. In order to combat this perceptual blindness, i.e., those "defense mechanisms", and do as Rogers suggests, it is necessary to be aware of the effect that past experiences have on our interpretation of present perceptions. In relation to this, Barkan (1955) states that "we see things through our past experiences. Our past experiences determine our 'readiness' and our 'point of view' from which we create our interpretations ... the things we 'see' are those which have been meaningful in our past experiences" (p. 11).

What is probably most disturbing about this is that it probably cannot be escaped - but it can be recognized, and there is a degree of freedom in the recognition. Just how serious this problem can become evident if it is

noted that "as we mature we progressively narrow the scope and variety of our lives. Of all the people with whom we might associate, we select a small number. We become caught in a web of fixed relationships. We develop set ways of doing things" (Gardner, 1965, p. 9). This can result in (maybe minor) human tragedies, as was evident in the comments of the teacher who said to the now-resigned and moving on principal: "I see now that we could have been friends. But, when you came to this school four years ago, your reputation fore-led you - and it wasn't a good one. I have been waiting for the ogre to appear all this time and I have only now realized that it doesn't exist, except in the mind of the person to whom I listened. I am sorry and I apologize".

Under ordinary circumstances, this propensity to rely on pre-established and categorical perceptions and assumptions is not an absolutely undesirable state of affairs. It leads to a necessary degree of continuity and order in our lives, and the stress associated with the absence of some minimum degree of certainty and stability would be dysfunctional. Indeed, we would get nothing done, otherwise. However, even if we had not responsibility to others, we would have some sort of responsibility to ourselves to develop the courage to allow ourselves at least occasionally to experience the world from different perspectives.

This emphasis on allowing imaginations to operate, and on seeking new intellectual experiences, will lead not only to a renewed personal vitality, but to a renewed professional vitality as well. Administrators and supervisory personnel need to work at ways that will open themselves and the teachers within their responsibility to imaginative, inventive, and self-renewing professional lives. Otherwise, we may be destined to keep repeating the mistakes of the past. Koestler (1977) suggests that in order to make meaningful progress, we may have to develop a "contempt" for traditional ways of doing things. He suggests that "There are situations where it needs great imaginative power combined with disrespect for the traditional current of thought, to discover the obvious" (p. 49). Meaningful, and needed, Innovation will not occur until and unless we are prepared to look at things differently. That is, we have to have the courage, maybe audacity, to release our grasp on the security of what we "know", acknowledging that what we "know" we may not know at all; that our knowledge is an illusion - a comfortable illusion, maybe, but an illusion, nevertheless.

Making oneself more aware is not easy; it requires a bit of mind-stretching. People limit themselves by closing off their thinking too soon. They become intellectual cowards and become afflicted with perceptual paralysis. Linderman (1980) describes this concept a bit differently:

Most of us have a propensity for getting by with a minimum amount of ... perceptions. Once recognition sets in, we switch off. It is natural for the mind to shut down once a solution pattern has been established, for this is the mind's way of being efficient. But minds, like waistlines, get fat. We need to reduce cranial bulge by practicing attitudes of awareness that help lead us to unique and original modes of response ... personal,

intellectual ... and human success is achieved when one gives his best to an experience (p. 8).

Linderman also proposes a number of benefits deriving from efforts at becoming more aware, some of them being that:

1. Awareness encourages the growth of unique ideas,
2. Awareness practice takes one beyond the surface of an Idea,
3. To be aware is to be more original in concept and action,
4. Awareness helps one play his/her hunches and continue searching,
5. Awareness helps one to be open to all sorts of possibilities,
6. Awareness is the first step in building ideas,
7. Awareness helps one to see the world with fresh eyes. (p. 9).

Linderman describes a person who has a high degree of awareness as one who "is imaginative, Inventive, Innovative, observant, skillful, enthusiastic, perceptive, understanding, and a sparkling human being", In contrast to the person who has average or below average awareness whom he describes as "in short, a very crabby apple" (p. 3).

Therefore, it is time that we awoke from our Intellectual slumbers, time to shake off the epithets of being educational Rip Van Winkles, time to prove Professor Ponder wrong when he calls educational administrators "the dinosaurs of the educational establishment", and time to realize that the solutions to educational problems are probably at hand if we allow ourselves to become aware of and open to them.

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OUR SCHOOL: TEACHER PERCEPTIONS

B.J. Croskery
Principal
St. James' Regional High School
Port aux Basques

Schooling is one of those institutions evoking strongly-held passions. For the school administrator and his staff these passions often generate more heat than light. The professional demands of working in a public school restrict the administrator's access to that which he needs more than anything else - the opportunity to reflect on his school. Passionately-voiced criticism from parents and students, more subtle pressure from colleagues and school board, policing by local media, all of these pressures demand a response. Where authority of any kind is claimed by critics, the school administrator must be ready to defend his position, not with a louder voice, nor with the self-deceiving cant of professional jargon, but with the authority of cold reason.

In 1982 the staff of St. James' Regional High School, Port aux Basques, gave a commitment to a searching and self-critical analysis of their school. The impetus for such an analysis derived firstly from the felt need to articulate a coherent response to criticism, and secondly from a particular view of what it means to be professional educators. According to Stenhouse (1975), the professional autonomy of teachers demands a research stance which exhibits, above all things, a commitment to critical self-analysis and review of the school's own purposes and practice.

The instruments chosen for this analysis were developed by the National Study of School Evaluation (1981). They consisted of three separate inventories, one each for teachers, students and parents. All twenty-one members of the teaching staff, with the exception of one absentee and the principal, completed the inventory assigned to them. Results were then hand scored in accordance with established procedures. This paper reports the findings from the Teacher Opinion Inventory.

Characteristics of the Inventory

The inventory was designed to accomplish three goals:

1. to assess teacher opinion toward many facets of the school,
2. to provide teacher recommendations for improvement,
3. to provide valuable data for the school administrator.

Part A of the inventory is comprised of 64 items, each calling for a fixed response on a scale ranging from "Very Satisfied" to "Very Dissatisfied." The items can be grouped into five major categories: organization and administration; curriculum and instruction; student discipline, counselling and advisement; school/community relations; and job satisfaction. Part B of the inventory invites free response to eight questions. Common items on teacher,

parent and student inventories enable comparison of perceptions so that areas of potential conflict may be determined. All inventories were completed anonymously and simultaneously by the staff.

Results

Each of the sixty-four items on Part A received an item mean score ranging from 1 (Very Unfavourable) to 5 (Very Favourable) depending on the frequency of responses for each category on a single item. Analysis of individual items proved highly illuminating for the school's administration but discussion in such detail is beyond the scope and purpose of this paper. Our results are reported in terms of the five major categories identified above. Part B responses were tabulated for every item but are reported here simply in terms of responses considered to be significant or provocative. While such procedures hardly meet the rigid standards of empirical research, they provided valuable insights to the administration and are offered here simply to provoke discussion and stimulate criticism of their utility.

It is worth noting that the category eliciting the least favourable response is curriculum and instruction. In this category there was a distinct polarization of attitudes around the issue of the student response to the school's curriculum. The school's provision was seen in very favourable terms indeed. Item 17 (How many teachers will provide students with individual help outside of class time?) scored 4.42. Item 26 (How would you rate the adequacy ... of activities your school offers?) scored 4.16. On the other hand, teachers expressed real concern for the response of the students to the opportunities offered in school. Item 12 (How much do you think students are learning from their school experiences?) scored only 2.16, whilst item 15 (How many of your students ... do enough individual work to learn what you teach?) scored only 2.47.

Part A (fixed response items)

Category	Item No.	Mean Avg.
Organization & Admin.	38-727	3.56
Curriculum & Instruction	12-27; 47-64	2.98
Discipline/Counselling Advisement	28-38	3.67
School/Community Relations	39-43	3.16
Job Satisfaction	44-46	3.75

With respect to School/Community Relations, teachers expressed some misgivings about the level of parental involvement in school. Item 39 (Do you welcome parental visits to your classes?) scored 4.42, indicating a strong desire of staff for direct parental involvement with the school. Yet teachers felt that this kind of involvement with the school was not forthcoming. Responding to Item 40 (How well acquainted are you with the parents of your students?) eleven teachers admitted to knowing "very few of them". The staff also felt strongly about the level of knowledge parents possess about the school and its program (Item 43). This item scored a low 2.32, indicating considerable dissatisfaction on the part of the staff.

One rather heartening (and somewhat unexpected) group of responses was found in the job satisfaction category. Item 44 (Are you satisfied or dissatisfied with your school?) scored 3.63, whilst item 46 (How satisfied are you about being a teacher?) scored a high 4.00. Here is strong evidence which to repel the popular myth that teachers are a disgruntled bunch who end up teaching because they can't do anything else!

Part B (free response items)

This part of the inventory invited free response to the following questions:

1. What do you like best about this school?
2. What do you like least about this school?
3. If there are problems with drugs (including alcohol) at your school, why do these problems exist, and what can be done to help solve these problems?
4. If violence is a problem at your school, why does this problem exist, and what can be done to help solve this problem?
5. If there are racial problems at your school, explain what they are, and suggest solutions where possible.
6. What curricular changes would you like to see implemented in your school?
7. What organizational changes would you like to see implemented in your school?
8. In addition to the changes noted above, list things that need to happen at this school to make your work as a teacher more effective.

Questions 4 & 5, as expected, elicited little response from the staff. Clearly, neither violence nor racism are held to be problems in our school. Teachers were more forthcoming on other matters.

With respect to question 1 (What do you like best about this school?) the responses fell into three broad categories. Eight respondents liked the administrative ethos of the school. One representative comment: "I like best the sense of fairness displayed by the administration - everyone is given equal treatment." Six respondents singled out the "social atmosphere" of the staff: "I find the staff very friendly and cooperative." Five respondents mentioned the students: "Most students are well behaved." Here we see evidence for the priority teachers assign to the quality of their professional interpersonal relationships. Almost every teacher responded to this question in terms of relationships.

The responses to question 2 (What do you like least about this school?) were heavily dominated by teacher concerns for student discipline and study habits. Thirteen teachers expressed displeasure with this area of the school's life. Typical responses to the question were "Too many lazy students", "Poor attitude of students", and "Lack of discipline and the ability to enforce it thoroughly." This concern for the absence of self-discipline and for poor study habits reinforces the grave concern noted above in the Part A fixed responses. Moreover, it strongly supports earlier research by Martin, Baksh and Singh (1981) who contend that such concerns are at the core of teaching.

A second category of responses are noteworthy for Question 2. No less than five teachers singled out characteristics of their colleagues as the least likeable aspect of school. Typical responses centred on the manner in which colleagues handled problems with the students: "Undue criticism of students by some teachers"; "Staff inconsistency on discipline". Here, again, we see evidence for a heightened awareness of interpersonal issues.

Question 3 (drug problems) elicited an overwhelming acceptance of drug-related problems in school. Only two teachers felt that there were no such problems in school. All other teachers regarded the existence of drug problems as axiomatic. Not surprisingly, the existence of such problems was attributed to a variety of factors, the most frequently-mentioned (4 responses) being "Lack of parental control." Although the majority of respondents offered no suggestions for coping with the problem, six teachers mentioned the possibility of drug education programmes as an alternative they felt the school should consider.

Teachers were noticeably reticent in their responses to question 6 (curricular changes) and 7 (organizational changes). Ten teachers did not comment on question 6, whilst fifteen offered no comment on question 7. There is evidence here for a fairly high degree of acceptance of the status quo in this group. Teachers in our school seem to be generally satisfied with things as they are.

There were, however, a significant number of teachers who expressed concern for weaker students in responding to Question 6. Nine respondents offered suggestions for dealing with such problems. Among these responses one could detect great underlying concern for the right "match" between cognition and instruction. This concern was evidenced in such comments as "Tailor some subject matter to general students" and "Some of the text books

are not of much value." Here, again, we have an encouraging indicator of teacher commitment to one of the central core concerns of teaching.

The final question on the inventory drew some of the most forthright and interesting comments of all. When asked to list the things that need to happen in order to make their work more effective, the teachers in a majority of responses (ten) addressed the motivational and discipline problems noted earlier in our paper. Typical responses were:

I don't think the students realize we are here to help them. Many see us as monsters forcing them to do things they don't want to do.

The students here have to be motivated. They are not doing any work and there is nothing I can do about it. I know it and so do they.

Reading these responses for the first time, one could not help sensing an almost plaintive theme from seasoned, well-intentioned professionals clearly venting their frustrations when their best efforts fall on barren ground. Anyone who has worked in our schools for any length of time will understand the poignant plea of one teacher whose simple response to this final question was "I need more power."

Summary

A great deal of useful information was gleaned from the Teacher Opinion Inventory. There are, however, three points which merit special emphasis:

1. Teachers in our school are generally satisfied with their lot. Most of our teachers express some satisfaction with their chosen profession, whilst the majority appear to be very satisfied with the status quo in their school.
2. Teachers in our school are concerned with vital missing ingredients in the learning process. Despite their general satisfaction with the student body, it is clear that almost all teachers surveyed are deeply concerned when poor study habits, lack of student interest and poor self discipline interfere with learning or prevent it entirely. It is clear from the comments made that this concern leads to frustration, stress and anxiety which in some cases, borders on despair. As noted earlier, teacher concern in this area is consistent with research by Martin, Baksh and Singh (1981).
3. Teachers in our school welcome parental involvement but feel that this involvement is lacking. There is a strong feeling that parents possess very little knowledge about our school.

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GETTING ALONG WITH TEACHERS

Wilfred B.W. Martin
 Department of Educational Foundations/
 Institute for Research in Human Abilities
 Memorial University of Newfoundland
 St. John's, Newfoundland

Getting Along with Teachers'

Getting along with their teachers is a salient part of the schooling experiences of many high school students in Newfoundland and Labrador. An analysis of the comments of 143 students from different parts of the province who responded to a request for them to outline aspects of their schooling experiences which concern them reveals several overriding themes in connection with their getting along with their teachers. First, there are comments relating to the ease and to the difficulty experienced in getting along with their teachers. Secondly, there are the observations which address the extent to which students see themselves as getting along with their teachers. Thirdly, the importance of getting along with teachers is highlighted by those who referred to the positive impact of getting along with teachers as opposed to the negative consequences of not getting along with them. Fourthly, there are comments which point to the challenge for both teachers and students to get along with each other. Fifthly, a few comments indicate the reasons why some students and teachers get along together and why others do not have such relationships.

Ease - Difficulty Continuum

It is not surprising that the experiences of students as they relate to getting along with their teachers indicate that their teachers can be placed on a continuum ranging from those who are seen to be open and leisurely to those who are seen to be difficult to deal with. To illustrate, here are comments from students whose experiences are obviously at the ease-end of this continuum with respect to their perceptions of getting along with their teachers.

Grade 9 girls

I find it very easy to get along with the teachers.

I find most of all of my teachers easy to get along with, and all of them are pretty good teachers.

....Myself, I find it very easy to get along with teachers at this school. Most other people feel the same way.

So far I think my teachers are excellent. They are nice people and are not hard to get along with.

I think the teachers in our school are fairly easy to get along with....

Grade 9 boys

.... Teachers are usually easy to get along with and I like most of them

This school is well organized and students get along well with the teachers

Grade 10 girls

.... The teachers are usually very easy to get along with...

.... Most teachers are easy to get along with....

The teachers and students are easy to get along with which makes school easier?

The teachers here, well some of them, are easy to get along with....

I think that this school is pretty good in that the teachers are nice and easy to get along with....

Most of the teachers are easy to get along with, with the exception of a few who think they could run the world all by themselves....

Grade 10 boys

The teachers in my school are overall very easy to get along with...

1 cannot find much fault with the teachers in this school. They all seem fair and easy to get along with (most of them)...

....Some teachers are easy to get along with....

Grade 11 boy

The school is O.K. and so are the teachers. They are easy to get along with.

Grade 11 girls

I think that all our teachers here are easy to get along with...

...Teachers are pretty good, easy to get along with....

In our school the teachers are fairly easy to get along with. The students really get along well with the teachers, also the students, because it is a small school, get along well and know each other....

...Teachers are basically easy to get along with.
 ...Apart from the way teachers react to their work I find most of the teachers if not all of them easy to get along with...

The experiences of some of the respondents indicate that they may be on the difficulty-end of the ease difficulty continuum in their interactions with their teachers. They claimed that their teachers "are hard to get along with". Comments to this effect include the following:

Grade 9 girls

... Some of the teachers in this school are very hard to get along with.

... and the teachers are all hard to get along with.

Also most of the teachers in this school is very hard to get along with....

... Some of the teachers are not that easy to get along with.

Grade 9 boy

I believe school is an important place but there are a few teachers in which I do not get along, for example, we have a new teacher here who thinks he can do anything he well pleases. All the students will be glad when that teacher leaves before second term.

Grade 10 boy

....not all teachers in this school are easy to get along with....

As expected, different students observed that while some teachers are easy to get along with others are not so easy to get along with. Hence, their experiences fall on different points on the ease-difficulty continuum. They may be on one end of this continuum in their interactions with certain teachers, and on the other end with respect to their interactions with other teachers. Such is indicated by the following comments from grades 10 and 11 students.

Grade 10 girls

Some of the teachers are hard to get along with while others are very easy to get along with....

This school is alright most of the time. Things are usually fair and the teachers are not very hard to get along with, except for some of them (a few of them)...

Grade 10 boy

Generally I like most all the activities in school. But my English teacher does not get along well with any of the students and no one likes her ...I get along with the rest of the teachers.

Grade 11 girls

...Most of the teachers are easy to get along with but there are some which are not so nice...

...There is only one teacher I can't get along with, but 1 get along with all the rest...

...I like one teacher the best in this school, because we get along together well, some teachers I can never get along with.

I feel that most of our teachers are easy to get along with. Some of them I can not get along with...

Grade 11 boys

Some teachers are hard to get along with, but most of the time they are pretty good...

... As for the teachers I get along with them all except a couple.

...Most of the teachers are alright, but some of them are hard to get along with...

Another aspect is that not all teachers are good teachers or likeable. Although almost all of them are exceptionable teachers and get along with students there are the few that are the direct opposite of these.

The process of change is also experienced in getting along with teachers in that some teachers may be perceived to be easy to get along with at certain times, but much harder to get along with on other occasions.⁴ For example, one grade 10 boy wrote:

The teachers in this school are very easy to get along with. They are easy to understand and tries to help you as much as they can. Some teachers do become hard to get along with at times but this has to be expected when a number of people may fail a test.

Another grade 10 student (girl) wrote:

...Our teachers are easy to get along with most of the time, although they can be very stubborn at some times, especially on the topic which concerns the appropriate time to give a test....

The implication of other observations is that certain teachers are perceived to be getting along with some students, and not getting along with others.⁵ In the words of one grade 9 girl:

I think that some teachers should try to get along with all students not just certain ones. Some teachers are unfair to students.

Extent of Getting Along Together

Student comments relating to the extent of their getting along with teachers can be divided into two categories. One category includes those comments which tell us that individual students get along with teachers. The other category addresses the extent to which students generally get along with their teachers. Here are a few examples from the first category of comments.

Grade 10 girls

... As for the teachers I get along with most of them and I like them...

During school I have gotten along with teachers, I like most of them...

...I get along with all of the teachers...

... As for teachers, I can get along well with almost all of them. There are a few I dislike and some I am fond of. However, they all have their good points, so I don't think I get along badly with any of them. Some of them are just as much friends as teachers. I think that is important also.

...Most of the teachers in this school are very nice and I get along well with them....

...I get along pretty well with all the teachers.

...I get along with most teachers.....

Grade 10 boy

In our school we have good teachers ... I, personally, get along with all my teachers...

Grade 11 boys

...I get along fairly well with all my teachers...

...I get along with them (the teachers) and try to do my best for them to also like me.

I get along with the teachers pretty well...

I can get along with my teachers.

The teachers are good (most of them), and I get along with them...

Grade 11 girls

...Most of my teachers this year are very good and I get along with them.

.. As for my teachers, I get along well with them...

In my honest opinion, I believe school is interesting, most of the time. I get along quite well with all the teachers and principal...

I get along with most of the teachers...

...I like all my teachers and get along great with all of them...

Some of the comments which tell how well students generally get along with their teachers claimed that most students and teachers get along well together.

Grade 9 girl

Most of the students and teachers get along....

Grade 10 girls

I feel that we have a very good school, the teachers and students in most cases get along good.

...The teachers get along very well with the students (most), because the teachers and the students get together with the students a lot in various activities. I get along with my teachers we all have a lot of fun....

Grade 11 girl

... As far as teacher/student relationships go, it's fine, everyone or most everyone go along with teachers, as well as teachers getting along with students.

Grade 11 boys

My views toward this school are good and I think we have one of the best around. Most of the teachers and students get along well....

This school is pretty good, there is no trouble here and most of the teachers get along with the students.

Other students give their perceptions of the extent to which students and teachers get along by implying that they "generally" get along well together.

Grade 9 girl

In this school, the students, in general seem to get along well with the teachers...

Grade 10 boy

... In general the student body gets along well with the teachers.

Grade 10 girl

I feel this school is usually well organized and people generally get along well...

Grade 11 girls

...There are teachers that have no contact with the students whatsoever - they just teach. But overall there is a good relationship between students and teachers...

...I feel that students and teachers have a pretty good relationship.

The Importance of Getting Along Together

The importance of getting along together has been noted by respondents in each of the three grades, and from several of the schools in the present study. For example, a grade 10 boy claimed that the main reason for his positive attitude toward school is that he "can get along with the teachers." When students and teachers "get along well", according to one grade 11 girl, it "helps the students to enjoy school more." Another grade 11 girl pointed to the fact of feeling "more comfortable in school" when there is "a good teacher-to-student relationship." The result, according to this respondent, is that students "will be able to do better work." Referring to the "very good student-teacher relations" in his school, a grade 11 boy commented:

...This of course affects the overall attitude the student has toward his school work. The teachers have a good vibes, shall I say, with the students and vise versa.....

According to one grade 10 girl, "having a good relationship with all the teachers ... enables" her "to express some of" her "opinions to the teachers knowing that they are listening" and that they "understand". Another grade 10 girl expressed the positive aspects of getting along with her teachers as she wrote:

I feel one of the most important aspects of school is your relationship with your teachers and those around you. If you like your teachers and get along with them and your friends you will be happy, and as a result like school and do well. I know from experience that this is true.

In a similar vein, grade 11 girls commented:

I think that if the students could get along with the teachers and principal good, well we would enjoy ourselves much more while being here.

I enjoy school very much because most of the teachers are easy to get along with...

Getting along with the teachers was pointed out by one grade 9 girl as the core element in the process of evaluating one's school. This respondent wrote:

Concerning your school work, I think school is great as long as I get along with the teachers.

Another grade 9 girl implied that the teachers one can get along with are usually "good teachers", and such teachers are necessary if one is to do "well in school". Other comments which point to the student perceived importance of getting along with one's teachers include the following from grade 10 girls, each from a different school.

I find that my school is one which is well organized and where relationships between the teachers and students is very essential...

...I like it when you have a good relationship with a teacher, it sort of makes you want to work harder to please him/her...

I think a good relationship between the faculty and the student body is important...

One of the consequences of not getting along with the teachers, as perceived by one grade 11 girl, is that she loses interest in the subjects which are taught by those teachers, and as a result she does "badly in their subjects". A grade 10 girl commented that if students are not "able to get

along with" their teachers, "it could cause problems" for them in getting their "education". Another grade 10 girl pointed to potential negative consequences of not getting along with one's teachers. She wrote:

...I also think that students must get along with teachers in order to benefit because if the relationship between the two is bad you may neglect the teachers' work. I think this school is good in that everybody, with a few exceptions, gets along well and that is very important to me....

The Task of Getting Along Together

Students from different schools expressed a belief that there should be improvements in the way teachers and students get along. To illustrate, here are four such comments.

Grade 9 girls

...Also I think students and teachers should get along in a better way.

I feel that the teachers in school should be able to get along with the students, for example: we have a math teacher who believes he should be very technical with the students. He said he is only here to teach and I don't think I've ever seen him smile yet and it's the honest truth.

Grade 10 girl

I think the student-teacher relationship in this school is not up to par and something should be done about it.

Grade 11 boy

I think the relationship between the students and teachers causes a degeneration in school life. We consider them to be our superiors when really they are not but this is because at times they tend to rule over us...

Teachers consider us to be inferior and we do not have enough input in decisions that concern our school....

Some of the teachers were praised by the students for their effort in attempting to get along with the students. For example, one grade 9 girl wrote:

...The teachers usually do their best to keep good relations with the students....

One grade 9 boy observed that "the teachers try to get along with" the students. On a similar line of thought, another grade 10 boy wrote:

I believe the teachers, for the most part, are well informed and they try their best to have good relations with the student body....

According to the comments of a grade 11 boy, the teachers sincerely try a lot to get along with the students. In contrast to the praise which some students had for teachers in this regard, one respondent, a grade 10 girl, claimed that certain teachers do not "try to create" an appropriate teacher-student relationship.

Students have also been challenged to put more effort into the process of getting along with their teachers. In the words of one grade 9 girl:

..I think students can get along with teachers if they try to get along with them.

Another grade 9 girl said her only wish is for the students to build a better relationship with teachers". Agreeing that both teachers and students should work together to create better social relationships, a grade 10 boy opined:

I think teachers should get more involved with students and that they and the students should activate a better relationship and understanding of each other.

Indications are that some students realize that getting along with teachers does not necessarily mean that they are in total agreement with the teachers' views on whatever issue is important at the time. The comment of one grade 9 illustrates this.

I feel that we generally get along with teachers although there are times we disagree with them. They often tend to cram homework at one time to get a topic done before a test instead of learning the topic slowly and having it on another test. It is also very common that teachers become so concerned about getting a lot of work done just before our final exams. This can be very confusing. But we get along with the teachers....

The observation of a grade 10 girl is also of interest here. She wrote:

...the students and teachers get along well a lot of the time but there are times when arguments arise....

A grade 9 boy in another school claimed to be able to work out the "few problems" which exist between him and his teachers.

...I get along well even though I have a few problems, but I usually work them out with the teachers except for my English teacher who generally gets (hysterical) when something goes wrong even though we didn't try it.

Facilitating Getting Along Together

Students from different schools reported several reasons for not getting along with, their teachers. For example, one grade 10 girl accused one of her teachers of being too strict concerning dress code and her expectations for students behaviour in general. This student claims if students "don't dress and act the same way" as this teacher does "then you're not her type", and they will have difficulty in getting along with her.

One respondent, a grade 10 boy, implied that one of the reasons why teachers and students have problems getting along is that students sometimes "bug the teachers". Having opined that in his "school students and teacher get along quite well", this boy added:

Of course there are those students who think they are sent to school to bug the teachers.

Another grade 10 boy figured that he got along well with his teachers because he was "never given too much homework", and he kept his "marks to a sufficient level." These two facts mean, in his own words, "that the teachers have no complaints about me and I have none about them."

On a different line of thought, a grade 9 girl claimed students get along well with their teachers because "teachers make school seem fun, and exciting."

According to one grade 11 girl, teachers are easy to get along with when they have "an open mind", when they are "easy to understand" and when they "are easy to work with".

Another grade 11 girl, from a different school, wrote that her teachers "are very easy to get along with" and "they are usually good to work with". A third grade 11 girl claimed that teachers are easy to get along with when it is "easy to ask questions" to them about one's studies. On a similar note, a grade 11 boy reasoned that because the teachers are friendly they are easy to get along with. Another reason, for students and teachers getting along together, as pinpointed by students from several schools, is that teachers are perceived to be "very helpful". In fact the numbers of students referring to the ideas of teachers being friendly with them and teachers helping them, together with the nature of these processes as isolated by students, suggest the need for separate and detailed presentations on each.

Footnotes

¹This paper is taken from a forthcoming monograph on Helpful, Understanding, and Co-operative Teachers.

²The request was given at the end of a survey questionnaire, and it was stated as follows: "Obviously, this questionnaire covers only a small part of your experiences in the school. Please outline other aspects of your experiences in the school which concern you. Feel free to add any views you

might have concerning your school, your teachers, your textbooks, and the way you are expected to study."

³Although outside of our present discussion, it is worth noting that, according to our data, getting along with one's fellow students is also of concern to many high school students.

⁴This is tied in with the idea of teacher-moods, a topic which several students referred to in relating their schooling experiences.

⁵An earlier publication (Wilfred B.W. Martin, 1982, Teachers' Pets and Class Victims, St. John's: Faculty of Education, Memorial University) elaborates on this dimension of the schooling experiences of high school students.

⁶This detail is given in the forthcoming publication referred to in footnote 1.

TEACHERS' PERCEPTION OF CHILDREN'S ACADEMIC POTENTIAL IN NEWFOUNDLAND

Amarjit Singh
Ishmael J. Baksh
Educational Foundations

Introduction

This brief paper is a part of a series of papers we have been publishing in the *Morning Watch* in the past several years. Our interest in these papers has been to apply the symbolic interactionist perspective to the understanding of the education process. Specifically, we have been interested in the self-concept of ability model (SCA) and how it can be used to enhance academic achievement of adolescents in school. The SCA model stresses the dynamics of interaction among various actors involved in school activities (e.g., teachers, students, principals, parents, etc.). Within this model, the perception teachers hold about their students' academic potential is considered a crucial variable in the academic achievement of students. The symbolic interactionist theory and the self-concept of academic ability approach in education are discussed more fully elsewhere in the *Morning Watch*.¹ Here our purpose is to present and discuss some selected items from our data that were collected in connection with a larger study entitled: Teachers' Experiences and Perceptions of Teaching in Newfoundland.

Methodology, Findings and Discussion

The data on which this study is based were collected through a questionnaire survey of a random sample of 704 primary-elementary school teachers. The methodology and the sample have been described in detail elsewhere.²

The data included several demographic and socio-economic variables: age, sex, marital status, family size, number of years of postsecondary education, parents' occupation, parents' education, and so on.

Our analysis of data shows no association between teachers' perception of children's academic potential and the above-mentioned demographic and socio-economic variables. Three items included in the questionnaire give clues to teachers' perception of children's academic potential. These are:

1. Teacher often attempts to obtain model answers from students in order to get discussion started, to illustrate correct answers, or to motivate the class. Based upon your experience as a teacher, if at the very beginning of a new school year, someone asked you what percentage of the students in the class(es) you teach can be depended upon to provide model answers, which of the following would be closest to your response.

2. What proportion of the pupils in your school are interested in their school work?
3. Based upon your previous experience as a teacher, if in September someone asked you, "what percentage of the students in your class will really master the material you present?" Which of the following would be closest to your response?

Table 1 shows teachers' perception of percentage of the students in their classes who can be depended upon to provide model answers. Only 15 percent of teachers think that 50 percent can be depended upon for model answers. A very small percentage of teachers (3%) thought that 70 percent of students can be expected to be able to provide model answers. Although Table 2 shows that 49 percent of the teachers responded that the majority of the pupils were interested in their school work, only 7 percent of them thought that almost all students were interested in school work. Again as shown in Table 3 only small percentage of teachers (26.1) thought that 80.1 percent of students can master the material presented by teachers. A very small percentage of teachers (16.1) thought that 90 percent can master the material.

Category Label	Percentage
0.0%	4.1 (29)
10.0%	27.3 (129)
20.0%	17.5 (123)
30.0%	11.9 (84)
40.0%	10.4 (73)
50.0%	14.9 (105)
60.0%	9.1 (64)
70.0%	3.1 (22)
80.0% or more	1.7 (12)
Total	100.0 (704)

We wonder what would be the outcome if a greater percentage of teachers perceived that almost all students in their classes could be depended upon to provide model answers, that almost all of the pupils were interested in the school work, and that almost one hundred percent of their students could master the material presented to them in classes? We speculate that if this were the situation a much greater percentage of the students - more than 90 percent - would show interest in the school work, master the material presented to them in classes and act as being capable of providing model answers.

Our speculation is not totally unfounded; rather, it is based upon uncanny insights of some noted researchers examining the social psychological process involved in human learning in cultural contexts. We are well of, and in fact have pointed out elsewhere, that very little is understood about human learning. However, we still feel it worthwhile to draw the

attention of educators to two observations made by Brookover and Erickson about the nature of culture and society:

1. Human beings learn to behave in many different ways. There is not a single language, but scores of languages, characteristic of various societies around the world. There are widely different patterns of behavior in almost any aspect of human life - religion, values, relation of men and women, dress, eating, and sleeping. Human organisms apparently have the ability to learn a very wide range of behavior - whatever is appropriate in their society.
2. Nearly all members of each society learn certain behavior patterns commonly expected in the society; Americans (also Canadians and Newfoundlanders) often discuss the difficulty of learning a foreign language and the relative complexity of various languages. In this we imply that some people cannot learn some languages, but with very rare exceptions, every child in any of the society learns whatever language is provided and deemed appropriate and proper for him to learn regardless of its complexity. American (also Canadian and Newfoundland) schools generally provide foreign language instruction for only those students with presumably high language ability, in spite of the fact that even rather retarded French children learn to speak French. The same, of course, could be said for all aspects of the common cultural behaviours. Walking, food consumption, dress, religion, and a complex pattern of relationship between sexes in each group, as well as many other aspects of the culture, are required by essentially all members of the society. This is such a universal phenomenon in every society, including our own, that no question is ever raised concerning the possibility that a newborn child will fail to acquire the appropriate patterns of human behaviour. And more important, almost 100percent of the children do learn such behaviour.

Table 2: What proportion pupils in your school are interested in their school work.

Category Label	Percentage
Almost all	6.8 (48)
The majority	48.9 (344)
About half	32.0 (225)
A minority	11.5 (81)
Almost none	0.7 (5)
Total	100.0 (704)

In an earlier article in the Morning Watch in which we refer to Brookover's and Erickson's above observations, we attempted to draw the attention of our readers to the point that ". . .if the culture is learned by all people in a particular society, some important question which may have important implications for learning in schools are raised. What are the processes at work in society which make learning of universal behaviour by all people possible? How do almost 100 percent of the people learn these behaviours - for example, language, eating habits, relationship between the sexes, etc."³

In the same article we stressed that "the main idea is that if we know how culture is learned by 100 percent of the people in society, and if we could somehow organize the structure of our schools in such a way that it would become possible to transplant those cultural processes in it, then it might be possible for educators to meet their professed responsibility, that is, of making everyone who comes to school learn functionally."

Table 3: Based upon your previous experience as a teacher, if in September someone asked you, "what percent of the students in your class will really master the material you present?" Which of the following would be closest to your response.

Category Label	Percentage
20%	2.7 (19)
30%	4.3 (30)
40%	6.0 (42)
50%	8.7 (61)
60%	13.7 (96)
70%	21.6 (151)
80%	26.0 (64)
90%	16.2 (114)
100%	.9 (6)
Total	100.0 (704)

One of the processes which are crucial in the process of cultural learning is universality of expectation, i.e., all people are expected to learn certain aspects of culture. Elsewhere in an article in the Morning Watch we raised a question: Do we sometime expect too little from our students as far as their academic achievement is concerned? In the same article we also pointed out that more carefully conducted studies suggest that "...those whom we expect to do well tend actually to do well while those whom we expect to do badly tend to fall behind."⁴

Some Implications

We suggest that if a greater percentage of teachers in Newfoundland expect a greater percentage of their students to learn, the result will be that a much higher percentage of students will learn whatever is being taught to them. The organization of learning and teaching based on this line of thinking has been more recently supported by carefully conducted studies in Michigan. Table 1: Teachers often attempt to obtain model answers from students in order to get discussion started, to illustrate correct answers, or to motivate the class. Based upon your experience as a teacher, if at the very beginning of a new school year, someone asked you what percentage of the students in the classes) you teach can be depended upon to provide model answers, which of the following would be closest to your response.

Footnotes

¹A. Singh. "Self-Concept of Ability: A Positive Approach to Classroom Learning and Teaching" pp. 25-27; "The Meaning of Having Positive Self-Concept of Ability in Practical Terms," pp. 28-29; "Something More About the Self-Concept of Ability in Education," pp. 148-151, in A. Singh and I.J. Baksh (eds) **Society, Culture and Schooling: Issues and Analysis**, Department of Educational Foundations, Memorial University, 1977.

²I.J. Baksh and A. Singh. **The Teachers in the Newfoundland Community**, Faculty of Education, Memorial University, 1979; I.J. Baksh and A. Singh, **Teachers' Perceptions of Teaching: A Newfoundland Study**, Faculty of Education, Memorial University, 1980.

³A Singh. "The Process of Cultural Learning and the Fixed Ability Model of Learning," in A. Singh and I.J. Baksh (eds) **Society, Culture and Schooling: Issues and Analysis**, 1977, op. cit., pp. 144-147.

⁴I.J. Baksh. "Do We Sometimes Expect Too Little?", pp. 30-31, and "Some More on the Self-fulfilling Prophecy in Education," pp. 32-34, in A. Singh and I.J. Baksh (eds) **Society, Culture and Schooling: Issues and Analysis**, 1977, op. cit.

**ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE AND EFFECTIVENESS:
PERCEPTIONS OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS**

**Vernon J. Snelgrove
Department of Educational Administration
Dudley Wheeler**

This study was designed to investigate the structural patterns within Newfoundland schools and to determine possible relationships between school structure and perceived school effectiveness. School structure, viewed as a means to certain desired ends, was conceived of in terms of an orientation to Weberian bureaucratic principles and/or to selected professional dimensions. In other words, school structure was seen as a configuration of both bureaucratic and professional characteristics. The study then postulated that school effectiveness will vary according to a school's particular structural composition.

Effectiveness, approached through the systems model of Georgopoulos and Tannenbaum (1957), was limited to teachers' perceptions of seven variables: (1) four productivity variables, defined as quality of instruction; (2) one teacher flexibility, or adaptability to change, variable; and (3) two variables measuring absence of strain and conflict within schools. Table 1 outlines the school variables investigated in this study.

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables
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Structural (Means) Dimensions	Effectiveness (Ends)
<p>Bureaucratic Orientation:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Hierarchy of authority 2. Rules for incumbents 3. System of procedures 4. Impersonality <p>Professional Orientation:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Orientation to students 2. Orientation to profession 3. Technical competence 4. Teacher autonomy 	<p>Productivity</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Quality of teaching basic skills 2. Quality of teaching the ability to reason and apply knowledge 3. Quality of teaching moral standards 4. Quality of overall teaching <p>Flexibility</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Adjustment to internal and external change <p>Absence of Strain and Conflict</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Absence of undue pressure for performance 2. Absence of tension between sub-groups

Table 1. School Structural-Effectiveness Variables

In short, the study focused on an investigation of the following:

1. the structural configurations of the province's schools as represented by orientation to bureaucratic dimensions and/or professional dimensions;
2. the relationships between bureaucratic dimensions and school effectiveness;
3. the relationships between professional dimensions and school effectiveness; and
4. which structural configurations were perceived as the most effective relative to the seven effectiveness criteria.

Design of the Study

The basic design of this investigation followed the sample survey approach, with the school as the unit of analysis. By means of random numbers, a sample of 166 schools from around the Province was selected. The perceptions of one classroom teacher in each school were obtained through mailed questionnaires in May and June of 1982.

Details relating to the instrument used, and the analysis of the data, are available elsewhere (Wheeler, 1982).

Results of the Study

School Structural Orientation

The median bureaucracy score for the sample was 110, and the median professional score was 44. Theoretically, if the distributions had been symmetrical, the medians would have been 126 and 39 for bureaucracy and professionalism, respectively. In this case, the bureaucratic distribution was skewed slightly to the left (Skewness = .39). In other words, Newfoundland schools were perceived as being somewhat low on bureaucratic characteristics. The professional distribution, in contrast, was skewed slightly to the right (Skewness = -.16). Classroom teachers, then, saw schools as moderately, but predominantly, oriented to professionalism while remaining somewhat bureaucratic.

These results were to be expected, and are similar to findings from previous studies (MacKay, 1964; Punch, 1969; Stewart, 1978).

Selected Structural Interrelationships

The following sections report only results of Pearson correlations. Results of regression equations have not been reported here simply because they contributed nothing of significance beyond what could be deduced from the product-moment results. In short, the multiple regression analyses confirmed those deductions.

Relationships between Structure and Orientation to Students

Relationships between all four bureaucratic dimensions and orientation to students were negative, and with the exception of impersonality, significant at the 5 percent level. The strength of the relationships, however, was somewhat surprising. One could, perhaps, expect to have obtained stronger negative associations (see matrix, Table 4).

Results indicated positive relationships between orientation to students and the other three professional dimensions. Orientation to students was significantly and positively related to both orientation to the profession ($r = .17$) and teacher autonomy ($r = .26$). While there was a positive relationship with technical competence ($r = .13$), it was not significant at the .05 level.

These findings indicate that professional dimensions tend to vary together; that is, as the degree of teacher participation in one professional dimension increases, there is a tendency for increases to occur in the other dimensions. Marjoribanks (1977) found the autonomy variable to be a major determinant of professionalism among teachers, such that increases in autonomy were associated with increases in professional attitudes. Interestingly, results here show that orientation to students had its strongest relationship with teacher autonomy ($r = .26$).

It is, of course, too simplistic to conclude that increasing teacher autonomy will automatically result in increased teacher commitment to students' interests. The potential for this development may be present with greater teacher autonomy, but common sense suggests that leadership will be required to convert it into the ideal of service to students. Results of this study indicate that structural properties in Newfoundland schools appear favourably arranged for that development to occur.

Relationships between Structure and Teacher Autonomy

The results showed that the greater the emphasis on any or all of the bureaucratic dimensions in a school, the lower the degree of decision-making authority (autonomy) held by teachers. In direct contrast to bureaucracy, the relationships between the other professional variables and teacher autonomy were all significantly positive. Correlations with autonomy ranged from a low of .21 for orientation to technical competence, to a high of .32 for orientation to profession.

It would not be logical to interpret these findings to mean that the greater the presence of other professional dimensions, the greater the teacher autonomy. The extent to which teachers engage in decision making is not always a matter under teacher control. Rather, the strong negative relationship between autonomy and total bureaucracy ($r = - .46$) suggests that, as teacher participation in decision-making increases, there may be corresponding increases in other professional dimensions. An inspection of the correlation matrix (Table 4) revealed that, with the exception of student orientation and teacher autonomy, the professional dimensions had little, if any, relationship with bureaucracy. The key professional variable for teachers appears to be autonomy. This is consistent with other findings and conclusions (Blau and Scott, 1962; MacKay, 1964; Hall, 1968; Marjoribanks, 1977; Stewart, 1978). In other words, an increased professional orientation among teachers appears to be directly associated with increased teacher participation in decision-making.

Relationships between School Structure and School Effectiveness

Relationships between Structure and Productivity

The results of the correlation analyses are presented in Table 2. The correlations between professional orientation and the dependent variables were all positive and significant at the 5 percent level. On the other hand,

correlations between bureaucracy and the dependent variables were so low that one can justifiably conclude that present levels of bureaucracy in our schools appear to have no practical association with the quality of instruction.

It is, indeed, rather surprising that no association would emerge between bureaucracy and teaching variables. Apart from results of previous studies, there were other valid reasons to suspect a significant negative relationship. For instance, within recent years most school districts in the province have introduced formal evaluation procedures for teachers. There were reasons to believe those procedures were very much involved with quality of instruction.

Table 2. Correlations between Structure and Quality of Teaching
N: 166

Structure Variables	Productivity Variables			
	Correlation with Quality of Teaching			
	Basic Skills	A b i l i t y t o R e a s o n a n d A p p l y K n o w l e d g e	H i g h M o r a l S t a n d a r d s	O v e r a l l T e a c h i n g

Bureaucratic orientation	-.08	.00	.04	-.03
Professional orientation	.16*	.30*	.21*	.25*

*Significant at the .05 level ($r_{.05} = .15$)

A number of possibilities may explain why the expected relationships did not materialize. Formal evaluation may not be a continuous process as many official policy statements claim. Also, many principals who do evaluate teachers may be conducting the evaluation without classroom visitation, and without questioning teachers closely about their teaching activities. In any event, in this study teachers' perceived bureaucratization has no significant relationship with the quality of instruction in schools.

If this conclusion is accurate, then school administrators appear not to exert much influence over teaching methods and procedures. This may be an indication that principals are behaving in a manner more characteristic of the human relations model than the human resources model (Miles, 1965). At the extreme, it could point to the possibility that, in respect to actual teaching tasks, most principals practise a laissez-faire leadership style.

The positive relationships with professional orientation mean that teachers associate increased professionalism in a school with higher quality of instruction. Care has to be taken, however, in attempting to interpret exactly what that means. Inspection of the correlation matrix showed the student orientation dimension of professionalism to have little relationship with any of the four teaching variables. While the other professional dimensions showed considerably more association than the orientation to student scale, it was the autonomy variable which was consistently significant with all four teaching variables. Apparently, teachers associate classroom teacher participation in decision-making with quality instruction; the greater the autonomy, the better the perceived quality of teaching.

Relationships between Structure and Flexibility. It was hypothesized that orientation to bureaucracy is negatively related to flexibility, while orientation to professionalism is positively related. The results supported the second part of the hypotheses, but gave little support for the first. The correlation between professional orientation and teacher flexibility was positive and significant ($r = .35$). Bureaucracy, however, emerged as having no relationship with teachers' ability to adjust and adapt to change ($r = -.03$).

It is possible that the lack of association between bureaucracy and teacher flexibility has a similar explanation as that for bureaucracy and productivity. It appears that Newfoundland teachers perceived themselves as

holding considerable authority over classroom procedures. That authority, it is reasonable to assume, would encompass the manner and extent to which teachers feel they can adjust and adapt changes in policies, programs, and suggested teaching methods to fit their individual styles and preferences of operation. If teachers generally feel they have the freedom to adjust, adapt, accept, or reject changes suggested by the educational bureaucracy, then effective bureaucratic influence in the area of change is bound to be negligible. A lack of relationship between bureaucracy and teacher flexibility can be the expected result of such a situation.

Relationships between Structure and Intraorganizational Strain and Conflict. For this research, intraorganizational strain and conflict variables were separated into two subscales: undue pressure for better performance, and tension between school sub-groups. On the assumption that absence of strain and conflict leads to greater effectiveness, it was hypothesized that there is a negative relationship with bureaucratic orientation and a positive relationship with professional orientation, for both dependent variables. The correlations presented in Table 3 generally support the hypotheses.

Correlations (see Table 4) for the absence of undue pressure variable show that pressure had no significant association with any of the other effectiveness variables except absence of tension ($r = .24$). That is, low levels of tension and conflict are directly associated with low levels of unreasonable pressure. On the other hand, pressure for performance appears not to have any significant association with quality of teaching, or with flexibility.

Table 3. Correlations between Structure and Intraorganizational Strain and Conflict
N: 166

Structure Variables	Correlations with Dependent Variables	
	Absence of Undue Pressure	Absence of Tension
Bureaucratic orientation	-.34*	-.31*
Professional orientation	.10	.32*

*Significant at the .05 level ($r_{.05} = .15$)

Of these two dependent variables, the results showed only absence of tension having significant relationships with the other effectiveness scales. Low levels of tension and conflict in schools were perceived to carry positive associations for both quality of instruction and teacher willingness to adapt to change. High levels of tension, then, were obviously seen as dysfunctional in terms of school effectiveness as defined in this research.

Structural Combinations and Effectiveness.

According to Hoy and Miskel (1982), certain combinations of bureaucracy and professionalism should result in more effective schools. In an attempt to gain insight into the relative effectiveness of different structural combinations, a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was computed. If the Hoy and Miskel topology were an accurate depiction of reality, then significant differences should result from the interaction effects of bureaucratic and professional orientations.

Results of this analysis did not, however, reveal any significant differences in the interaction between high and low bureaucratic and professional combinations for any of the effectiveness criteria. This lack of significance shows that no optimum combination of bureaucracy and professionalism existed among these schools for either of the criterion measures.

To repeat, as the results of the correlational analyses have shown, professionally oriented schools were seen to be more effective, while orientation to bureaucracy was perceived as either having no effect, or as contributing to ineffectiveness. It can be concluded that classroom teachers saw professional structure as the most effective means to accomplish school goals.

Conclusions

This study revealed that Newfoundland classroom teachers perceived schools as moderately oriented to professionalism while remaining somewhat bureaucratic. All statistically significant relationships between professionalism and bureaucracy, however, were negative, indicating these may be non-complementary phenomena.

While the relationships between school level bureaucracy and effectiveness were negative in most cases, they did not approach significance for either quality of teaching or teacher flexibility variables. Thus, bureaucracy was seen as having no association with either classroom instruction, or teacher ability to cope with change. Bureaucracy was seen, however, as related to more ineffective levels of strain and conflict in schools. In contrast, professionalism was perceived as positively related to all effectiveness variables.

No evidence was found to support any optimum combination of Weberian bureaucracy and professionalism relative to either of the effectiveness criteria. Thus, within the limitations of this study, professionalism emerged as the most effective organizational means to achieve educational goals.

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Table 4: CORRELATION MATRIX FOR INDEPENDENT AND DEPENDENT VARIABLES*

	B1	B2	B3	B4	BT	P1	P2	P3	P4	PT	E1	E2	E3	E4	E5	E6	E7
B1	1.00	.60	.60	.34	.85	-.18	-.01	.03	-.45	-.24	-.07	.01	.05	.00	-.05	-.40	-.24
B2		1.00	.61	.25	.81	-.19	-.02	.02	-.28	-.18	.01	.05	.08	.02	-.01	-.29	-.24
B3			1.00	.34	.83	-.17	-.02	.01	-.47	-.25	-.10	-.07	-.04	-.10	-.11	-.21	-.28
B4				1.00	.60	-.02	.14	.11	-.22	.01	-.12	-.02	.00	-.06	.07	-.12	-.18
BT					1.00	-.19	.02	.05	-.46	-.22	-.08	.00	.04	-.03	-.03	-.34	-.31
P1						1.00	.17	.13	.26	.61	-.01	.08	.12	.02	.10	.01	.14
P2							1.00	.25	.32	.73	.10	.28	.19	.16	.28	.01	.20
P3								1.00	.21	.55	.15	.17	.05	.20	.20	.04	.13
P4									1.00	.69	.20	.25	.15	.29	.31	.22	.36
PT										1.00	.16	.30	.21	.25	.35	.10	.32
E1											1.00	.70	.39	.60	.41	.09	.26
E2												1.00	.48	.60	.42	.01	.23
E3													1.00	.53	.39	-.11	.31
E4														1.00	.44	.01	.37
E5															1.00	.01	.44
E6																1.00	.24

*See next page for key to variable list

Key to variable list of correlation matrix

B1	Hierarchy of authority	E1	Quality of teaching basic skills
B2		E2	Quality of teaching the ability to reason and apply
B3	Rules for incumbents	E3	knowledge
B4	Systems of procedures	E4	Quality of teaching moral standards
BT	Impersonality	E5	Quality of overall teaching
	Total bureaucracy score	E6	Flexibility
P1		E7	Absence of undue pressure
P2	Client orientation		Absence of tension and conflict
P3	Orientation to profession		
P4	Orientation to technical competence		
PT	Teacher autonomy		
	Total professionalism score		

**TEACHERS' PERCEPTION OF PARENTS' INTEREST IN
THEIR CHILDREN'S EDUCATION AND IN TEACHER'S
IDEAS IN SOME NEWFOUNDLAND COMMUNITIES**

**Amarjit Singh
I..J. Baksh**

Department of Educational Foundations

Introduction

In Sociology of Education field research has been conducted in many countries, including Newfoundland, using the symbolic interactionist tradition. Such research has shown that young school children perceive parents and teachers as "significant others". In sociological language "the people who are important for us" are called our "significant others". Each of us as individuals has some significant others. How these people treat us, what they expect of us, are important for our behavior. We adjust our behavior to the expectations of "significant others". Teachers and parents are perceived by adolescents both as "Academic Significant Others" (ASO) and "General Significant Others" (GSO). ASO are people who are perceived as being concerned with the academic achievement only and GSO are those who are perceived as being concerned with the overall well being of students.

In the self-concept of ability approach in education, which draws heavily upon the symbolic interactionist research tradition, "significant others" are considered to be among the most important factors associated with the academic achievement of students in schools. The research in this area indicates that students' perceived perception of parents' and teachers' expectations about their academic ability is positively associated with students' self-concept of academic ability (a student's own assessment of his/her own ability to perform various tasks in a school interaction is his/her self-concept of academic ability), which in turn is positively related to students' academic achievement.

In extending the self-concept of ability approach in education, in this paper, we focus on teachers' ideas about teaching. We believe it is useful to study what teachers as one group of "significant others" think about parents as another group of "significant others" in students' academic life. The self-concept of ability approach stresses the dynamics of interaction among various actors involved in school situations. Teachers, parents, students, principals and some other people are actors who are actively involved in the organization of learning and teaching in most modern and formal schools. Any insights into their perceptions of one another's expectations about their respective roles in the process of teaching of youngsters, in our opinion, can only enhance our understanding of students' achievement in schools.

Our understanding of the data and the theoretical perspective that we use here guides us to propose that if teachers perceive (1) that parents of students whom they teach are genuinely interested in their children's work at school, (2) that parents are also interested in their (teachers') teaching ideas, (3) that teachers themselves are also interested in introducing their own ideas, and (4) that they (the teachers) are encouraged by parents to

implement their ideas, then (5) teachers will have a high self-concept of themselves as teachers, and (6) will define their students as "good" students and therefore expect them to learn, the eventual result of this process being that (7) the students will achieve greater success in various subjects taught to them by teachers. These steps in the process of students' achievement are illustrated in [Fig.] 1.

Figure 1

**Hypothesized Steps in the Process of Students'
Academic Achievement at Primary-Elementary
School Levels**

TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS

High interest of parents in their children's academic work at school (1).

High interest of parents in teachers' ideas about teaching (2).

High interest of teachers in introducing their own ideas about teaching in school (3).

High parent encouragement to teachers to implement their (teachers' own) ideas in school (4).

High Teacher → Self-concept → (5)

Teacher Definition of Student's "Good" Student: High Teacher → Expectation

High Student Achievement (7)

Methodology, Findings and Discussion

The data for the present study was obtained from a questionnaire survey of a random sample of 704 primary-elementary school teachers. Further details regarding the sample are available elsewhere.¹

The demographic and socio-economic variables included in the study were: age, sex, marital status, number of siblings, family size, size of the hometown, size of the community where teachers were teaching, number of years of post-secondary education, number of students in the school, number of teachers in the school, parent's occupation, and parents' educational level.

Our analysis of the data shows no association between the above mentioned demographic and socio-economic variables and perception of parents' interest in their children's education and in teachers' ideas.

The six items in our questionnaire that are relevant to our discussion here are mentioned below. Data on students' achievement were not collected.

- I. How often have parents tried to discuss their children's education or general progress with you outside of school (e.g., in chance meetings, at social or recreational events, etc.)?
- II. What proportion of the parents in the community would you estimate are highly concerned about the education and academic progress of their children?
- III. In your interaction with parents, what have you gathered is their feeling in general about the usefulness of the kinds of ideas you got from education courses at University?
- IV. If you have tried to introduce new ideas or practices, how encouraged or discouraged were you in general by the reaction of parents?
- V. Upon completion of your education courses at University how interested were you in implementing the ideas you got in them?
- VI. What proportion of the ideas you got from education courses at University have you been able to put into practice?

Teachers' perception of parents' interest in their children's education was measured by item numbers I and II; item number III measured teachers' perception of parents' interest in their ideas; item number IV measured frequency of parents' encouragement to teachers to implement their own ideas in school, and items number V and VI measured teachers' own estimate of their attempts to introduce ideas which they learned from Education courses at University.

We are well aware of the fact that our data do not allow us to establish the kind of links among the seven steps we have proposed in the introduction,

which according to our understanding culminate in higher student academic achievement (See Figure 1). Our contention is that reasonable sensitivity to the symbolic interactionist perspective in general and some acquaintance with studies carried out in the tradition of the self-concept of ability approach in education will allow the readers to attribute the meaning we are giving to our interpretation of the data.

Whatever the limitations may be, Table 1 shows the distribution of the responses to the item designed to measure teachers' perception of parents' attempt to discuss their children's education in school with them (teachers). It is clear from Table 1 that 52 percent of teachers perceive that parents occasionally discuss education of their children with teachers outside of school. If category labels "Never", "Almost never" and "Occasionally" are added together, the data show that approximately 78 percent of teachers perceive that parents seldom discuss their children's general progress in school with them. This indicates that the interaction between teachers and parents as "significant others" of students in some Newfoundland communities is very limited. The result of an earlier study may be of some interest here. In that study we found that approximately 72 percent of teachers reported having limited social and recreational interaction with their colleagues. What meanings can be attributed to this situation? It seems that outside of school teachers interact with some other group of people who are not perceived by students as significant others. We do not know if this is the reason that approximately 68 percent of teachers reported having average self-concept.

Table 2 presents teachers' estimate of proportion of the parents in the community who are highly concerned about the education and academic progress of their children. Approximately 33 percent of teachers estimated that half or the majority of the parents were highly concerned about their children's academic progress. We realize that Table 2 is hard to interpret because our categories are not very clear. However, it appears from the data in this table that only 7 percent of teachers estimated that almost all parents were interested in their children's progress. Does it mean that only 7 percent of teachers believe that a small proportion of students can be high achievers and therefore, in fact, expect only a small proportion of students to achieve successfully in their classes? If this is the case then can we say that a self-fulfilling prophecy is the outcome of the interaction process between teachers and parents? It may be an unintended outcome. On the other hand, it may also be due to the consciously held popular belief - so prevalent in our school system and in society in general - that only a few pupils have the ability to be high achievers.

Table 3 shows that 71 percent of teachers perceive that parents are neutral in general about the usefulness of ideas teachers got from education courses at University. Is this an indication of lack of empathy on the part of parents with the ideas teachers hold and the source of these ideas? Or can we say that the Faculty of Education and the University should become more vigorously involved in the dissemination process? Or does it mean that parents are mystified by the professional image and expert mystique of teachers, and therefore are unable to critically evaluate teachers' ideas? Traditionally teachers in Newfoundland communities have always had some

authority and control over knowledge and it seems plausible to suggest that many parents still do not feel competent to pass any judgment on teachers' ideas.

Table 4 shows that approximately 61 percent of teachers were interested in implementing the ideas they got from Education courses but only 26 percent perceived (Table 5) that they were somewhat encouraged by parents in the actual implementation of those ideas. A high proportion of teachers (60 percent) perceived that they were not affected one way or the other by the reaction of parents when they tried to introduce new ideas or practices in school (see Table 5). Does this mean that teachers tend to ignore parents' opinion? Or does this mean that some new organizational models need to be developed to effectively encourage interaction between two groups of significant others - teachers and parents?

Finally, Table 6 shows that 58 percent of teachers perceive that they were able to put into practice only a minority of the ideas they acquired from Education courses at University. It is interesting to mention here that in our analysis of the same data elsewhere we found that approximately the same percent of teachers (58 percent) reported that they in fact attempted to introduce new ideas or practices in school.'

In analyzing our data, we have focused on selected aspects of dynamics involved in teacher-parent interaction. We do not exactly know what effect such dynamics have on teachers' self-concept and ultimately on students' academic achievement. However, our inclination in this paper has been to posit that high degree of interaction between parents and teachers will possibly result in high teacher self-concept, which in turn will encourage them to hold high academic expectations for their students, the final result being high student achievement (see Figure 1).

Conclusion/Implications

The analysis of our data indicates that not all teachers in our study perceive that: large numbers of parents are interested in their children's academic work at school; parents have high interest in teachers' ideas about teaching; parents provide high encouragement to teachers to implement their (teachers' own) ideas in school; they were able to put into practice most of the ideas they acquired from Education courses at University.

One implication of the interpretation we have imposed on the data in this paper is that more frequent, and perhaps intense, interaction among parents and teachers, and among teachers themselves, may enhance the academic achievement of students in the Province. The self-concept of ability approach in education encourages us to make this suggestion.' The basic idea is that teachers and parents are perceived by students as significant others and that in the role of academic others they play a crucial role in the academic achievement of students. It is therefore important to know what each of these groups of significant others thinks about the other. In presenting data, admittedly in a simplistic form, our purpose in this paper has been to

focus on (1) teachers' perception of parents' interest in their children's education and in ideas acquired by teachers when they took Education courses at the University, and (2) to discuss the possible consequences (see Figure 1) of interaction between teachers and parents on teachers' self-concept, their expectations about students,' and students' academic achievement.

1. #7 How often have parents tried to discuss their children's education or general progress with you outside of school (e.g., in chance meetings, at social or recreational events, etc.)?

Category Label	Percentage
Never	7.2 (51)
Almost Never	18.6 (131)
Occasionally	52.1(367)
Often	17.6 (124)
Very Often	4.4 (31)
TOTAL	100 (704)

2. #24 What proportion of the parents in the community for estimate are highly concerned about the education and academic progress of their children?

Category Label	Percentage
Almost All	7.4 (52)
The Majority	32.7 (229)
Almost Half	33.4 (234)
A Minority	24.8 (174)
Almost None	1.7 (12)
	IN (704)

3. #32 In your interaction with parents, what have you gathered is their feeling in general about the usefulness of the kind of ideas you got from Education courses at University.

Category Label	Percentage
Highly Unfavorable	1.3 (9)
Unfavorable	4.1 (29)
Neutral	71.1 (499)
Favorable	21.7 (152)
Highly Favorable	1.9 (13)
TOTAL	100 (704)

4. #31 Upon completion of your Education courses at University how interested were you in implementing the ideas you got in them.

Category Label	Percentage
Highly Interested	22.7 (160)
Interested	60.5 (426)
Neither one way nor the other	12.9 (91)
Uninterested	2.8 (20)
Highly Uninterested	1.8 (7)
TOTAL	100 (704)

5. #39 If you have tried to introduce new ideas or practices how encouraged or discouraged were you in general by the reaction of parents?

Category Label	Percentage
Highly Encouraged	8.2 (58)
Somewhat Encouraged	26.3 (185)
Not affected one way or the other	68.4 (425)
Somewhat Discouraged	4.4 (31)
Highly Discouraged	.7 (5)
TOTAL	100 (704)

6. #30 What proportion of the ideas you got from Education courses at University have you been able to put into practice?

Category Label	Percentage
All	.4 (3)
The Majority	11.2 (79)
About Half	24.3 (171)
A Minority	58.8 (408)

None	6.8 (42)
TOTAL	100 (704)

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PERCEPTIONS OF PRINCIPALS' AUTHORITY BASES

Dennis L. Treslan
James J. Ryan

I believed. . .that a leader could operate successfully as a kind of advisor to his organization. I thought I could avoid being a "boss". . . I couldn't have been more wrong. It took a couple of years, but I finally began to realize that a leader cannot avoid the exercise of authority any more than he can avoid responsibility for what happens to his organization (Douglas McGregor)

Within all organizations, the exercise of authority is essential for goal achievement. Specifically, authority is crucial to the administrative process dimensions of policy, resources and execution. Within school settings, teachers and students accept or reject the suggestions of their superiors, creating observable authority displays. Is it possible that unique features of school organization affect the grounds for acceptance of directions? Should the answer be affirmative, administrators must examine the issue of authority relations. Specifically, principals' authority bases may well contain important clues for a deeper understanding of this issue.

The school is a formal organization, more professional than nonprofessional in nature. In this setting, a principal exerts control over students and teachers as a means of achieving school ends. Since school authority relations are not static, a principal must be able to diagnose and cultivate the most effective bases of authority to realize school goals within the current societal change milieu.

Examination of authority necessitates consideration of the perceptions of those involved. These perceptions influence behavior since one reacts to a situation in a manner which reflects what he/she perceives to be a correct assessment of circumstances. Whereas there is some disagreement on what constitutes authority behaviors, there is at least a measure of consensus on the major value orientations legitimizing this control phenomenon - commonly referred to as types, modes, motivation and bases.

There can be little doubt that teacher perceptions of authority bases dictate the extent to which teachers are likely to follow principals' directions. Given that perceptions of authority depend, among other things, on the hierarchical level from which authority is viewed, it may be that principals' and teachers' views of effective authority bases differ. This raises questions particularly germane to the Canadian scene: (1) Do the components (bases) of authority identified by Isherwood represent distinct value orientations that legitimate the exercise of school control? (2) Which administrative authority bases do teachers perceive as most effective for ensuring compliance? (3) Which administrative authority bases do principals perceive as most effective for ensuring compliance?

In an attempt to answer these questions, an investigation of organizational authority relations between teachers and principals was carried

out during Spring, 1983 in one Newfoundland school district. Authority as a social relation was focussed on rather than the span of control or decision-making jurisdictions. In this manner, authority relations arising from school behaviors formed the focus of study.

The instrument utilized in this study was developed from one used by Isherwood (1973), who combined the authority bases espoused by Weber (1947) and Peabody (1962) with the social power bases listed by French and Raven (1960) to test teachers' perceptions of principals' authority. The six authority types thus formulated were: (1) traditional authority or that authority extended to an organizational role by society and a given community in particular; (2) legal authority derived from a contractual agreement between an individual and an organization; (3) charismatic authority attributed to a person because of unique personality traits; (4) authority of expertise attributed to a person because of his/her knowledge accruing from experience and formal training; (5) normative authority based on the ability to mediate rewards and the manifestation of group norms; and (6) human relations skills - the authority a superior has over a subordinate because of the means the former employs in their interaction. Isherwood then developed items representing each of the authority types and distributed them to teachers. Factor analysis of the data revealed two clusters of variables subsequently identified as formal (traditional and legal) and informal (charismatic, expertise, normative and human relations skills) authority. Our study endeavors to establish whether Isherwood's six original authority types can be considered as unique entities within a Newfoundland setting, and further, which of these types is perceived by teachers and principals to be most effective in eliciting teacher compliance with principals' directives.

Isherwood's instrument was modified for this study to examine principal and teacher perceptions of effective principal authority bases. The first of two sections, completed by teachers only, was concerned with teacher perceptions of a principal's most effective authority base(s). Given a unique set of conditions, teachers were to indicate on a five point scale, the extent to which they would comply with the directives of a principal. The second section, completed by principals only, was designed to measure principals' perceptions of their most effective authority base(s). Given a unique set of conditions, principals were asked to indicate on a five point scale, the extent to which they felt teachers would likely comply with a principal's directives.

Recognizing that face and content validity were present in the Isherwood instrument, measures were again undertaken to ensure continued validity and to reestablish a measure of reliability for this new instrument. Items that were intended to be representative of each of the six variants of authority were increased to four, expanding the original twelve items to twenty-eight. This new instrument was then submitted to six professors and graduate students in the Faculty of Education at Memorial University who were asked to match each of the items with the appropriate definition for the respective authority type as originally established by Isherwood. A number of valuable suggestions were offered and subsequently acted upon.

Isherwood, in his seminal work on this area, did not statistically establish whether or not the six elements comprising formal and informal

authority could be considered as separate entities. Whereas Thurston (1947) suggests that three items per factor are sufficient, it was hoped that by increasing the number of single component items to four, one might, through factor analysis, uncover a definite pattern in the data. This would serve to establish these finer authority bases as unique entities in Newfoundland education.

Significant attention was accorded the establishment of an appropriate number of factors. Employment of the scree test (Cattell, 1978), Rao's canonical significance test (built into the factor technique of the same name), and the interpretability of the factors criterion (Rummel, 1970) indicated that four factors were appropriate for this particular analysis. These four factors were extracted in conjunction with Rao's canonical factor model and a varimax rotary technique. Particular attention was accorded those items which loaded higher than .45 on a given factor.

Findings

Factor one, the most significant factor, was designated the Administrative Skills base of authority. This is defined as authority attributed to principals on the basis of (1) their concern for teachers exhibited through skillful human relations abilities and (2) knowledge of technical skills associated with running of the school. Items loading significantly on this factor in order of magnitude are given below.

Item	Original Classification	Factor Loading	Content
14	Human Relations	0.748	(I DO THE THINGS A PRINCIPAL SUGGESTS OR WANTS:) When a principal displays through interaction with me that he/she is genuinely concerned about my personal well-being.
21	Human Relations	0.746	When I perceive that my principal takes time to ensure that he/she is able to relate well to me.

Item	Original Classification	Factor Loading	Content
26	Human Relations	0.675	When a principal makes it easy for me to communicate with him/her and talks to me on an equal person to person basis.
22	Expertise	0.656	When a principal exhibits skill with respect to time tabling, supervision of teachers, and other areas related to administration that contribute to the smooth running of the school.
13	Expertise	0.619	When a principal has shown good judgement regarding educational matters in the past and is likely to do so in the future.
11	Expertise	0.583	When a principal's past experience is evident in the way he/she runs the school; he/she knows what he/she is doing.
10	Human Relations	0.485	When a principal is very tactful and understanding in dealings with me.

Factor two was designated as a **Deferent** authority base. This is defined as the authority attributed to a principal emanating from teachers' respect for an intangible set of ethical norms accruing from the process of socialization wherein other human beings contribute to the internalization of

these norms. Items that loaded significantly on this factor in order of magnitude are given below.

Item	Original Classification	Factor Loading	Content
18	Normative	0.748	(I DO THE THINGS A PRINCIPAL SUGGESTS OR WANTS:) When fellow staff members feel that a principal's directives should be followed.
17	Legal	0.729	When I recognize the direction of a principal as ruler and feel that rules should be obeyed.
23	Legal	0.655	Because I recognize the way to achieve school goals is to follow the rules, one of which specifies that I comply with the wishes of a principal.
25	Traditional	0.601	Because I have been brought up to believe that the wishes of a superior, in this case a principal, should be respected.
15	Traditional	0.534	Because social norms dictate that I comply with the wishes of a superior.

Factor three was designated as a **Legal - Positional** authority base. This is defined as authority attributed to a principal by virtue of the position created by legal norms that delineate a hierarchy of offices adhered to and supported by members of the organization and the community. Items that loaded significantly on this factor in order of magnitude are indicated below.

Item	Original Classification	Factor Loading	Content
4	Legal	0.629	(I DO THE THINGS A PRINCIPAL SUGGESTS OR WANTS:) Because a principal is my boss and consequently I do as he/she says.
2	Legal	0.588	Because my contract with the school system requires me to carry out a principal's request.
5	Normative	0.476	When other teachers and staff members are highly supportive of a principal and I share their feelings.
9	Traditional	0.452	When members of the school community expect me to follow his/her direction.

Factor four was **designated as a Charismatic authority base**. This is defined as the authority attributed to principals on the basis of their unique personality traits and the desire of teachers to meet with their approval. Items that loaded significantly on this final factor are in order of magnitude those given below.

Item	Original Classification	Factor Loading	Content
19	Charismatic	0.629	(I DO THE THINGS A PRINCIPAL SUGGESTS OR WANTS:) When a principal is such a dynamic person that I would want his or her opinion of me to be a positive one.
27	Charismatic	0.61	When a principal possesses such an array of admirable skills that I would want to emulate him/her in one way or another.
3	Charismatic	0.531	When I admire a principal for his/her personal qualities and want to act in a way that merits his/her respect and admiration.
8	Charismatic	0.492	When a principal sets such a fine example that I would want to be counted among his or her followers.

Question 1: Do the components (bases) of authority identified by Isherwood represent distinct value orientations that legitimate the exercise of school control?

Although this study established that bases of authority could be classified into categories finer than the two major dimensions (formal and informal), the resulting model did not correspond totally to Isherwood's scheme, despite many similarities. The first factor, subsequently identified as administrative skills, was comprised of four items originally designated human relations and three items originally designated expertise. This factor, then, is essentially a combination of human relations skills and expertise.

Much of the literature has tended to classify technical expertise and human relations skills under separate headings. Peabody's (1962) authority of competence,

Presthus' (1960) authority of technical expertise, Simon's (1957) authority of confidence and French and Raven's (1960) expert 'power' all refer to authority granted to a superordinate on the basis of technical expertise. On the other hand, Peabody's (1962) person authority, Presthus' (1960) authority of rapport and French and Raven's (1960) referent 'power' depict an authority granted an individual on the strength of personal qualities, including human relations skills.

The alliance of these two elements may come as no surprise to students of educational administration who declare that a skillful principal possesses human relations skills as well as technical skills. An alliance of this nature has been hinted at by Bennes (1959) who has maintained that these two elements are but two components of a single category.

...we assert that technical knowledge must be differentiated into at least two elements: knowledge of performance criteria (such as production, marketing and so on) and knowledge of the human aspects of administration (such as coordination, communication and so on. (p. 289)).

The results of this study, which show that teachers respond to human relations skills and expertise as if they were a single entity, would seem to confirm Sergiovanni and Carver's (1980) suspicions when they speculate on the low priority given to person based authority in Peabody's (1962) study of an elementary school:

By way of a footnote to the Peabody findings, it is surprising that only 15 percent of teachers mentioned authority of person as important. It is surprising in view of the widespread concern of school executives for personal characteristics. We can only speculate that certain of the personal qualities deemed so important to success in educational administration (i.e. interpersonal relations) are perceived as competencies rather than personal qualities (p. 191).

The bond between these two elements of administrative skills cannot be overstated. In the process of arriving at a final solution, data were subjected to various initial factor and rotary techniques, always with the same result - Newfoundland teachers respond to human relations skills and technical skills as a single entity.

The second factor, designated as deferent authority, is comprised of two elements from each of Isherwood's traditional and legal authority components and one element from what was originally labelled as normative authority. All five elements seem to contain elements referencing a type of ethical code in the broadest sense of the word.

Reference to this type of authority in the literature is confined to what is known as legitimate authority, which in the broadest sense reflects the process of socialization, and in the narrower sense, ethical sanctification (Peabody, 1962). Whereas Weber's (1947) legal rational authority and Peabody's (1962) legitimate authority represent the narrower side of a legally constituted order, Simon's (1957) authority of legitimacy and social approval which makes reference to a higher law,

Presthus' (1960) deference for authority and French and Raven's (1960) legitimate 'power' seem to be similar to the category identified here.

The third factor, identified as legal-positional authority, is comprised of two items originally designated by Isherwood as legal authority, another as normative authority and one further item as traditional authority. These items contain elements alluding to a position in a hierarchy of offices and made explicit through a set of norms. The literature alludes to an authority type of this nature. While Weber's (1947) legal-rational authority seems to be somewhat related, Peabody's (1962) positional authority and Simon's (1957) legitimation by formal position come even closer to replicating this category. Peabody (1962) elaborates on his position base of authority:

... when a person becomes a member of an organization he is already predisposed to accept orders given to him by persons acknowledged to be his superiors by their position in the formal organizational charts.
(p. 469)

The fourth factor, designated as charismatic authority, is essentially identical to Isherwood's charismatic authority. The four items comprising this factor were all originally labeled as charismatic authority. All items make reference to unique personality traits and a desire to merit approval. Weber's (1947) charismatic authority, Presthus' (1960) legitimation by rapport, French and Raven's (1960) referent 'power' and Peabody's (1962) person authority appear to be related to charismatic authority as it is delineated in this study. Although Presthus and Peabody emphasize the human relations component, it is not of major importance in the type of charismatic authority we propose in this study. Our charismatic authority appears to be a combination of Weber (1947) who emphasizes the personality aspect, and French and Raven (1960) who make reference to the identification of a subordinate with a superior.

In documenting the transition from Isherwood's original six authority types to the four designated in this study, it is evident that there are similarities as well as differences. Isherwood's human relations skills and authority of expertise combine to form an alliance under the heading of authority of administrative skills; items representing aspects of legal, traditional and normative authority identified by Isherwood are distributed over two factors subsequently identified as deferent and legal positional authority. Noteworthy is the fact that the original charismatic authority is essentially identical to that identified in this study.

Although a number of similarities with Isherwood's original components are apparent, results of this study coincide more closely with authority bases identified by Peabody (1962) in his examination of authority relations in a county welfare department, a police department and an elementary school. The four authority bases proposed by Peabody - competence, legitimate, position and person - differ only marginally from those identified here. Peabody's legitimate and position bases are, for all intents and purposes, identical to those types we have identified as deferent and legal-positional, respectively. If the human relations component of Peabody's person authority were to be extracted from that category and placed with his competence base, all four bases would be virtually indistinguishable from the four we have identified.

Question 2: Which administrative authority bases do teachers perceive as most effective for ensuring compliance?

A further step in the exploration of authority was to investigate the possibility that teachers attached more importance to one or more of the four authority bases identified in this study. The administrative skills authority base was found to be significantly more effective ($P .001$) in eliciting compliance of teachers than charismatic, legal-positional and deferent authority. Moreover, deferent authority was found to be significantly less important ($P .001$) than the other three authority bases in this regard. No significant differences were found between charismatic and legal-positional authority with respect to effectiveness in eliciting teacher compliance.

Question 3: Which administrative authority bases do principals perceive as most effective for ensuring compliance?

Principal perceptions were analyzed in the same manner as teacher perceptions. Results were similar to teacher perceptions. Whereas principals perceive that administrative skills are more important than deferent, legal-positional and charismatic authority, there were no significant differences among the latter components. This finding stands in stark contrast to previously held beliefs that principals perceive their basis of authority as derived from position. (Egner, 1968)

IMPLICATIONS

Authority bases for those who administer our nation's schools are changing, shifting and in some cases, diminishing. Particularly susceptible to change is the principal's position. As the technical structure (the teaching and education program structure) increases in complexity and diversification, teachers by virtue of their competence and person authority have assumed more responsibility for those areas. This increase in educational sophistication has required administrative arrangements beyond the definition of the principal's role (Sergiovanni and Starrat, 1979, pp. 137-138)

The findings of this study have hinted at the importance in authority relations of expertise and human relations skills. If principals are to assume a pivotal role in the school's direction, they cannot rely on the strength of their position alone, but instead must take an active role to influence their teachers. If their suggestions are to be followed by teachers, they must develop relationships with these people reflecting a concern for their well-being while at the same time displaying a knowledge of the technical aspects of school operations in areas not only related to organizational management but also classroom management and curriculum. It is simply not enough, as indicated by the comparatively low ranking given to charismatic authority by teachers, that principals possess admirable character traits. They must also possess skills that are directly related to the running of the school if they are to influence teachers in any significant way.

The implications for such areas as administrator training, professional development and evaluation are self-evident. The necessity of addressing and making explicit the importance of human relations in the process of administration needs to be a part of formal training programs - programs which school administrators should be encouraged to attend. Such programs ought to stress not only interactional skills, but point to the importance of a person orientation reflecting concern for fellow workers. We would also suggest that administrators become familiar not only with technical processes of administration (e.g. time tabling) but also with such areas as classroom management and curriculum which confront teachers daily. Increasing curriculum sophistication demands that principals have an appreciation of this complex area if they wish to contribute in any meaningful way. Ultimately, principals are responsible for all areas of school functioning. Thus, it is mandatory that they become involved in some capacity in these particular areas. A sound knowledge of the curriculum coupled with workable person relationships with teachers may indeed enhance educational programs.

As Sergiovanni and Starrat (1979) suggest, administrative arrangements beyond the definition of a principal's role may be necessary to accommodate increasingly sophisticated curricula. Changing curricula in itself may dictate that structural arrangements be modified. Emphasis on hierarchy and its formal character reflecting a structural bureaucracy may restrict access to administration and impede communication. Modifications in operating procedures may be necessary to facilitate face-to-face interaction which in turn may enhance workable relationships between teachers and principals. It is also acknowledged that it is virtually impossible for principals to keep abreast of all developments in all curricula areas. Consequently, there may be a need for principals to entrust teachers, who are experts in such matters, with much of the responsibility for decisions concerning various subject areas.

Responsibility for meeting the challenges that an ever-changing society presents for school administrators must be shared. Administrators, school district central offices and institutions of higher learning all must play a part. Institutions responsible for administrator training need to provide courses stressing the importance of human relations skills and provide guidance in this area. Further, not only should universities and colleges offer courses which address various organizational problems on a school level that may arise because of the need for structural modification to compensate for the changing curricula, but as well, should include program courses focussing on classroom management and curricula.

Central offices must also share in the responsibility. They may contribute in a number of ways. First, they can encourage their administrators to seek formal training. Secondly, they can supplement institutional formal training by providing professional development which would emphasize the areas we have previously alluded to. Thirdly, school districts can stress the importance of human relations and a knowledge of school functions in their evaluative procedures.

Finally, and most important, administrators themselves must take an active role to establish quality leadership. They need to take the initiative to seek out formal training and familiarize themselves with various areas of professional development. Administrators must make a commitment to develop relationships with their teachers and exhibit a concern for the personal well-being of these people. Principals ought to

attempt to master various levels of school management, classroom management and the curriculum.

CONCLUSIONS

Although the dimensions of authority examined in this study did not precisely duplicate those identified by Isherwood, results did come close to duplicating the Peabody (1962) findings. Perhaps the most revealing feature of this present study was the alliance of human relations skills and technical skills under a single dimension. Although there has been speculation concerning this possibility, no research to date has uncovered this strong bond.

The importance teachers attached to administrative skills of a principal will surprise few people. Yet, somewhat unexpected was the extremely low ranking of deferent authority - perhaps an indication of a waning societal "respect for authority". Comparable rankings of legal -positional and charismatic authority possibly point to teacher reluctance to comply with directions of charismatic principals possessing few administrative skills.

This study has discovered that principals attach greatest importance to administrative skills as an authority base. This might indicate that principals are cognizant of increasing technical sophistication impacting on schools and the implications attached thereto.

Finally, this study has highlighted the need for concrete administrative action in the area of authority. To begin with, principals should seek formal training in administration so as to more effectively operate their schools. Principals should show an interest in, and communicate effectively with, their teachers on a person-to-person basis. Principals would be well advised not to rely on teachers' respect for authority or teachers' respect for the position of principal in seeking optimum compliance with directions. In summary, institutions of higher learning, school district central offices and administrators need to form a three-way partnership to meet the formidable challenges modern society presents to schools. The strategies arising from such arrangements may contribute to stronger leadership and more meaningful direction for our schools in these difficult times.

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VARIMAX ROTATED SOLUTION

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Communality
Q1	0.249	-0.245	0.4	0.058	0.286
Q2	0.058	0.257	0.588	0.095	0.424
Q3	0.267	0.04	0.348	0.531	0.477
Q4	0.131	0.302	0.625	0.037	0.501
Q5	0.2	0.253	0.476	0.281	0.409
Q6	0.219	0.138	0.425	0.111	0.26
Q7	-0.1	0.326	0.349	0.307	0.332
Q8	0.206	0.135	0.446	0.492	0.501
Q9	0.096	0.378	0.452	0.32	0.459
Q10	0.485	0.105	0.339	0.312	0.459
Q11	0.583	0.08	0.256	0.19	0.448
Q13	0.62	0.043	0.193	0.056	0.427
Q14	0.748	-0.01	0.163	0.299	0.676
Q15	0.099	0.534	0.417	0.026	0.469
Q17	0.173	0.729	0.187	0.126	0.612
Q18	0.045	0.748	0.194	0.302	0.69
Q19	0.246	0.36	0.032	0.629	0.587
Q21	0.746	0.09	0.069	0.295	0.656
Q22	0.656	0.128	0.083	0.011	0.454
Q23	0.364	0.655	0.22	-0.148	0.631
Q25	0.016	0.601	0.088	0.243	0.429
Q26	0.675	0.218	-0.033	0.325	0.61
Q27	0.327	0.021	0.106	0.581	0.456
Q28	0.224	0.2	0.1	0.37	0.237
Eigenvalue	16.519	6.21	3.242	2.927	
Percentage of Variance	57.2	21.5	11.2	10.1	

n = 128

VARIMAX ROTATED SOLUTION

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Communality
Q10	X				0.459
Q11	X				0.448
Q13	X				0.426
Q14	X				0.676
Q21	X				0.656
Q22	X				0.454
Q26	X				0.61
Q15		X			0.469
Q17		X			0.612
Q18		X			0.69
Q23		X			0.631
Q25		X			0.429
Q2			X		0.424
Q4			X		0.501
Q5			X		0.409
Q9			X		0.459
Q3				X	0.476
Q8				X	0.501
Q19				X	0.587
Q27				X	0.456
Q1					0.286
Q6					0.26
Q7					0.332
Q28					0.237

X = Factor loadings greater than .45
 = Factor loadings from .30 to .45

AN INVESTIGATION OF FIVE RUMOURS CONCERNING INITIAL TEACHER EMPLOYMENT IN NEWFOUNDLAND

**Len Williams
Division of Student Teaching**

**James R. Covert
Department of Educational Foundations**

Each year a new crop of teachers graduates from Memorial concerned about its chances for employment and each year there are rumours about how many will be employed, where the jobs are likely to occur and who will get the jobs. There are many opinions about these important issues but there should be little confusion because these are all factual matters. It is a known fact how many teachers graduate from Memorial each year and it is relatively easy to find out precisely how many of these graduates are hired, and where these teachers found employment. Many more facts could be known about these teachers such as their age, sex, marital status and level of certification but this paper seeks to examine only a few of the commonly held rumours about teacher employment.

The vast majority of the teachers working in Newfoundland are graduates of Memorial University but in any given year the teachers who are seeking employment come from three basic sources. They may be in the current graduating class of M.U.N., a member of the teacher pool or originating outside the province. The teacher pool may be composed of graduates from Memorial who have yet to find employment as teachers or they may be certified teachers who have not yet graduated. One of the persistent rumours about teacher employment involves this teacher pool and is examined below.

Rumour I

There is a surplus of teachers in Newfoundland and consequently many of the graduates from the Faculty of Education at Memorial University cannot find employment.

In 1985, 551 students graduated from the Faculty of Education at Memorial University during Spring and Fall convocations. In an effort to determine how many of these graduates found teaching positions in the province, the names of teachers on the provincial teacher payroll in January 1986 were compared with the graduation rolls for the Spring and Fall Convocation Lists of 1985. Table 1 provides an overview of the 1985 education graduates and their employment in the Newfoundland school system in 1986.

To determine what percent of the graduates found employment in Newfoundland schools, it is possible to divide the number of graduates not on the teacher payroll for the province by the total number of graduates. This simple calculation indicates that over 71 % of the graduating class of 1985 found employment in the schools of Newfoundland. This is a very high percentage of employment for any professional program and may be an underestimation because it is difficult to determine how many of these unemployed graduates actively sought teaching posts rather than decide to continue their university studies or pursue other avenues of employment.

This study did not investigate those who were not employed but rather was concerned with those who began teaching for the first time.

Table I

Employment Profile of the Graduating Class for 1985

	Number
Graduates employed with previous teaching experience	173
Graduates finding full-time employment for the first time	132
Graduates finding employment as substitute teacher	88
Graduates not on the teacher payroll	158
Total in Sample	551

In order to investigate the employment of beginning teachers, the number of teachers with previous teaching experience was subtracted from the total. It was evident that these graduates were teachers who had taught, some for many years, but had completed their degree in 1985. These teachers are probably returning to their previous teaching positions, having their jobs assured. It is interesting to note that this is the largest group of employed teachers in the graduating class, but they need to be removed from the sample in order to provide information about graduates who are seeking employment for the first time. Given this new total (378) it is possible to argue that 58% of the inexperienced graduates found either part-time or full-time employment in the schools in 1985. If the substitutes are excluded, however, the figure falls to 35%, revealing that slightly more than one-third of the inexperienced graduates found full-time teaching positions.

Therefore, the rumour of a teacher surplus is accurate only if inexperienced teachers are considered and only full-time positions are included, because any other combination of figures would indicate that somewhere between sixty and seventy percent of the 1985 graduates were hired as teachers. The main concern, however, rests with the number of inexperienced teachers who failed to find full-time employment. This problem is further investigated under Rumour II.

Rumour II

Because of the large teacher surplus pool and hirings from outside of the province, M.U.N. graduates have difficulty finding jobs.

A different data set was used to explore this rumour. All of the full-time, first-year, inexperienced teachers on the payroll as of January 1, 1986, were sent a questionnaire. A total of 273 teachers fitted this description although they entered the teaching profession at different salary steps depending on their level of certification.

Table II

Profile of First Year Full-Time Teachers – 1986

	Total Number	Percent
Graduated Memorial 1985	132	48.3
Graduated Memorial 1981-85	51	18.7
Teaching without degree	62	22.7
Graduated from another University	28	10.3
Total in Sample	273	100

Table II indicates that less than half of the first year inexperienced teachers hired were 1985 graduates of M.U.N. Nearly half of the first year teachers (41.4%) were recruited from the surplus teacher pool but only 10.3% came from out of province. Perhaps the most interesting statistic from Table II is that 55% of the first year teachers from the reserve pool were successfully employed even though they did not have degrees; the remaining 45% had graduated earlier but had not found a full-time position until 1985. It should be noted that it is possible to be a certified teacher in Newfoundland without having graduated. In fact, many of these teachers may have level four certification even though they have yet to obtain a degree. The figures in Table II suggest that there is a surplus pool of teachers from M.U.N., and that this is a much greater threat to the latter's job opportunity than graduates being hired from outside the province. Efforts directed toward identifying the characteristics of potential teachers in the surplus pool would be of great benefit to the graduates of M.U.N., especially traits related to the preference for nongraduates. It may be that those teachers without degrees are more willing to accept jobs anywhere in the province, which leads to the next rumour.

Rumour III

Inexperienced teachers could find jobs if they were willing to move to rural areas.

In an effort to differentiate among the various communities of employment in Newfoundland the following designations were made, reflecting population densities and reasonable urban access:

- (i) **Urban Community**
St. John's, Conception Bay South, Gander, Corner Brook, Grand Falls.
- (ii) **Regional Centre**
Stephenville, Marystown, Bonavista, Labrador City/Wabush, Bay Roberts, Deer Lake, Clarenville.
- (iii) **Rural**
All other communities.

Table III provides a breakdown of the students in this sample who found employment in communities in each of the designated areas.

Table III
Area of Employment for First Year Inexperienced Teachers

Area	Number of Teachers	Percent
Urban	27	10
Regional	29	10.6
Rural	217	79.4

It should be clear from this table that most of the teaching jobs occur in rural Newfoundland. It is not clear from the survey, however, if the first year teachers chose not to teach because of the location of their first teaching post. In 80% of the instances, first year teaching positions occurred in rural Newfoundland and therefore the vast majority of those committed to teaching were willing to begin in rural areas of the province.

When all of these teachers are considered, some interesting facts about the location of first jobs emerge. Of the total number of first year students hired, more were employed with the Labrador Boards (35) than were hired in the city of St. John's and Conception Bay South combined (25), and the Avalon Peninsula boards hired a total of 47 inexperienced first year teachers.

Rumour IV

Most graduates from the Faculty of Education come from rural Newfoundland.

Of the 132 graduates who obtained their first job in 1985, information about their hometown and place of employment was obtained for 126. When these factors were compared, it was found that slightly more than half of the graduates (66) came from urban and regional centres and roughly half (60) came from rural communities. When the places of employment are considered over 80% of the first year inexperienced teachers were hired in rural areas (102) with the fewest being employed in regional areas(10). If the graduates are matched for place of employment and hometown, the distributions are again nearly even, with 68 being a perfect match and 58 being a mismatch. These figures were obtained by designating a match as occurring only when the hometown and the place of employment occurred in the same geographical category.

Table IV

Hometown and First Employment for Most of the 1985 Graduates

Area	Number of Teachers	Percent
Urban	52	14
Regional	14	10
Rural	60	102
	126	126

In fact 56 of the graduates from rural areas were employed in rural areas leaving only 4 to be employed elsewhere. While seven graduates from urban areas were hired in urban areas, five times as many (35) of the graduates from urban backgrounds were hired in rural areas.

Students are often concerned about the employment opportunities with the various religious boards in the province so the table below was compiled regarding the graduates surveyed in 1986. When all of these teachers are considered, some interesting facts about the location of first jobs emerge. Of the total number of first year students hired, more were employed with the Labrador Boards (35) than were hired in the city of St. John's and Conception Bay South combined (25), and the Avalon Peninsula boards hired a total of 47 inexperienced first year teachers.

If employment by Religious Boards is considered for all of the inexperienced first year teachers, the Integrated Boards hired the most (149), the Roman Catholic Boards hired 93 and the Pentecostal Boards hired 25. The Seventh Day Adventist Board hired three first year teachers in 1985. These figures are roughly in proportion to the student enrollment in the denominational schools in the province. One final rumour regarding how positions are obtained was investigated.

Rumour V

The best way to get a teaching job is to have been a substitute teacher. When asked whether they had been a substitute teacher prior to obtaining their first full-time job 53 replied yes and 127 replied in the negative. Therefore while substituting may be helpful in obtaining a job in an urban area, of those inexperienced graduates who were employed for the first time, 70% had no prior experience other than student teaching.

Table V
Employment by Religious Boards

	Number	Percent	(1982) Student Percentage in Denominational Schools
Integrated	149	55	57
Roman Catholic	93	34	38
Pentecostal	25	9	5
Seventh Day Adventist	3	1	-
Totals	270	99	100

Conclusion

Issues of teacher recruitment, teacher supply and demand, and adequacy of teachers' preparation are complex issues. If one considers all of the teacher education graduates of 1985 approximately 71 percent are employed, which is a very high rate of employment for any post-secondary program. However, if one considers only the number of inexperienced graduates in the sample who found employment, then only one-third of the graduates seeking employment for the first time found full-time teaching positions. This confirms a widely held opinion of inexperienced graduates looking for jobs: it is difficult to obtain the initial teaching position.

When considering all of the inexperienced first-year teachers hired by 1986, there were as many hired from the surplus pool as from the 1985 graduating class. It is interesting to note that more teachers were employed from that pool without degrees than with degrees. Contrary to widely held beliefs, only 10 percent of the first year inexperienced teachers hired graduated from universities other than Memorial. Probably the most significant finding, however, is that so many of the teaching positions available to first year inexperienced teachers are in rural Newfoundland.

There is no program at Memorial University to prepare teachers for these multi-grade, multi-subject teaching situations. In fact, the present regulations for the preparation of high school teachers require only a major area of specialization for graduation. If the employment pattern discovered in this survey is typical of a trend, then adjustments should be made. In-service consideration should be directed to these inexperienced teachers who find themselves in situations for which they are inadequately prepared.

Another implication from this study may be that because positions in urban areas are firmly held by more senior teachers, the only route to obtaining an urban position is to begin in a rural Newfoundland community. This presents a serious problem for rejuvenating the urban school and providing equality of educational opportunity for the youth of rural Newfoundland. A further study should be undertaken to see how long teachers stay in these rural schools to determine if there is a large

turnover rate for rural teachers and whether this is the typical route to obtaining an urban teaching position.

The implications of these findings are important for teacher training and practice and warrant further investigation by all parties concerned with education in Newfoundland.

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ATTITUDES OF PENTECOSTAL TEACHERS IN NEWFOUNDLAND TOWARD IMPASSE STRATEGIES IN COLLECTIVE BARGAINING

**David Rideout
Deer Lake Pentecostal School**

The right to bargain collectively, and the accompanying right to strike, was officially granted to the teachers of Newfoundland in 1973, after a vigorous campaign conducted by the Newfoundland Teachers' Association (NTA). An earlier salary dispute, in 1971, had resulted in a "selective withdrawal of services" in designated schools. The difficulties associated with this experience convinced the Association of the need for a legitimate process, encoched in legislation, for handling impasses in negotiations with the employer, which in this instance was the provincial government. Consequently, the Newfoundland Teacher (Collective Bargaining) Act, 1973 was enacted, allowing for the resolution of impasses in negotiations through a conciliation board, binding arbitration when agreed to by both parties, or a strike (Myers, 1978: 69).

In recent years Newfoundland teachers, like their colleagues across all of North America, have had to do some serious thinking about the nature of their involvement in collective bargaining strategies. Increasingly, attention has been focussed on refusals to engage in supervision duties, work-to-rule campaigns, withdrawal of extracurricular involvement, and strikes as tactics for resolving impasses in contract negotiations.

In the midst of the continuing deliberations over such issues Pentecostal teachers, who operate their own separate school system in the province with full government funding, have added to the tensions by refusing to join the majority of teachers in any type of job action which disrupts the educational service being provided to students, claiming exemption on the basis of religious conviction. At present, the sentiments are so strong that the Pentecostal teachers are actively pursuing legislative changes to allow them to be accommodated in a separate bargaining unit. This effort is being opposed by the Newfoundland Teachers' Association, which by legislation represents all teachers in the province.

The Pentecostal teachers had been given a brief respite in 1973, when the NTA adopted a resolution declaring that "...a teacher who holds religious or moral convictions that in conscience prohibit him from participating in a strike may refrain from participation or support" (AGM Minutes, April 24-26, 1973). However, this "conscientious objector" clause was later rescinded at the 1976 convention of the Association. Since then discussions have continued between the Pentecostals and the NTA, but no acceptable solution to the dilemma has been realized. In 1983, when teachers withdrew selected services to protest unsatisfactory contract negotiations and schools were subsequently closed down, approximately 95% of the Pentecostal teachers continued to provide full services, and their schools remained open during the dispute.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the attitudes of Pentecostal teachers in Newfoundland toward a variety of strategies for resolving impasses in contract negotiations and determine if their views in this regard differed from those of their NonPentecostal colleagues. The opinions of both Pentecostal and NonPentecostal

teachers were also sought as to how the Pentecostal position, with respect to job action, could be best accommodated within the structure of collective bargaining as it presently exists in the province. It is hoped that the results of this study will help clarify the position of Pentecostal teachers, and provide some direction for accommodating them within the process of collective bargaining.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research Questions

This study attempted to address three general questions:

1. Are there differences between Pentecostal and Non-Pentecostal teachers, with respect to preferred methods for resolving impasses in collective bargaining?
2. Are there variables, other than denominational affiliation, which are related to differences among teachers with respect to preferred methods for resolving impasses in collective bargaining?
3. What are the views of Pentecostal and Non-Pentecostal teachers with respect to ways of accommodating Pentecostal teachers in the collective bargaining process?

Hypotheses

To examine these research questions, several hypotheses were constructed:

1. (a) Pentecostal teachers are less likely than Non-Pentecostal teachers to support the more militant bargaining strategies of partial or complete withdrawal of services, as appropriate means for resolving impasses in collective bargaining.
- (b) There are no differences between Pentecostal and Non-Pentecostal teachers in their support of the less militant bargaining strategies of mediation and conciliation, fact finding, binding arbitration, final offer arbitration, issue by issue arbitration, involvement in the political process, and the use of the media, as appropriate means for resolving impasses in collective bargaining.
2. Pentecostal teachers are more likely than Non-Pentecostal teachers to support some form of separation from other teachers, as indicated by items APC 1, 2, and 5, and less likely to support such other measures as indicated in items APC 4, 6, and 7.

Design of the Study

The bulk of the questionnaire used in this study was of a Likert format, with a number of statements given to which participants were asked to circle the number corresponding most closely to their reaction to that statement - Strongly Disagree (1), Disagree (2), Uncertain (3), Agree (4), Strongly Agree (5). These ordinal responses

were then treated as if they conformed to interval scales since there is, according to Labovitz (1970: 515; 1971: 521), ample empirical evidence to support such a procedure.

The questionnaire was set up to first provide detailed background information from the respondents, thus allowing for analysis by denominational affiliation (Pentecostal, Roman Catholic, or Integrated), as well as by a number of other variables. The third section focussed more directly on collective bargaining strategies which could be used to advance contract talks and considered some of the basic methods used to resolve impasses in negotiations. Finally, the fourth section attempted to solicit direction from teachers as to the most acceptable means for accommodating the Pentecostals within the collective bargaining structure.

The total population of 397 Pentecostal teachers was surveyed, and the same number of Non-Pentecostal teachers, for a total of 794 participants. The Non-Pentecostal teachers were randomly selected from a computer-generated list of Integrated and Roman Catholic teachers in the province.

Differences between Pentecostal and Non-Pentecostal teachers, on the first and second set of hypotheses, were tested by performing a one way analysis of variance, using school system as the independent variable. The dependent variables for these analyses were impasse procedures (IP) and methods for accommodating Pentecostal teachers in the collective bargaining process (APC). In the one way analysis of variance the level of significance was set at the .05 level.

Analysis of Data

Approximately 67% of the teachers surveyed returned completed questionnaires, with the response rate being almost identical among all groups. A X^2 analysis did show a higher proportion of males responding than females, but this tendency was evident among both Pentecostal and Non-Pentecostals. Likewise, there was a higher percentage of secondary than elementary teachers responding.

Methods for Resolving Impasses

The mean scores for both Pentecostal and Non-Pentecostal teachers on each of the impasse techniques cited in Hypothesis One are reported in Table I. The one way analysis of variance on Hypothesis 1(a) showed significant differences to exist, at $p < .001$, between Pentecostal and Non-Pentecostal teachers in their attitudes toward both partial and complete withdrawal of services. Such a result leads to the conclusion that the two groups do differ significantly in their attitudes toward the appropriateness of using either partial or complete withdrawal of services as a means for resolving impasses in collective bargaining, with the Pentecostal disagreeing with such strategies.

TABLE I
DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PENTECOSTAL AND NON-PENTECOSTAL
TEACHERS ON IMPASSE PROCEDURES

Item (IP)	Means		
	Pentecostal	Non-Pentecostal	P
1. Mediation and conciliation	3.962	3.902	0.33
2. Fact finding	3.781	3.67	0.1
3. Binding arbitration	3.646	3.521	0.11
4. Final offer arbitration	2.985	2.879	0.2
5. Issue by issue arbitration	3.506	3.517	0.87
6. Partial withdrawal of services	2.234	3.508	< .001
7. Complete withdrawal of services	1.798	3.538	< .001
8. Political involvement	3.544	3.842	< .001
9. Using the media	3.238	3.716	< .001
10. Removing the right to strike would leave teachers powerless	2.783	3.989	< .001
11. Retaining the right to strike	2.903	4.232	< .001

For these comparisons, N's for the two groups combined ranged from 520 to 527.

TABLE II
DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PENTECOSTAL AND NON-PENTECOSTAL
TEACHERS ON ACCOMMODATING PENTECOSTAL TEACHERS IN THE
COLLECTIVE BARGAINING PROCESS

Item (APC)	Means		
	Pentecostal	Non-Pentecostal	P
1. Separate bargaining unit within NTA	3.465	2.575	<.001
2. Separate bargaining unit outside NTA	2.734	2.926	0.1
3. A professional and union organization	3.451	2.988	<.001
4. Memorandum of understanding	3.106	2.721	<.001
5. Possibility of philosophical accommodation	2.973	3.212	0.016
6. Fund to pay into during strike	2.496	3.194	< .001
7. Conscientious object or status	3.222	2.282	< .001
8. Lower salaries for Pentecostal teachers	3.154	3.777	< .001

Note: In these comparisons, N's for the two groups combined ranged from 509 to 518.

In Hypothesis 1(b) it was stated that there were no differences between the attitudes of Pentecostal and Non-Pentecostal teachers on the other impasse procedures under investigation. The one way analysis of variance carried out showed that, indeed, there were no differences between the two groups with respect to their attitudes toward the appropriateness of mediation and conciliation, fact finding, binding arbitration, and issue by issue arbitration in resolving impasses in collective bargaining. However, there were significant differences between the two groups with regards to involvement in the political process and the use of the media to advance the teachers' bargaining position. In each of these latter two items, Non-Pentecostal teachers indicated stronger agreement with the strategy than did the Pentecostals. The hypothesis is therefore accepted for mediation and conciliation, fact finding, binding arbitration, and issue by issue arbitration, but rejected for involvement in the political process and use of the media.

Accommodating Pentecostal Teachers in Collective Bargaining

Hypothesis #3 states:

Pentecostal teachers are more likely than Non-Pentecostal teachers to support some form of separation from other teachers, as indicated by items APC 1, 2, and 5, and less likely to support such other measures as indicated in items APC 4, 6, and 7.

The mean scores of both Pentecostal and Non-Pentecostal teachers on the various options under consideration for accommodating Pentecostal teachers in the bargaining process are reported in Table II. This study did find that Pentecostal teachers were more supportive of a separate bargaining unit, within the Newfoundland Teachers' Association, to accommodate their interests (APC 1), than were their Non-Pentecostal counterparts. However, the difference between Pentecostal teachers and Non-Pentecostal teachers on accommodation in a separate bargaining unit outside the NTA (APC2) was not statistically significant at $p < .05$. The difference between the two groups on whether or not the philosophical position of Pentecostal teachers could be accommodated within the Newfoundland Teachers' Association (APC5) was significant, but not in the direction hypothesized. On this basis, the hypothesis is accepted for APC 1 but rejected for APC 2 and APC 5.

With respect to the latter part of this hypothesis, it was found that the Pentecostal teachers were less supportive of accommodation through the establishment of a mutually agreed upon fund, into which they would pay all salary received, above the rate of strike pay, during job action (APC8). However, contrary to the hypothesis, the Pentecostals were more supportive than the Non-Pentecostals toward accommodation through an internal "Memorandum of Understanding" (APC4) or through a conscientious objector status (APC7). The difference between the two groups on each of these three options is significant at $p < .001$. The hypothesis is therefore accepted for APC6 but rejected for APC4 and APC7.

The surprising aspect of these findings is that they suggest that Non-Pentecostal teachers, more so than Pentecostal teachers, are more favourable towards complete separation of the Pentecostal teachers from other teachers within the present bargaining unit. This is indicated by the respective responses on items APC2 and APC5. Contrasted with this, the Pentecostals responded more favourably than the Non-Pentecostals toward some form of accommodation while remaining within the N.T.A., such as through a separate bargaining unit within the Association (APC 1), a distinction between a professional and union organization (APC3), a mutually acceptable "Memorandum of Understanding" (APC4), or the re-creation of a conscientious objector status (APC7). However, the mean scores for both groups on most of these items fall within the 2.5 to 3.5 "Uncertain" category, and on all items the difference between the two groups is less than one.

Conclusion

The distinction between Pentecostal and Non-Pentecostal teachers in their attitudes toward partial and complete withdrawal of services, as an appropriate means for resolving impasses in collective bargaining, is unmistakably clear. This creates a dilemma because the potential threat of job action has, traditionally, been central to the

bargaining process. However, the extent of the preferences, among both Pentecostal and Non-Pentecostal teachers, for the use of the less militant strategies to resolve impasses, is also a factor to be recognized.

On the basis of the data in this study, it seems that the specific problem of accommodating the Pentecostal teachers in the bargaining structure may not be an insurmountable one. The Pentecostal teachers seem willing to entertain some form of accommodation within the Newfoundland Teachers' Association. Furthermore, the large numbers from both groups responding in the "Uncertain" category suggest that the position of neither is firmly entrenched among the teachers themselves. It would seem that an acceptable settlement on the issue could be reached if the persons involved in the discussions were to exercise their political will to negotiate an agreeable settlement.

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TEACHER EVALUATION: BRIDGING THE GAP BETWEEN THEORY AND PRACTICE

George A. Hickman
Department of Educational Administration

Introduction

Few administrators or teachers are content with the one-shot, fragmented, and inconsistent practices often inherent in teacher evaluation. Many are pressing for change. They want evaluation policies which are not ritualistic and conducted merely as a matter of pro forma bureaucratic routine. Rather, the demand is for a process, not merely an exercise, a process resulting in the meaningful improvement of instruction. There is mounting evidence from administrators and teachers that well-developed evaluation policies, which are formative in both theory and practice, can result in more effective teaching (Hickman, 1983, 1985, 1986; Lawton et al, 1985; Musella, 1981; Wise, 1984).

However, there is another side to the evaluation coin. Pressures on school boards to develop and implement more effective ways to evaluate teachers are greater than ever before. As the demand and desire for documentation and "accountability" increase in the face of declining enrolments, staff cutbacks and soaring education costs, so does the emphasis on evaluation. There is little doubt in the minds of many teachers that while ostensibly evaluation continues to be lauded in the formative context, in reality it has traditionally been summative in nature. Teachers continue to be fearful that the real underlying purpose of evaluation is to identify potential candidates for lay-off, or to facilitate administrative decision-making relative to matters of promotion or tenure.

Therein lies the dilemma! How does one develop and implement a teacher evaluation policy which is primarily designed to promote instructional improvement and, at the same time, retains cognizance of the administrative decision-making component? This paper attempts to address that question, and advocates a model with an agenda designed to move towards excellence in teacher evaluation. The model has evolved from reviewing relevant literature, extensive research on the theory and practice of teacher evaluation, and after some six years of working with school administrators and teachers in attempting to develop procedures to help improve evaluation practices. Further, the observations offered in this paper are based on some forty workshops conducted by the writer working directly with school districts, and on-going monitoring activities show a very positive reaction to them.

Why Evaluate Teachers?

The proliferation of literature on teacher evaluation is overwhelming, as the topic has not only retained prominence during the last decade but interest in it is currently undergoing a resurgence. The question is not whether evaluation is desirable but rather what kind of procedures are most likely to result in significant improvements in teaching and learning.

In the face of mounting pressures from school boards for greater accountability and the ever-increasing demands for more "documentation" of assessments, administrators feverishly continue their efforts to search for, adopt, and develop more workable models to evaluate teachers. The formats employed in evaluation range from detailed anecdotal reports to long checklists of teacher skills, behaviour, habits, and attitudes in accordance with generally accepted criteria for evaluating teachers.

The literature indicates that the majority of researchers agree with the premise that teacher evaluation should be aimed at the improvement of instruction. Yet, as Musella (1981) points out, the fact must be realized that there is another realistic purpose to be taken into account, and that is evaluation to aid in administrative decision-making. These two purposes of teacher evaluation are generally referred to as formative and summative evaluation.

Formative evaluation is the term attached to teacher evaluation processes aimed at the improvement of instruction. Such evaluation provides systematic information or feedback in order to monitor change and to promote improvement. Thus, formative teacher evaluation is intended to provide assistance and useful information to teachers in order to help them modify or improve their overall instructional techniques. It refers to the use of data to make a process or operation of teaching more effective as it progresses. This type of evaluation is essentially diagnostic and remedial in approach.

Summative evaluation, on the other hand, occurs mostly at the conclusion of an act or process; it is a terminal activity. The purpose of summative evaluation is to provide systematic information which is entered into the records and used as a basis for administrative decisions (Howsam, 1973, p. 13). In the teacher evaluation context, summative evaluation is typically intended to assist and justify certain critical, administrative decisions affecting teachers (e.g., selection, renewal of contracts, tenure, promotion and dismissal).

However, according to Popham (1975), there is a third, pseudo-purpose for teacher evaluation, which he terms "teacher evaluation as ritual" (p. 275). Popham's "evaluation by ritual" refers to his assertion that periodic evaluations are conducted merely as a matter of pro forma bureaucratic routine, and serve no real formative or summative purpose (Popham, 1975, p. 285):

Results of such evaluations are ostensibly employed to make promotion, tenure, and dismissal decisions about teachers who are evaluated. There is sometimes an improvement sequence built into such an evaluation cycle, for instance, having the principal and teacher confer about possible improvements suggested by the principal. But any serious review of these so-called operations will reveal that rarely, if ever, is a teacher evaluated so adversely that any serious negative consequences occur.

Popham argues that while the ostensible purposes of such ritualized teacher evaluations are still formative and summative in nature, they serve no real purpose and are devoid of informative and administrative implications. Obviously, then, the kind of

teacher evaluation to aim for is that which is formative in nature, yet retains cognizance of the reality of administrative decision-making.

What Causes The Gap?

In this writer's opinion, a commitment towards bridging the gap between theory and practice in teacher evaluation begins with an acceptance of the reality that a wide gap actually does often exist, and a systematic approach must be taken towards closing the gap. It is generally agreed that the following is a list of problems which widen the gap: (Hickman, 1983, Lawton et al, 1985):

- School Board philosophy of education is undefined and/or unclear.
- School Board policy on evaluation has been developed and implemented with little or no teacher input.
- Classroom observations are too few to obtain reliable data on teachers' routine instructional behavior.
- Over-all evaluation is too narrow and fails to take into account 'outside-the-classroom' behaviours.
- Evaluators are insufficiently trained and lack appropriate in-service.
- The purposes, criteria and procedures of the evaluation process are unclear to teachers and reflect inadequate in-service activity to prepare them for meaningful involvement.
- Classroom observations reflect artificiality and the "model lesson" is often apparent.
- The informal aspects of over-all evaluation are often neglected.
- Many evaluators have too many teachers to evaluate, and other administrative duties prevent them from devoting sufficient time to do a thorough job in evaluation.
- Evaluation is seldom continuous, and there is little follow-up activity.

These above problems are often conducive to general negativism and disenchantment. It is little wonder that teacher evaluation is perceived to be ritualistic and fraught with feelings of intimidation and mistrust (Hickman, 1983, Scriven, 1981)! It is in this context, therefore, that the nucleus of "a move towards excellence model" advocated herein is the challenge to engender a commitment from administrators and teachers to develop teacher evaluation systems which move further towards bridging the gap between theory and practice and in so doing stimulate professional growth. The proposed model which follows is one attempt to offer an activity-orientated process involving a new will, new knowledge and skills, new behaviours, and new attitudes.

A Critical Components Model

In this model, the development and implementation of an effective teacher evaluation system is viewed as a "process" rather than a single activity or series of unrelated events. It outlines, in step-by-step fashion, one approach to designing procedures wherein continuous evaluation and feedback are built into each component. Through consensus building among its active participants, agreement evolves on such integral ingredients as purposes, criteria, sources of data, procedures, improvement

characteristics, pre- and post-conferencing, classroom observation and data collection, and report writing. Essentially, the proposed model's success depends upon three fundamental premises (Hickman, 1986)

1. There is ample opportunity for direct involvement by everyone affected by the policy to have input into its development, implementation and evaluation.
2. The evaluation of teaching performance is only one ingredient of a recipe for professional growth and curriculum development. "Stronger linkages" (Hickman, 1983, 1986, Lawton, et al, 1985) between all components of the teaching and learning process are essential. For example, the aims and objectives espoused by the Department of Education need to be articulated in terms of school board philosophy. Organizational structures and administrative roles must be synchronized with teacher expectations. Needs have to be brought into perspective from the philosophical, historical, sociological, and psychological viewpoints of the particular environments for which the evaluation system is being developed. Clarifications and realistic performance standards should be formulated through a team approach involving all key players in the developmental process.
3. It is critical that consensus be reached, through continuous feedback and evaluation, at each step in the process before moving to the next. The process can not be rushed. This pre-supposes that the development can be halted and appropriate changes made as deemed necessary. The collegial model of decision-making is thus very much in evidence, thereby creating an atmosphere of ownership and efficacy within the organization.

The Critical Components Model outlined below is proposed as a systematic approach consisting of two stages: "Development" and "Implementation."

Stage A: DEVELOPMENT

Step 1: Examination of Philosophy and Needs Assessment

Once a Committee of administrators and teachers from various levels of the education system has been struck, their first task is to conduct an in-depth examination of the aims and objectives relative to the articulated needs of the individual school board. This implies an examination of philosophies of education to determine the extent and type of correlation between the two constituent organizations.

It may well be necessary in this initial stage to expand the Committee's Terms of Reference to include a thorough needs assessment of the entire school district in view of a philosophy of education which is unclear, undefined, or seemingly out of tune with current trends and issues. Such a task is very worthwhile, in this writer's opinion, because it provides the opportunity for healthy, extensive involvement in an exercise which could help shape the direction of education for many years to come. It is also formative in nature because it can help bring skeptics on-side, and also create community support by the very fact that a communicated, open attempt is being made to improve educational opportunity for students.

Current studies point out that teacher evaluation systems must be developed and implemented within the context of the aims and objectives, needs, and problems of educational organizations (Morgan, 1986, Lawton, et al 1985). When consensus is reached that the newly articulated philosophy is consistent with perceived objectives of all levels of the education system for the particular school district, the stage is set to consider the next step in this developmental process.

Step 2: School Evaluation

In view of consensus reached earlier, this writer then recommends a thorough analysis of the school program. Perhaps, this is more appropriately done by utilizing, for the most part, teachers and administrators who work with the prescribed program on a day-by-day basis. The expertise of subject area co-ordinators and administrators can provide a valuable service in the exercise. School evaluation suggests a thorough analysis of three key components during this stage: program evaluation, student evaluation and evaluation of the over-all administrative processes. This is congruent with recent research suggesting the need for stronger linkages among the various components of total education system (Hickcox, 1985). The linkage is further supported by Morgan (1986, p. 61) who states that:

The current evidence is that the evaluation of the effectiveness of performance appraisal is best served by program evaluation. In general principle, program evaluation is the mirror image and complement of performance appraisal. Effective teaching is demonstrated by appropriate and effective use of curricular and program materials and methods. Conversely, curricular materials and methods or programs are evaluated through effective application in teaching and in student learning. For these reasons, research and development in program evaluation play a crucial role.

Firstly, the primary objective here is to ascertain the degree to which existing programs correlate with the adopted philosophy and needs identified earlier in the process. The feedback from participants involved with this model demonstrates that there is another marked advantage which begins to become noticeable during this exercise, and that is the gradual emergence of a more positive attitude towards the broad concept of evaluation. Teachers, in particular, begin to feel part of the whole process and, perhaps for the first time, begin to view it as being formative rather than summative. While there are many models available to assist with program evaluation, an approach this writer has found to be most effective is one which is activity oriented and school-based. The written program evaluation report which is eventually generated by teachers themselves contains recommendations for over-all improvement which may well have the potential to result in better teaching and, therefore, better learning. However, this is a hypothesis which requires further testing before a definitive statement can be made as to the model's influence on teacher effectiveness.

Secondly, the writer contends that an examination of the procedures currently employed for the evaluation of students goes hand-in-hand with program evaluation. Various committees might be struck to consider such aspects as: the nature and format of unit tests, formal examinations, assignments, grading, reporting procedures and

A CRITICAL COMPONENTS MODEL

(INSERT)

parent-teacher interviews. Their results and observations could then be readily compared to those of the program evaluation, in view of stated philosophy and objectives established for the school district in general and the individual school in particular. Such a comparison should enable a stronger linkage between program and student evaluation in terms of the "why", "what", "how", and "when" components of evaluation in its total context.

Thirdly, to complete this stage of the proposed evaluation process, the writer suggests that it would be appropriate to reappraise the administrative operation of the school. Not to be confused with the performance appraisal of school administrators, this step would include an examination of such procedures as scheduling, teacher assignment, pre-scribed testing procedures and utilization of standardized test data. The over-all school administration would be looked at in terms of its correlation with the philosophy espoused for program and student evaluation, and an open forum on of all three aspects serves to readily set the stage for the next phase in the proposed Critical Components Model.

Step 3: Examination and Revision of Present Policy for Teacher Evaluation

Again, positive feedback from participants who have become involved in this procedural model strongly suggests that teachers and administrators are now more ready and willing to come to grips with the actual evaluation of teaching performance. Because of their complete involvement in the developmental process up to this point, such practical exposure to the working concept of evaluation is conducive to a more positive outlook. Teachers begin to see the potential benefits of a workable model, and that theory can indeed translate into practice!

This stage consists of an open-minded, thorough examination of the existing teacher evaluation policy in a given school district. Again, administrators and teachers collaborate in examining the policy with a view to making it more consistent with philosophies espoused up to this stage relative to possible improvements in teaching and learning. Once the committee has what it considers to be a workable model, it is time to "sell" it throughout the school district. Hence, the commencement of intensive in-service, particularly skills-building training sessions for evaluators with ample opportunity for teacher input.

Step 4: Self-evaluation

Few will argue that the practice of evaluating one's own performance in an honest, objective manner can be a very effective form of evaluation. However, the major difficulties with this method are that ready-made instruments are seldom used by teachers and, if they are, there appears to be little tangible evidence that their use results in instructional improvement. Also, users tend to either over-rate or under-rate their performance and, generally, receive little assistance in how to best utilize such instruments.

Upon completion of Steps 1 and 2, this Model suggests that further subcommittees of teachers be formed to develop modes of self-evaluation. Experience shows that teachers are more apt to use such methods when they develop them themselves for their own particular grade/subject level.

Step 5: Planning for Change

A strategy is formulated whereby the proposed revised policy is to be presented to the major constituent groups: teachers (policy may contain variations for various grade levels), school administrators, central office personnel, the school board, agents of the Collective Bargaining Unit and, if and when appropriate, parents and students.

The proposals being made here may be incorporated into a model such as the one in the diagram entitled "A Critical Components Model."

Stage B: IMPLEMENTATION**Step 1: Piloting the Revised Policy**

There should be no rush to implement the teacher evaluation policy all at once. Instead, the writer recommends that it be piloted on a one-year trial basis in a number of selected schools throughout the district. During the year, the Committee seeks ongoing feedback concerning the "workability" of the policy, and how it is being received by teachers and administrators.

At the end of the piloting year, appropriate changes are made and more in-service sessions held to familiarize all concerned with the revised policy. Again, as consensus is reached, plans are formulated to have the policy adapted and/or adopted for wholesale use in the subsequent school year.

Steps 2 and 3: In-Service Training

Concurrent with Step 1, intensive in-service is planned and provided for evaluators. These sessions are primarily "how-to" in nature and concentrate on improving evaluators' knowledge and skills in the theory and practice of teacher evaluation. Practical emphasis is placed on skill-building exercises in such essential evaluation components purposes, criteria, sources of data, improvement characteristics, conferencing, classroom observation and data collection, and report writing. While it is assumed that the evaluation team will involve appropriate central office personnel, the primary evaluator in this process model is the principal. This, of course, does not preclude the involvement of external expertise as deemed appropriate for specific summative situations, or even exclusion of the principal should it be deemed necessary because of personality conflicts or other extenuating factors.

Step 4: Follow-Up Activity

Integral to this process, as well, is the setting of specific job targets upon the identification of weaknesses in instructional performance. This occurs in post-conference situations. The onus is upon the evaluators to provide the necessary support services to assist the teacher, and to ensure adequate follow-up procedures so that evaluation does not revert to becoming a "one-shot" affair. On-going communication between evaluators and teachers is absolutely essential to ensure major emphasis directed towards the improvement of instruction.

Step 5: On-Review Provision

As in any profession, performance evaluation can sometimes identify individuals who have to be placed "On-Review," and even be counselled out of the profession when prescribed standards are not met after all reasonable steps have been taken. However, while such cases are indeed in the minority, when they do occur, appropriate action must be taken in the best interests of the students. This Model makes provision for such occurrence.

The reader will also note the inclusion of a "Select In" component in the diagrammatic outline of the Critical Components Model. This indicates recognition of the fact that there appears to be an increasing tendency among school boards to tighten up their selection procedures in an effort to maximize the chances of hiring the most competent teachers and administrators.

Summary and Conclusion

The Critical Components Model proposed herein is designed to improve knowledge and skills in the practice of teacher evaluation. It focuses on the professional growth of teachers. Based on this writer's experience, the model can be effective for the following reasons:

- Its primary concern is with improving the quality of teaching and learning.
- The responsibility for evaluation is a mutual, working rapport among all the major constituents of the education system.
- It is diagnostic rather than judgmental.
- It provides continuous evaluation and feedback, while fostering desirable interaction through in-service education.
- It addresses deficiencies, yet provides suggestions and assistance for improvement.
- It contributes to morale and facilitates pay-off and reward for both evaluators and teachers.
- It encourages self-assessment and stimulates a desire for change.

Being developmental in nature (the whole process could take as long as three years: two years for development and revision; one year for the pilot program), the spirit of this model re-affirms professional individuality and collaboration. Its form suggests a methodology which incorporates a specific, systematic approach designed to deal with the reality of teacher evaluation. It recognizes that the evaluation of teaching performance is a highly complex and difficult process because it deals with the many variables of human behavior involved in teaching and learning. Consensus building at each step in the development and implementation of this Model is "critical" in determining its eventual success. Meaningful teacher involvement, progressive and innovative inservice, and continuous feedback are implicit in the on-going growth cycle.

In sum, the design of this proposed Model is credible because of its potential to work in practice. Experience to date indicates its credibility because it is human, practical, teacher-centered, child-focused and growth-oriented!

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NOTE

A bibliography may be obtained from the author, who is a member of the Faculty of Education at Memorial University of Newfoundland.

WHAT CO-OPERATING TEACHERS APPRECIATE MOST AND LEAST IN STUDENT TEACHERS

Len E. Williams
Royston R. Kelleher
Division of Student Teaching

In the typical student teaching arrangement, a student teacher is assigned to work with one co-operating teacher, in a public school setting, for varying periods of time. Although the work of the student is usually supervised periodically by a university supervisor, it is the co-operating teacher, in whose classroom the student teacher works, who serves as the immediate supervisor, role model and tutor of the novice about to enter the profession.

Procedure

In an attempt to gather information which may be useful to both co-operating teachers and student teachers regarding role expectations, approximately 100 co-operating teachers were asked to complete two statements indicating what they appreciated most and what they appreciated least in a student teacher. This particular question was asked earlier in a study of student teachers in physical education at the University of Alberta (Beauchamp, 1983). All responses received from co-operating teachers were examined and common themes clustered.

Findings

Three major themes were identified in the responses from co-operating teachers. One theme related to the personality characteristics appreciated in student teachers. A second theme related to professional attributes of students, and the third reflected the impact of student teachers on the co-operating teacher and the classroom.

Personal Attributes

Frequently, co-operating teachers identified personal attributes of student teachers as being most appreciated. These comments centered around four personality traits: willingness, enthusiasm, confidence and dependability. The word most often used to describe personal attributes was 'willingness'. Co-operating teachers appreciated student teachers who were willing to become actively involved in school programs as soon as possible and as extensively as possible, and who were prepared to bring to their tasks a genuine willingness 'to do'. Conversely, students who did not display a willingness to participate fully were least appreciated.

A second category of personal characteristics concerned enthusiasm for the task. Co-operating teachers wanted student teachers who were eager to learn and who displayed a keen interest in their assignments.

A third category focused on personal confidence. In particular, cooperating teachers seemed to have difficulty working with students who had low self worth, who were apathetic and who were generally lacking in self-esteem. They appreciated those students who were not overly dependent on them for direction throughout the student teacher assignment.

A fourth category highlighted the dependability of student teachers. Cooperating teachers deemed promptness, punctuality and regularity in attendance as highly desirable attributes in student teachers.

Table I provides representative comments from co-operating teachers with respect to these four categories of personal attributes.

Professional Attributes

A second theme concerned the professional preparedness of student teachers. Two categories of issues were identified within this theme: preparation for teaching and openness to criticism.

The responses indicated cooperating teachers appreciated student teachers who were diligent in planning and preparing for teaching. Conversely some co-operating teachers expressed concerns about the quality of lesson preparation undertaken by student teachers. A number of co-operating teachers highlighted the need for student teachers to be familiar with the subject area and to be knowledgeable about the material to be taught (See Table II A).

It was quite clear from the comments that co-operating teachers took their role as teacher mentor quite seriously. Within the program there was an expectation that teachers would critique the work of student teachers. This process is, of course, facilitated by an openness to criticism on the part of the student. Many teacher comments indicated that they appreciated students who were receptive to constructive criticisms and who acted on suggestions for improvement. On the other hand they did not appreciate those students who were not responsive to their efforts to help them to improve. Illustrative comments regarding this issue are listed in Table II B.

Impact Upon the Classroom and School

Student teaching is often referred to as a symbiotic relationship in that not only does the student teacher benefit from the relationship but also substantial benefits accrue to the classroom and to the co-operating teacher. Cooperating teachers in this study appreciated student teachers who brought to their assignments interesting new teaching methodologies and perspectives along with a sense of idealism and commitment. It is apparent that some co-operating teachers use the occasion of the presence of a student teacher to keep abreast of new developments in education. In addition to getting new ideas, some teachers pointed to the presence of another adult in the classroom as providing the opportunity and stimulus for reflection on and an analysis of the nature and quality of one's own work. In a very real sense, the interaction with a student teacher was seen as being mutually beneficial (See Table III).

TABLE 1: PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF STUDENT TEACHERS APPRECIATED MOST AND LEAST BY COOPERATING TEACHERS

Appreciated Most in a Student Teacher	Appreciated Least in a Student Teacher
A. Willingness	
<p>Willingness to get involved in classes as soon as possible, and the desire to spend extra time over and above the sessions if university schedules allow it.</p> <p>A willingness to become involved with students and the school. The flexibility to adjust to changing circumstances. The ability to make our interaction mutually beneficial.</p> <p>Willingness to undertake classroom activities and to initiate some informal contact with the student.</p> <p>A willingness to plunge right into class activities in the capacity of a general assistant at first gradually begin to "get the feel" of the classroom while progressing to more specific and involved teaching.</p>	<p>The unwillingness to give that little "extra"; whether in preparation, in assisting students, or in time spent while at school.</p> <p>A student teacher who wants to observe you all of the time. All their lives they have been observing teachers teach and at this point in their education they should be willing to teach.</p> <p>An unwillingness to try anything without being "forced" to do it.</p> <p>Those who put in only the bare minimum amount of time to visit the school, to prepare lessons and to become familiar with students and the school live.</p> <p>Their unwillingness to give time to the classroom apart from what they must give.</p>
B. Enthusiasm	
<p>A genuine curiosity and interest concerning teaching and the classroom. I like to see an enthusiasm about learning new things.</p> <p>Their enthusiasm; their eagerness to learn and find out as much as they can about the teacher's methods; their willingness to compare what they've learned with the reality of the classroom scene.</p> <p>Their getting involved with the students and becoming a part of the classroom setting. I appreciate talking with them about their ideas and enthusiasm for teaching children.</p>	<p>A general inattentive, bored disposition. A person who attends only because he/she has to.</p> <p>An apparent lack of interest in the subject matter to be taught and a lack of effort to get to know the class.</p> <p>Laziness and a lack of desire to open up and learn things about teaching.</p> <p>Lack of initiative. Treating the session as something to be gotten through rather than the meaningful work experience it can be.</p>

C. Confidence	
<p>A sense of confidence - open to suggestions, enthusiastic and conscientious.</p> <p>A readiness to take control and be creative on their own. The good student teacher doesn't need 100% total direction of his/her life.</p> <p>That they have plenty of confidence in themselves; feel vibrant and frankly discuss what's on their minds with the cooperating teacher.</p>	<p>Withdrawn, difficult to communicate with on school related teaching matters.</p> <p>His/her low self-worth, apathy, and preoccupation with teaching the subject rather than teaching the students.</p> <p>Having to run to me for every possible thing - I e. lacking self-confidence.</p> <p>Timid, lack of initiative.</p>
D. Dependability	
<p>Promptness and attendance at all sessions - lessons well prepared - willingness to work with students. Patience, i.e. not expecting to go into a class and immediately everything works out.</p> <p>Dependability, an interest in getting to know students (shown initially by remembering names) and a desire and willingness to enter quickly into the actual work of the teacher.</p>	<p>Having to leave because he/she has something else to do.</p> <p>Lack of interest: no desire to teach: not showing up: not calling in a change of plans.</p> <p>Not showing up for scheduled classes.</p> <p>Tardiness and failure to contact a teacher in advance if he/she is not coming to a class especially if he/she is supposed to teach that class.</p>

**TABLE 2: PROFESSIONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF STUDENT TEACHERS
APPRECIATED MOST AND LEAST BY COOPERATING TEACHERS**

Appreciated Most in a Student Teacher	Appreciated Least in a Student Teacher
A. Preparation	
<p>Being well prepared for class; having an interest in the students' welfare; working as a partner with me to help students.</p> <p>A display of good organization and conscientiousness in lesson preparation.</p> <p>One who is well prepared and is able to communicate clearly and interestingly.</p> <p>Good preparation and organization before teaching a class.</p> <p>Thorough knowledge of the lesson being taught and reasonable familiarity with the subject area.</p>	<p>Lack of preparation - no idea how to go about preparing for a lesson or timing the delivery of the material.</p> <p>Being poorly prepared, tardiness, lack of cooperation.</p> <p>One who is not prepared well enough to hold the students attention.</p> <p>Being unprepared and not taking responsibility or initiative in teaching or other duties.</p> <p>Lack of preparation for class; lack of personal understanding of material being taught.</p>
B. Openness to Criticism	
<p>The openness to accept constructive criticism and to give constructive criticism. I, too, appreciate the opportunity to be evaluated by an adult.</p> <p>I appreciate a willingness to listen to suggestions.</p> <p>The desire and ability to discuss his/her own work and mine.</p> <p>A willingness to accept constructive criticism.</p> <p>Attitude - Not trying to give the impression that they know everything.</p>	<p>Determination to go his/her own way in spite of suggestions to do otherwise.</p> <p>Lack of openness and constant communication between the teacher and student teacher.</p> <p>A lack of flexibility - the person who feels that nothing should go wrong. Also a person who does not seek guidance as required.</p> <p>One has to get over a certain sense that "my own way is best" and acknowledge that the other's ideas are just as good and valid (if not, indeed, superior) to one's own.</p>

TABLE 3: COOPERATING TEACHERS COMMENTS REGARDING THE BENEFITS OF HAVING STUDENT TEACHERS

Having a student teacher is an opportunity to be exposed to fresh ideas. For someone who is used to being the sole instructor in an area, it is a pleasure to be able to discuss technical points with an equal.

A person who brings me new ideas, new approaches, fresh enthusiasm for teaching students first and subjects second - her/his beautiful idealism.

Their new and refreshing enthusiasm and idealism, which tends to rub off on me.

That they usually are eager to help out in many areas of work and therefore can be a great aid to me in the classroom.

The idea of having someone share with me the many frustrations which my job brings from day to day. In many cases the new ideas presented by the student teacher are most refreshing.

Getting fresh ideas on ways of presenting new topics. Some of the teaching aids, employed are very interesting.

The opportunity to hear about new ideas from the university courses.

A "fresh face" in the classroom. It provides variety for me and my pupils. It also makes me aware of other resources at the university.

Willingness to share ideas regarding new approaches and techniques. In addition, my experience with them has been that they are willing to get involved in extra-curricular activities.

Conclusion

The orientation to student teaching means for many students a reorientation in lifestyle. The personal and professional attributes needed to be successful on campus are not always those required for success in a professional sphere. For example, being able to successfully complete term papers or examinations are skills which are essential to the student on campus but which may not be of highest priority in a field setting.

Typically, on campus, students rarely engage in sustained working relationships with their professors. However, the nature of the task in the field setting demands a close, cooperative working relationship. That relationship, between the cooperating teacher and the student teacher, depends to some extent upon the attributes which the student brings to the setting. The attributes most frequently cited as being appreciated in this context were related to the personality of the student. Characteristics such as self-confidence, reliability, and dependability, level of enthusiasm and a general willingness to go beyond the minimum requirements of the program in order to maximize benefits from the experience were appreciated.

In the professional domain cooperating teachers identified two key issues. First, they valued highly the adequacy of the academic and professional preparation of

student teachers. Students who were familiar with the content to be taught and who prepared for their teaching assignments in a thorough manner were appreciated. Secondly, co-operating teachers appreciated those student teachers with whom they could develop relationships in which criticism and constructive feedback could be given and accepted in a positive manner. Comments from co-operating teachers indicated they saw close-mindedness and lack of flexibility as barriers to professional growth.

The third major category identified by co-operating teachers may be an eye-opener indeed for many student teachers. The fact that some co-operating teachers expect to acquire new ideas and gain new perspectives from student teachers may be an expectation that few student teachers have considered.

The value in this paper is that it presents for student teachers perspectives which may be beneficial in helping them to adjust to their roles in the school setting. The findings also have obvious implications for those responsible for preparing students about to embark upon the student teaching practicum.

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LEAVE PATTERNS AMONG THE TEACHER OF NEWFOUNDLAND AND LABRADOR

Art Ponder
Department of Educational Administration

Jeff Bulcock
Institute for Educational Research & Development

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, the subject of teacher absenteeism has generated some controversy in the educational community. Loyola Hearn, the former Minister of Education, suggested or, at least, implied that some abuse of leave provisions in the collective agreement was occurring. Pat Cowan, former President of the Newfoundland Teachers' Association, responded that increases in professional days and the growth of the number of available substitutes, made it appear that teacher absenteeism was on the rise. The basic facts of the case are that, at present, no data exists to support either position. Both Hearn and Cowan advanced arguments which cannot be supported by hard evidence. The jury remains out.

This has occurred because it is only within the last two years (1986-87 and 1987-88) that the employment records of all teachers in the province have been kept in computer analyzable form. Even this data has some severe limitations. The principal one is that we possess no standards against which to compare Newfoundland teacher absenteeism. That is, given the number of teaching days in the year, do Newfoundland teachers tend to be absent more, equally or less than their colleagues in other jurisdictions? Simply stated, other provinces do not have the cumulative, comparative data against which meaningful comparisons could be made.

Even within Newfoundland and Labrador trends are difficult to pinpoint. As suggested earlier, we have only two years of computer analyzable data, thus meaningful trends are almost impossible to establish. Prior to 1986-87, only limited data is available. For example, we know that the cost substitutes for the province is increasing and the average number of days worked by active substitutes is holding constant even though their number has increased, etc., (see Ponder 1988). But whether this constitutes abuse of the system is a question which cannot as yet, be addressed.

What then can this new data tell us? Basically, it can give us an accurate description of teacher absenteeism in the province and that is what this article purports to do. It makes no judgements about whether these descriptions suggest abuse of the system or not. The data is simply offered without comment and those who choose to draw inferences from it, do so at their own peril.

When examining teacher absenteeism, it appears important to analyze only absences over which teachers have control. That is, teacher-initiated leave (TIL) and that is what is reported here.

RATIONALE FOR SELECTION OF VARIABLES

The aggregate variable, leave days used, was selected from the general group of paid leave benefits for two reasons. First, the disaggregated leaves were short-term.

Secondly, they were considered to be among those kinds of short-term leaves which would be utilized at the initiation of the teacher.

Not all leave use is teacher-initiated. Some leave, for example, would be taken by teachers to attend in-service or workshops that are developed and scheduled by the district office. Teachers would be selected and expected to attend. Such leave is more appropriately termed, district-initiated. Other paid leave in the Collective Agreement is used by teachers to attend professional development activities, meetings, conferences, or functions that are arranged and scheduled by the Newfoundland Teachers' Association, the Newfoundland and Labrador School Trustees' Association, the Denominational Education Councils, the Department of Education, or some other educational group or agency. Teachers would participate at the request of one or more of the groups. While leave for these activities would be short-term, it would of consequence be utilized to participate in activities initiated by others.

There are several leave categories in the Collective Agreement that could be considered teacher-initiated but are not short-term, e.g., long-term sick leave, educational leave, and deferred salary leave. None of these, however, are relevant to this study. Leaves considered to be most representative of short-term teacher-initiated kinds are those expressed by Articles 15.01, 18.03, 18.04A, 18.08 and 18.10.

Article 15.01 applies to standard sick leave with pay which is used when a teacher is unable to come to work because of illness, injury or other disability. During the 1986-87 school year, 62.5 percent of the days on which substitute teachers were employed in Newfoundland were for absences by regular teachers under Article 15.01 (Education Finance Division, Department of Education, Newfoundland and Labrador, 1987). A medical certificate is required if the sick leave is in excess of four consecutive teaching days at any time or seven teaching days in the aggregate in any school year.

Article 18.03 refers to leave granted to a teacher when there is a serious illness in the immediate family of that teacher. Such leave is not to exceed three days in the aggregate in a school year.

Article 18.04A applies where a teacher seeks leave to attend meetings of educational committees of which he or she is a member or to attend meetings or conferences which the Minister of Education may approve. Because teachers choose to be on these committees or to attend such functions, the leave requests are considered to be fundamentally initiated by the teacher.

Article 18.08 refers to what has come to be called mental health days. Leave is granted for reasons deemed valid by the school board and is not to exceed three days in the aggregate in the school year.

Finally, Article 18.10 is often referred to as ministerial leave. On occasion where a teacher is requesting leave for which no other provision in the Collective Agreement applies, the leave may be granted upon application by the school board to the Minister of Education. The Minister (through his agents) determines if the leave is warranted. Occasions for which such leave is requested maybe for accompanying an athlete or a team to a tournament, a child or spouse to a hospital, participation as a competitor at provincial or national games or for unexpected travel delays or other complications associated with other leave. For example, a teacher may be on compassionate leave to attend the death of a parent and unforeseen circumstances necessitate remaining a day or two beyond the permitted allotment.

DATA RELATED TO TOTAL TEACHER INITIATED LEAVE

During the 1987-88 school year there were thirty-five school districts in the province which employed 8841 full-time regular teachers and other professional staff. Of these 8841 positions, 5393 were designated as regular classroom teachers. It is this classification of teachers that are being examined in this study.

The formula used to calculate the mean or average leave days was as follows:

$$\text{Mean leave days} = \frac{\text{Total number of leave days taken}}{\text{Total number of teachers employed}}$$

The selected categories of teacher initiated leave (TIL) were according to the Collective Agreement in effect at the time. They were identified in the contract by code number, namely 15.01 (sick leave) (SL), 18.03 (illness in the immediate family) (ILL), 18.04A (special approved leave, education committees) (EDUC), 18.08 (personal leave, board approval) (BDAPP) and 18.10 (ministerial leave) (SPMIN).

What then is the distribution by category of TIL in the Province. Table 1 presents a breakdown by category on a provincial basis. For the Province as a whole the annual mean days of TIL was 8.09. Most days were taken for sick leave (7.18 days per year). The other categories accounted for a total average of less than one day per year.

TABLE 1

Teacher-Initiated Leave: Mean Days Used by Category in Newfoundland, 1987-88

LEAVE CATEGORY	NUMBER OF TEACHERS	SUM	MEAN
TTIL	5393	43658	8.094
SL	5393	38705	7.177
ILL	5393	1677	.311
EDUC	5393	1052	.195
BDAPP	5393	2010	.373
SPMIN	5393	212	.039

TABLE 2

**Teacher-Initiated Leave: Mean Days Used by
Category and Geographical Region, 1987-88**

REGION	TCHRS	TTIL	SL	ILL	EDUC	BDAPP	SPMIH
1	2039	9.84	8.82	.378	.244	.368	.033
2	558	7.81	6.66	.459	.124	.504	.068
3	1298	7.37	6.49	.292	.174	.376	.037
4	914	7.06	6.42	.204	.165	.264	.013
5	399	6.69	5.58	.178	.253	.579	.105

Table 2 provides data related to leave use in the five geographical regions of the Province as illustrated in Figure 1. It indicates that for the five categories of teacher-initiated leave, the mean days ranged from 6.69 to 9.84 throughout the regions. Sick leave accounted for most of the leave taken in each region with a three day plus difference between high and low regions.

The findings in Table 3 reflect a range of mean leave by school district from 3.78 days to 14.36 days for total teacher-initiated leave. Sick leave accounted for most of the leave days used with a range from 3 days for Ramea to approximately 13 days for Ferryland. Leave attributed to illness in the family, personal reasons, or to special ministerial was less than one day on average per district during the year. Only one district, Labrador West, used more than one day on average during the year for education committee work. Four districts did not use any leave days for this purpose and twelve districts did not utilize special ministerial leave during the year. The four districts that did not use leave for education committee work also did not use any days for special ministerial leave.

DATA RELATED TO SICK LEAVE USAGE INCIDENCE AND LEAVE RATES

Because the literature had shown that most teacher absenteeism was due to illness, and because preliminary results of this study indicated that 88.65 percent of teacher-initiated leave usage among Newfoundland teachers was for sick leave, it was thought reasonable to include only this leave category in calculating incidence rates and leave rates.

An incidence rate identifies the percentage of teachers in any given group who took leave during a given period of time. The formula is as follows:

$$\text{Incidence rate} = \frac{\text{Number of teachers who took leave}}{\text{Number of teachers employed}} \times 100$$

A leave rate shows in percentage terms the amount of time teachers were on leave in proportion to the amount of time they were scheduled to work. The formula is:

$$\text{Leave rate} = \frac{\text{Number of leave days taken}}{\text{number of teachers employed} \times \text{number of work days available}} \times 100$$

* *Total work days available in 1987-88 = 190.

TABLE 3
Teacher-Initiated Leave: Mean Days Used by Category and District, 1987-88

		DIST.	TCHRS	TTIL	SL	ILL	EDUC	BDAPP	SPMIN
Ferryland	R.C.	1	61	14.36	12.86	.247	.173	.975	.099
Conception Bay Centre	R.C.	2	65	12.46	10.29	.723	.400	.969	.077
Conception Bay North	R.C.	3	95	12.00	10.12	.779	.305	.684	.116
St. Barbe South	INT*	4	67	11.88	11.30	.254	.134	.179	.015
Burin Peninsula	R.C.	5	154	9.96	8.54	.773	.078	.526	.039
Placentia-St. Mary's	R.C.	6	222	9.46	8.52	.401	.122	.338	.086
Avalon Consolidated	INT	7	398	9.45	8.69	.163	.402	.193	.003
Burin Peninsula	INT	8	141	9.37	7.87	.447	.255	.688	.106
Avalon North	INT	9	320	9.29	8.42	.531	.178	.159	.000
Bonavista-Trinity-Placentia	INT	30	234	9.27	8.15	.560	.043	.500	.017
St. John's	R.C.	11	1123	8.84	7.96	.351	.133	.362	.031
Exploits Valley	INT	12	155	8.56	7.69	.194	.310	.361	.006
Exploits-White Bay	R.C.	13	112	8.39	7.37	.321	.143	.562	.000
Conception Bay South	INT	14	121	8.14	6.70	.256	.686	.496	.000
Labrador	R.C.	15	148	7.90	6.66	.250	.041	.730	.223
Straits of Belle Isle	INT	16	88	7.50	6.93	.159	.080	.318	.011
Gander-Bonavista-Connaigre	R.C.	17	114	7.38	6.61	.368	.132	.500	.123
Labrador West	INT	18	73	7.37	5.22	.288	1.08	.781	.000
Humber-St. Barbs	R.C.	19	158	7.12	6.50	.177	.203	.241	.000
Bay St. George	R.C.	20	85	7.04	6.43	.306	.024	.224	.059
Deer Lake	INT	21	97	6.96	6.62	.144	.031	.155	.000
Green Bay	INT.	22	126	6.71	5.56	.071	.367	.659	.063
Port Au Port	R.C.	23	246	6.67	5.76	.256	.093	.524	.045
Terra Nova	INT	24	270	6.51	5.72	.270	2~	.215	.052
Pentecostal Assemblies		25	428	6.32	5.69	.105	.121	.395	.014
Bay of Islands-St. Georges	INT	26	195	6.25	5.50	.235	.398	.117	.000
Labrador East	INT	27	124	5.99	5.29	.032	.129	.468	.073
Notre Dame	INT	28	121	5.85	5.12	.380	.099	.198	.050
Bay D'Espoir	INT	29	85	5.39	4.61	.129	.024	.447	.176
Port Aux Basques	INT	30	93	5.28	4.44	.441	.097	.280	.022
Burgeo	INT*	31	20	5.05	4.90	.050	.000	.100	.000
Seventh Day Adventist		32	30	4.97	3.83	.167	.000	.967	.000
Cape Freels	INT	33	62	4.81	4.23	.403	.000	.177	.000
Vinland	INT	34	79	4.67	4.02	.215	.000	.430	.000
Ramea	INT*	35	18	3.78	3.00	.222	.111	.444	.000

*No longer exist due to amalgamation.

Key: TTIL - total teacher-initiated leave; SL - sick leave; ILL - illness in the family leave; EDUC - educational committee leave; BDAPP - board approved leave (personal leave); SPMIN - special ministerial leave.

Table 4 describes the **frequencies** for the number of days sick leave used in the Province throughout the 1987-88 school year. It indicates that 706 or 13.09 percent of classroom teachers did not use any sick leave and 3779 or 70.06 percent of teachers used seven days or less. The provincial mean for sick leave was 7.18 days (Table 1). Those teachers who took leave of less than seven days used on average 3.77 days throughout the year. Thirty percent or 1614 of the teachers used more than seven days each for sick leave. In percentage terms, 70 percent of the teachers used 30 percent of the sick leave days and 30 percent of teachers used 70 percent of sick leave. Table 4 shows that 421 teachers (7.81 percent of the total) took the maximum allowable days or more during the year. It should be noted that the Collective Agreement provides 18 days sick leave per year cumulative to 190 days.

For the Province as a whole, the annual incidence rate was 86.90 percent and the annual leave rate was 3.78 . percent. In other words, 86.90 percent of all classroom teachers in Newfoundland took sick leave during the 1987-88 school year; and of the total work time available, 3.78 percent of it was used for sick leave purposes. Table 5 presents the supporting data.

TABLE 4

Frequencies on Teacher Sick Leave Usage in Newfoundland, 1987-88

DAYS USED	FREQUENCY	SUM	PERCENT	CUMULATIVE PERCENT
.00	706	0	13.09	13.09
1.00	502	502	9.31	22.40
2.00	463	926	8.58	30.98
3.00	497	1491	9.21	40.19
4.00	443	1772	8.21	48.40
5.00	455	2275	8.44	56.84
6.00	357	2142	6.62	63.46
7.00	356	2492	6.60	70.06
8.00	237	1896	4.39	74.45
9.00	228	2052	4.23	78.68
10.00	185	1850	3.43	82.11
11.00	126	1386	2.34	84.45
12.00	98	1176	1.82	86.27
13.00	96	1248	1.78	88.05
14.00	61	854	1.13	89.18
15.00	59	885	1.09	90.27
16.00	56	896	1.04	91.31
17.00	47	799	.87	92.18
18.00	35	630	.65	92.83
>18	386	1834	7.15	99.98

N = 5393

TABLE 5**Sick Leave Usage: Annual Incidence Rate and Leave Rate for Newfoundland, 1987-88**

TCHRS ¹	TCHRS ²	WD	SUM	AIRL (%)	ARL (%)
5393	4687	190	38705	86.9	3.78

Key: TCHRS¹ - Number of teachers employed in the Province
 TCHRS² - Teachers who took sick leave during year
 WD - Work days
 SUM - Number of sick leave days taken during the year
 AIRL - Percentage of teachers who took sick leave (Incidence Rate)
 ARL - Sick leave taken as a percentage of total work time (Leave Rate)

TABLE 6**Sick Leave Usage: Annual Incidence Rate and Leave Rate by Region, 1987-88**

REGION	TCHRS ¹	TCHRS ²	WD	SUM	AIRL(%)	ARL(%)
1	2039	1876	190	17988	92.00	4.64
2	558	487	190	3716	87.30	3.50
3	1298	1112	190	8431	85.70	3.42
4	914	786	190	5866	86.00	3.38
5	399	330	190	2227	82.70	2.94

Key: TCHRS¹ - Number of teachers employed in the region
 TCHRS² - Teachers who took sick leave during the year
 WD - Number of work days available to each teacher
 SUM - Number of leave days taken during the year
 AIRL - Percentage of teachers who took leave (Incidence Rate)
 ARL - Percentage of total work time (Leave Rate)

Table 6 presented data relevant to sick leave by geographical region. It shows that the proportion of teachers who took sick leave during 1987-88 ranged from a low of 82.70 percent to a high of 92.00 percent. The proportion of total work time used for sick leave ranged from 2.94 percent to 4.64 percent. In each case, region five had the lowest percentage and region one the highest. Throughout all regions, both the incidence rate and the leave rate corresponded to one another. That is, in descending order region one had the highest proportion of teachers taking leave and the highest percentage of work time used for sick leave. Region two had the second highest, region three the third highest and so on. The

relationship is positive; as the incidence rate increased, the leave rate increased. For all five regions, more than eighty-two percent of the teachers took sick leave during the year.

The data presented in Table 7 show a range in leave rates for the various school boards from 1.58 to 6.78 percent. This means that Ramea district used 1.58 percent of its total available classroom teacher work time for sick leave purposes and Ferryland district used 6.78 percent. The numbers in parentheses show where the districts ranked in relation to annual mean leave days used in all categories of teacher-initiated leave as shown in Table 3. The rankings of both mean days used and annual rate generally compare with each other although there are several districts where a disparity exists, for example, Labrador West and Notre Dame districts.

In terms of annual incidence rates, or the proportion of classroom teachers who took sick leave, Table 7 indicates that 31 districts were above 80 percent and four were below 75 percent. The district with the highest proportion had 98.80 percent of its teachers taking sick leave during the year and the district with the lowest proportion had 55 percent of its teachers taking sick leave.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

What has been presented here is what the authors hope is an accurate picture of teacher absenteeism in the Province of Newfoundland and Labrador. However, it should be noted that they draw no conclusions concerning either the incidence or leave rates in the various breakdowns presented here. Such judgements await further data, either from other jurisdictions or from within the Province, drawn from subsequent academic years. However, the Department of Education, or even board superintendents, might consider using some of the indices developed to keep account of leave practices within their jurisdictions.

Finally, the data utilized for this portion of the study came from Department of Education records, available under freedom of information regulations. The information is the property of the Department. The manipulation of this data was the responsibility of the researchers. However, it should be noted that, for this research, no attempt has been made to investigate, identify or tabulate the leave patterns of individual teachers. Nor, had it been asked, would the Department identify individual teachers. Aggregation has been the sole concern of the researchers. Thus, to the degree confidentiality existed in the raw data, it continues to exist.

TABLE 7

Sick Leave Usage: Annual Incidence Rate and Leave Rate by School District, 1987-88

		DIST.*	TCHRS ¹	TCHRS ²	SUM	AIRL(%)	ARL(%)
Ferryland	R.C.	1 (1)	81	8.	1042	98.80	6.78
St. Barbe South	INT*	2 (4)	67	63	757	94.00	5.95
Conception Bay Centre	R.C.	3 (2)	65	60	689	92.30	5.42
Conception Bay North	R.C.	4 (3)	95	91	951	95.80	5.32
Avalon Consolidated	INT	5 (7)	398	161	3459	90.70	4.57
Burin Peninsula	R.C.	6 (5)	154	141	1316	91.60	4.50
Placentia-St. Mary's	R.C.	7 (6)	222	187	1891	84.30	4.48
Avalon North	INT	8 (9)	320	296	2695	92.50	4.43
Bonavista-Trinity-Placentia	INT	9 (10)	234	211	1908	90.20	4.29
St. John's	R.C.	10 (11)	1123	1034	8938	92.10	4.19
Burin Peninsula	INT	11 (8)	141	131	1110	92.90	4.14
Exploits Valley	INT	12 (12)	155	137	1192	88.40	4.05
Exploits-White Bay	R.C.	13 (13)	112	95	825	84.80	3.88
Straits of Belle Isle	INT	14 (16)	88	78	610	88.60	3.65
Notre Dame	INT	15 (28)	121	104	811	86.00	3.53
Labrador	R.C.	16 (15)	148	133	986	89.90	3.51
Deer Lake	INT	17 (21)	97	85	643	87.60	3.49
Gander-Bonavista-Connaigre	R.C.	18 (17)	114	102	754	89.50	3.48
Humber-St. Barbe	R.C.	19 (19)	158	141	1027	89.20	3.42
Bay St. George	R.C.	20 (20)	85	71	547	83.50	3.39
Port Au Port	R.C.	21 (23)	246	225	1418	91.50	3.63
Terra Nova	INT	22 (24)	270	229	1544	84.80	3.01
Pentecostal Assemblies		23 (25)	428	356	2434	83.10	2.99
Green Bay	INT	24 (22)	126	105	700	83.30	2.92
Bay of Islands-St. Georges	INT	25 (26)	185	161	1078	62.10	2.89
Labrador East	INT	26 (27)	124	102	656	82.30	2.78
Labrador West	INT	27 (18)	73	54	381	74.00	2.75
Conception Bay South	INT	28 (14)	121	102	620	84.30	2.70
Burgeo	INT*	29 (31)	20	11	98	55.00	2.58
Bay St. George	R.C.	30 (20)	85	69	392	81.20	2.43
Port Aux Basques	INT	31 (30)	93	77	413	82.80	2.34
Cape Freels	INT	32 (33)	62	50	262	80.60	2.22
Vinland	INT	33 (34)	79	59	318	74.70	2.11
Seventh Day Adventist		34 (32)	30	20	115	65.00	2.02
Ramea	INT*	35 (35)	18	15	54	83.30	1.58

N = 5949

*Each number in parentheses indicates the ranking of the district in mean TIL days as per Table 1.

Key: TCHRS¹ - Number of teachers employed in district
TCHRS² - Teachers who took leave during the year
SUM - Number of leave days taken during the year
AIRL - Percentage of teachers who took leave (Incidence Rate)
ARL - Percentage of total work time (Leave Rata)

*No longer exist due to amalgamation.

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PROFESSIONAL COLLECTIVE BARGAINING IN PUBLIC SCHOOL EDUCATION - SOME UNRESOLVED ISSUES

Vernon J. Snelgrove

Among the unresolved professional collective bargaining issues in public school education in Newfoundland and Labrador three seem worthy of immediate attention; namely, impasse-resolution procedures, composition of the teachers' bargaining unit, and teacher employment security. A recent study involving 152 principals, 650 teachers, and 102 school board members confirmed these aspects of the current process and scope of collective bargaining as sources of considerable dissatisfaction.

Impasse Procedures

During the past twenty years the range of dispute settlement procedures available to labour, management, and policy-makers in the public sector has grown considerably. Previously, there were really only three choices available. The first was to make no legislative provision for bargaining in the public sector except to ban strikes. Where bargaining was allowed, two further possibilities existed. The first was to allow strikes, a procedure widely used in the private sector, while the second was to make allowances for compulsory binding arbitration.

Strike Action

The main problem with strikes in the public sector is that public sector unions face a totally different environment for strike action than their counterparts in the private sector. Edwards (1977) notes that a significant difference between strikes in the public and those in the private sector is the effect the former have on the general public. More precisely, many government services are monopolies and when a strike occurs those services are denied to the public. Within a relatively short period of time, demands are made for a cessation of the strike, resulting either in a legislated settlement or an introduction of legislation to remove permanently the union's right to strike. Because of these circumstances, public sector unions have been reluctant to resort to this method of resolving impasse in collective bargaining.

Conventional Interest Arbitration

According to Gunderson (1983), conventional interest arbitration is the most basic system of arbitration used by negotiating parties who find that they cannot reach a settlement by themselves. Unlike fact-finding or advisory arbitration, conventional interest arbitration allows the arbitrator(s) to decide on an award which will constitute the collective agreement.

The major advantage of conventional interest arbitration as a method of resolving impasse is that once the arbitrator or arbitration board has made a decision the impasse is over. Some of the problems, however, associated with this method of resolving impasse in public sector collective bargaining have been identified by Kearney (1984), Bent and Reeves (1978), and Birnbaum (1980):

1. There is a tendency for the arbitration board to make awards on the principles of compromise. This results in unrealistic demands and offers by employees and employers.
2. Some public employers prefer to have wages and working conditions decided by arbitration in order to avoid responsibility for unpopular decisions.
3. Binding arbitration constitutes an 'illegal' delegation of power to persons who are not responsible to the electorate. Accountability of elected public officials is thus shifted to administratively appointed arbitrators.

Although conventional interest arbitration has become increasingly popular as a final method of resolving impasse in public sector collective bargaining, associated problems have given rise to modifications of its conventional form.

Variants of Interest Arbitration

In conventional interest arbitration, arbitrators make an unrestricted decision. Under the concept of final-offer arbitration, arbitrators are restricted in making an award by accepting only the position of one of the parties. The principle behind this restriction is that the either-or character of the situation increases uncertainty on the part of the negotiating parties and thus encourages them to bargain for a settlement that will be acceptable to both, rather than risking all with the arbitrators.

A promising variant of final-offer arbitration is issue-by-issue choice. Instead of accepting the total package of either side, issue-by-issue choice means that each dispute issue can be subject to separate final-offer selection. This method permits compromise across issues and hence reduces the likelihood of an undesirable total package being accepted by the arbitrators.

Labour-management committees may be utilized also to make settlements more the result of a collective process in which the parties themselves, rather than an outsider, make the trade-offs among the issues. This technique should lessen the number of issues requiring arbitration.

Because of problems associated with strike action in the public sector and likelihood of the unacceptability of compulsory conventional interest arbitration to government, professional school personnel, school boards, and government should be encouraged to consider the adoption of more sophisticated final impasse resolution techniques. This seems particularly apt in Newfoundland and Labrador at present, where a majority of principals (69 percent), teachers (56 percent), and school board members (75 percent) agree or strongly agree with compulsory binding arbitration as the desirable final method of resolving impasse. All three groups would eliminate strikes among professionals in the public schools as an acceptable final impasse-resolution procedure.

Composition of the Teachers' Bargaining Unit

The principal's role in the collective bargaining process has been the focus of considerable attention among people in the field of education. Three basic role positions for the principal in collective bargaining have been advanced: middle of the road or neutral position, management-oriented position, and teacher-oriented position.

Middle of the Road Position

At first glance, the middle of the road position would seem to be an ideal position for the principal to take in teacher collective bargaining. Among others, Bass (1973), and Goldhammer and Becker (1973) suggest that if the middle of the road position were firmly established for the principal, he/she would not be faced with the same uncertainty about his/her position in collective bargaining. While keeping the principal away from the conflicts of the bargaining table may offer him/her the alternative of not having to choose sides, not taking a definite stand on certain issues may be allowing his/her position to be slowly eroded by teachers.

Management-Oriented Position

Many people, including some school board officials, see the principal's role during collective bargaining as management-oriented. Maertz (1976), Weldy (1973), and others suggest that principals are top-level school managers and are part of the line of authority to the school board which represents public interest. Some of the frequently used arguments against principals' inclusion in teachers' bargaining units

are: fear of administrative coercion; apparent or assumed conflict of interests; weakening of the teacher position if the interests of the principal are considered, and a feeling that the principal's role as a member of the teachers' group is incompatible with his/her role as the 'first rung' of the administration ladder in grievance procedures.

Teacher-Oriented Position

Many teachers argue that the principal is a part of their organization during and after collective bargaining. Goble (1974) claimed that the principal's place within the bargaining process is with his/her professional colleagues - classroom teachers. Some of the basic arguments used for inclusion of principals in teachers' bargaining units are: administration and faculty concerns cannot rationally be separated; a common sense approach to problems avoids coercion; the process of bargaining democratizes and actually strengthens administrative authority, and involving them ensures that principals' major needs will be considered.

Suggested Action

Every effort should be made to settle the issue of whether schoolbased administrators should be included in the teachers' collective bargaining unit in Newfoundland and Labrador. This seems particularly appropriate in view of the fact that a majority of principals (69 percent), and a larger majority of teachers (77 percent) disagree or strongly disagree with the exclusion of principals, while 65 percent of school board members agree or strongly agree with their exclusion. Similar views have been expressed regarding the position of vice-principals and program coordinators.

If school boards in Newfoundland and Labrador firmly believe that their arguments can be convincing, they should launch an all-out campaign to demonstrate to school-based administrators that they are an essential part of the management team and should bargain separately. In the same manner school-based administrators should present sound educational reasons in an attempt to gain school board support for their present preference to remain in the bargaining unit with teachers.

Teacher Employment Security

The third aspect of professional collective bargaining requiring urgent attention is that of teacher employment security. Collective agreements have been imprecise regarding reasons for teacher dismissal, including such terms as 'other similar just cause,' which has resulted in numerous arbitration cases and, in some instances, judicial reviews. Lifestyle issues and denominational cause for dismissal have been the focus of considerable attention during the past few years. In view of the fact that a large majority of principals (78 percent), teachers (87 percent), and school board members (52 percent) agree or strongly agree with the desirability of having reasons for teacher dismissal specifically determined and precisely stated in the collective agreement, this component of the scope of professional collective bargaining in public school education merits attention.

Concluding Statements

The three issues of impasses resolution procedures, composition of the teachers' bargaining unit, and teacher employment security deserve the immediate attention of all parties involved in professional collective bargaining in public education in Newfoundland and Labrador. Solutions to two of these issues seem readily attainable; a solution to the third issue, composition of the teachers' bargaining unit, requires considerable compromise.

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THE PRINCIPAL AND TEACHERS: SHARING LEADERSHIP

William Kennedy
Faculty of Education

As administrators do we ever sit and reflect on the question, "What is the educational mission of the principalship?" We are all aware of the meaning of the term "missionary". These are people who in the name of some sect of religion or ideology go about trying to convert people to their particular religion or denomination. Some of these, like the Bakers, use the concept of religion to get power and money without due regard for the principles they are preaching or for the true needs of the people to whom they are preaching.

Jean Vanier is a leader and a missionary. His mission is different from the one described above. In his leadership there is only the mission of developing human potential and healing the emotionally hurt. The L'Arche program, which he initiated, has a mission not to lead in a coercive or fearful way but in a humanistic spiritualistic manner with emphasis on what persons need or perceive they need. Leadership is not based on the needs of the institution per se. Here is a person with a mission, who states that he/she will help people from where they are and walk with them to where they need and want to be. Institutions are only an abstract concept and cannot take on reality except through the people who collectively constitute them.

Leaders of the Stalinist communist regime, who had their own particular vision of a communist state, have become brutally aware that unless the people within the state are given the freedom to be part of the decision making and to develop their own power, then vision of Communism will die. Regimes, missions, ideologies are only worthwhile in our society if they are actualized by the good will and potential of the individuals who constitute them.

Leaders who emerge in institutions must be people who are committed to the mission of the institution, only in so far as it reflects the growth potential of the individuals who make it up. Any institution that fears the empowerment of its individuals and consequently represses the release and development of human potential is sowing the seeds of its own destruction.

I believe that, generally speaking, there are two types of leaders. One type of leader leads by fear and coercion, assuming ownership of the individuals with whom he/she works ("my people"). They believe that the concept "institution" is above the collective individuals who constitute it. Their chief aim is to preserve, at any cost, the institution or ideology. On the other hand, we have the leader who sees his/her role as one among equals, who recognizes the institution or ideology as a concept which has validity only as long as it serves the people for whom it was developed. This leader sees his/her role as a semipermeable membrane whose function it is to help those who comprise the institution grow beyond its limits and boundaries. This is the visionary, growth-oriented leader.

SCHOOLING AS AN INSTITUTION

Overtime we have institutionalized schooling and we have housed it in a building, which we have filled with people whom we call principals, teachers and students. We also developed notions like school philosophy, school rules, school spirit and teaching. To keep the institution operating we have built into it a network of bureaucrats and administrators.

In our desire and need for structure and preservation of the institution, we have assigned a role to the principal which is more that of a business manager than an educator. How often do we hear the principal say, "My teachers do their job and I do mine. Their classroom is their concern; I am up to my neck running the place." We have, at least in practice, given this role to the principal and set him/her apart from the school educational staff. On the one hand, we be the education leader, but on the other hand overburden him/her with non-education related tasks. The second in command, the vice-principal, in many cases is the front line person regarding

discipline. In some bigger schools, there are the heads of departments, generally a coordinating function. Next in line, of course, are the teachers and then the students.

INSTITUTION AND LEADERSHIP

We have in a sense developed a framework of leadership in our schools that has enslaved us. The system, from an institutional point of view is efficient. However, it appears that from an educational point of view, it is suspect. We are to a certain extent caught on the horns of a dilemma. We have committed ourselves to an institution (school) and we feel bound to make it work as is, because mechanically it is safe. The traditional hierarchical model fits. Yet, we have evidence that in such a model boredom abounds, challenge is lacking, while teachers feel isolated and powerless. Programming lacks stimulation. What do we do? I believe that first we have to revamp the administrative structure from a hierarchical to a more fluid one, which would necessitate a changing role for the principal. (See Figure: Shared Educational Leadership).

A CHANGING ROLE FOR THE PRINCIPAL

The word principal connotes first among equals, first among teachers. Over the years we have insisted that the principal be a person who is first and foremost an educated educator. It is common today that he/she be a holder of a Master's degree in education with classroom experience. It is ironic then that when we assign the person to a school in many cases (most cases) the reality of the job is that of a "building manager" or "business manager." In many cases this role has received the least emphasis in training. There are many principals today who suffer from exhaustion and burnout as a result of concerns such as bussing, furnaces, fund raising, snow clearing, etc. These concerns remove the leader from the nucleus of his/her role, namely education leader. If the principal could be permitted to, and there are many who wish they could, spend his/her energy working alongside teachers in their classrooms, developing innovative strategies for teaching, doing, and organizing teacher in-service and acting as liaison between the central office and the school to ensure that only the best education both in process and content is taking place in their school, burnout and frustration would be alleviated and the school community as a whole would be a more educationally productive place.

A first step in this direction would be to change the name of the principal to head teacher or lead teacher - chief of staff. The term administrator should be given to another body with a technical/administrative background. This person could be suitably trained in business administration either at the certificate or degree level. Take, for example, the medical model of running a hospital. The administrator is not necessarily a physician but a person with business training and background. The "chief or staff", however, is a medically trained person. He/she is the leader in professional (medical) decisions and development. The business of running the hospital is the concern of the business administrator.

We could look at a somewhat similar model in school. the principal (head) assumes the role of team leader or head, or indeed master teacher. She/he can then see the position from a more visionary educational leadership perspective. He or she can concentrate on the real reason why the institution (school) has its being, namely the education of young people. This will have the effect of putting the head (leader) in a position of real leadership and not merely restricting him/her to keeper of the institution.

It would free the leader to truly lead in the Ghandi sense of leadership. As a visionary freed of the bondage of institutional administration, the masterteacher-leader is likely to be seen by co-teachers as the educational goal setter, a person with a creative imagination who can inspire them to rise with him/her beyond the institutional barriers and explore a truly stimulating kaleidoscope of creative and innovative practice and ideas.

With this modification in leadership role, we can expect our institution to concentrate more on the aims and objectives for which they were originally conceived, namely, the development of the potential of children. This type of leadership will also help teachers to see their role not as gate keepers but openers of doors to enable individuals to move through unincumbered by institutional chains. This type of leadership will enable the role of teachers in the system to be recognized, as Maeroff (1988) says, as absolutely central in the education process. The leader in this structure will be perceived less as being in "charge" and more as a team leader who recognizes that teachers are, as the Holmes Group (1986) says, ready and able to share the power of the workplace. Teachers will be seen as worthy co-leaders in the process. In our present administrative model we condone teaching in isolation. We believe that by leaving teachers alone (enclosed in the fortress of the classroom) in some way we are conferring power on them. Teachers have much more to offer to the institution than their specific knowledge of subject matter. Knowledge in the currency in which teachers deal. Yet, in our present structure we isolate them from meaningful input into the educational practices and processes of the institution. By isolating the teachers we in a sense devalue their knowledge by shutting them out of the overall management of educational practices and policies.

This structural change in leadership will also help our young people to see education as a personal venture with their needs in mind, and not as an edifice which simply incarcerates them for five hours a day with its main objective being self preservation. If we are going to help develop in students an educated mind we must offer them a setting that facilitates this process. Much of what the institution of school offers today is geared not towards the educated mind but towards the development of the robotic mind. If we wish to have thinking visionaries in the future we must have thinking visionaries as leaders today.

Much has been written and a lot has been said about the role of the principal in our schools. Sergiovanni (1987) in discussing this point differentiates between the principal as a leader and the principal as an administrator. It is generally believed that instructional leadership activities, student relationships, and professional development activities should be the principal's highest priorities and that management routines should be on a much lower scale. However, studies of how principals actually use their time contradicts this belief. Howell (1981) found that the principals he studied spent by far the greater proportion of their time in the office, responding to communication, and generally engaged in office work. Instructional leadership categories, by contrast, received considerably less attention.

Education needs educational leaders. Buildings need maintenance persons. Maybe the time is ripe for the person we now call principal to assume more time in the educational leadership role. This can be done by adopting a method of sharing the leadership with the other professionals (teachers) in the institution. It is impossible for any one person to absorb and implement the vast array of theories, research findings and proposals existing in the field of education. Sharing the role and the power has to be the way of the future.

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Shared Educational Leadership

STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF THE REVISED HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAM

Robert K. Crocker
Institute for Educational Research and Development
Memorial University of Newfoundland

The preceding paper by Stephen Norris reported the results of an interview study of perceptions of the revised high school program held by officials of the Department of Education and school districts, as well as by school principals and teachers. A second component of the overall study conducted during the Spring of 1982 was a survey of students. This paper reports the results of that survey.

Because of the controversial nature of the program and the need to monitor the process of implementation, it was thought desirable to obtain certain baseline data on students during the 1981-82 school year. In particular, this was the last year in which any students would be involved in the former program. Accordingly, data on career and post-secondary aspirations, as well as on attitudes and expectations for the new program were gathered from students in grades 9, 10 and 11, late in the 1981-82 school year. The emphasis in the survey was on the stated goals of the program, as well as on expectations for the program which were prominent in the responses to the interview study.

Sample and Instrument

The sample for the study consisted of approximately 1,000 students in each of grades 9, 10 and 11 in one school in each of 25 randomly selected districts. Within districts, the schools were also randomly selected, within the constraints described in the previous paper. Thus, the student sample can be considered to be broadly representative of all students in the grades selected, subject only to the sampling error associated with the sample size and the cluster sampling technique. For purposes of comparing item responses, it is estimated that the sampling error is of the order of 4 to 5 percent. That is, responses from the sample can be considered to be within 4 to 5 percent of the responses that could be expected for the entire population. In examining response percentages, differences smaller than this cannot be considered statistically significant. Since the concern here is with general trends, errors of this magnitude are well within the margin of tolerance acceptable for practical purposes.

Because the schools used in this survey were the same ones used in the interview study reported in the previous paper, the prior contact with the principals of these schools was useful in helping ensure a high rate of return. Only one of the twenty-five schools failed to return the questionnaire, despite the fact that the survey was conducted quite late in the school year.

The survey instrument was a straightforward one consisting of a series of items on students' post-secondary and career plans, followed by a set of Likert Scale items on various aspects of the revised high school program. The emphasis in these items was on the impact of the program on the likelihood of students completing high school, the effects of the extra year at home, perceptions of the choice of courses available, and the influence of the program on post-secondary and career plans and prospects. The set of items for the grade 11 students was shorter and worded differently from those for grades 9 and 10 because the grade 11 students had had no exposure to the

revised program. Inclusion of the grade 11 students in the sample, however, yielded a number of interesting points of comparison.

Student Plans and Aspirations

Before proceeding to the discussion of the item responses summarized in Tables 1 and 2, a brief comment on the descriptive items on student plans and aspirations is given. The reader is referred to the complete report of the study (Crocker, 1983) for a fuller account of this part of the study.

Items on student plans and aspirations were included in the instrument for two reasons. First, descriptive information of this type will be valuable in making longitudinal comparisons with possible future studies designed to assess the impact of the program. Second, it was of interest to determine whether attitudes towards the revised program were associated with differences in educational and career aspirations.

First, it was found that almost all students surveyed planned to continue to post-secondary education. This proportion was highest for the grade 11 students, a fact which no doubt reflects the attrition rate through the high school years. As might be expected, more students in the earlier years were uncertain about their plans, although the number definitely not planning post-secondary studies was quite low at all grade levels.

In comparison with earlier studies (Parsons, 1973; Best et al., 1975; Riggs, 1980), much higher proportions of grade 11 students planned to attend post-secondary institutions. In particular, the proportion planning to attend university was much higher than the proportion reported in the earlier studies. Among those planning to attend university, the professions attracted by far the most aspirants. In the vocational fields, clerical, mechanical and construction trades continue to dominate. Police and military service were also frequently cited categories.

Likelihood of Completing High School

In the following sections, the discussion of individual items refers to the response summaries given in Tables 1 and 2. It is noted that the grades 9 and 10 data can be discussed together because the items were the same for both grades. Because the grade 11 students were asked different questions, responses must be treated separately. The appropriate comparisons are made as required in the discussion.

Table 1
Percentage Distribution, of Likert Scale Item Responses

	Grade 9						Grade 10					
	SA	A	N	D	SD	Don't Know	SA	A	N	D	SD	Don't Know
1. Benefit from greater course choice.	54	23	9	1	2	10	44	32	11	6	5	3
2. New program more difficult.	15	20	12	9	24	17	17	21	24	19	11	7
3. Looking forward to extra year.	26	16	22	9	16	9	17	19	26	12	20	5
4. Probably would not finish high school under either program.	3	3	8	6	62	16	3	2	5	7	74	8
5. Better able to choose career at end of new program.	48	23	10	3	3	12	39	27	15	7	6	7
6. Will not learn more in new program.	7	7	12	18	33	23	10	10	17	25	29	10
7. Parents pleased to have me home an additional year.	38	11	15	3	8	25	33	19	19	4	5	20
8. Not able to choose courses wanted.	18	19	16	15	21	10	19	24	19	18	16	3
9. Better prepared for post-secondary under new program.	40	20	12	2	3	22	33	30	15	6	6	10

	Grade 9						Grade 10					
	SA	A	N	D	SD	Don't Know	SA	A	N	D	SD	Don't Know
10. More likely to drop out of school.	4	3	6	7	69	10	8	5	8	8	67	5
11. Able to think better under new program.	28	21	20	4	5	21	18	22	26	9	10	15
12. New program will decrease choice of finishing high school.	7	7	9	13	51	14	7	8	9	13	56	5
13. Probably finish under either program.	56	16	9	2	5	12	63	17	8	2	4	6
14. Cannot afford an extra year of high school.	6	3	9	11	60	10	4	7	11	15	58	4
15. New program will increase chances of graduation.	31	15	19	5	7	21	18	16	30	10	15	10
16. Happier if I didn't have to spend an extra year.	31	14	17	10	17	8	36	17	18	11	12	5
17. New program will better prepare to live independently.	33	20	16	3	5	22	20	25	23	8	10	13
18. Not happy to be in new program.	8	8	19	16	36	11	15	10	25	19	25	5
19. Better chance of a job in new program.	41	21	10	3	4	20	26	25	17	7	8	16

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	Grade 9						Grade 10					
	SA	A	N	D	SD	Don't Know	SA	A	N	D	SD	Don't Know
20. Parents happier if I were in old program.	4	3	13	7	29	42	9	4	21	10	25	30

Table 2
Percentage Distribution of Likert Scale Item Responses Grade 11

	Grade 11					
	S A	A	N	D	SD	Do n't Kn ow
1. More likely to finish high school under new program.	16	9	24	12	25	12
2. Happy not to have to spend another year in high school.	53	15	16	8	5	2
3. Parents rather I were in new program.	9	7	30	6	14	33
4. Probably finish high school under either program.	64	14	11	1	3	6
5. Would spend extra year if required.	66	11	7	4	6	4
6. Probably would not finish high school under either program.	2	1	5	4	80	8
7. Rather be in the new program.	9	10	26	11	34	9
8. Could not afford additional year of high school.	8	4	15	12	51	9

The proportion of students who strongly agreed or agreed that they would finish high school under either program is in the 80 percent range for all grades (Item 13, grades 9 and 10; Item 4, grade 11). This is somewhat higher than the actual completion rate under the old program. In fact, it might be argued that, considering the usual attrition rate from grade 9 to grade 11, the grades 9 and 10 students were overly optimistic about their chances of graduation. This raises the questions of whether the new program may have led to a change in level of expectation about completing high school. This issue was addressed in several of the items. In response to Items 10 and 12, it is clear that very few students in grades 9 and 10 felt that the new program would decrease their chances of graduation. On the other hand, respondents were more neutral on the question of whether the new program would increase their chances of graduation (Item 15). Grade 11 students, in particular, tended to disagree more than agree that they would be more likely to graduate under the new program. This may, of course simply reflect the fact that the grade 11 students were very close to completion under the previous program.

Outcomes of the Program

Beyond the question of likelihood of graduation, students were asked a number of questions about selected outcomes of the program. In particular, items focused on those outcomes associated with the stated goals of the program, and of other goals held to a significant degree by those participating in the interview study.

One of the major goals is to allow a greater variety of courses to be offered. Some 80 percent of the grades 9 and 10 respondents thought this would be one of the consequences. Grade 9 students had a slightly stronger tendency than others to support the statement that they would benefit from greater course choice.

In the interview study, the question was raised as to whether greater course availability would be necessarily associated with greater course choice for the individual student. It must be recognized that student course choice depends on many factors such as streaming, time-tabling and constraints of post-secondary admission, as well as on course availability in the school.

Students were widely divergent in their perceptions on this issue. About the same proportions agreed and disagreed with the statement about not being able to choose the courses they want (Item 8). Presumably, the grade 10 results reflect the realities of the situation in the first year of the program. It might have been expected that the grade 9 students would have held a more optimistic view, in light of the explicit promise of the program and the prospect of increased program breadth in subsequent years as the program becomes more fully implemented. The absence of substantial differences between grades may, of course, reflect nothing more than lack of knowledge on the part of the grade 9 students. Nevertheless, on the other issues, those in grade 9 tended to be somewhat more optimistic. This is obviously an issue which deserves close examination as the program progresses.

A number of the teachers and principals in the interview study spoke of the program in terms of improved career prospects and more intelligent career choices. The pattern of responses to items on this issue (Items 5 and 19, grades 9 and 10) was strongly positive. Students believed strongly that they would be better able to choose a career at the end of the program. This optimism also extended to the statement about job prospects, especially for the grade 9 students. What is interesting here is that such responses seem not to take into account the extent to which job prospects depend on economic circumstances or, more especially, on post-secondary plans rather than secondary school programs.

On the latter point, students were also strongly positive about the degree to which the new program would better prepare them for post-secondary education. This relates to the maturity issue discussed in the interviews, since one of the common arguments surrounding the introduction of the program has been that students at the end of the grade 11 are too young to cope with life at the post-secondary institutions. Further information on this point is given by responses to Item 17. Students were strongly in agreement with the statement that the new program would better prepare them to live independently. Overall, then, it can be argued that students strongly believed that, in some respects at least, they would be more mature on high school graduation as a consequence of the revised program.

The final two items in this category concerned whether students thought they would learn more (Item 6) or become better thinkers (Item 11) under the new program. Although these items left considerable room for variations in interpretation, the

relatively positive response patterns, especially for Item 6, again reflects the optimism which seems to characterize student views of the program.

Perceptions of Parental Attitudes

For ethical and other reasons, the range of questions which could be asked of students on the attitudes of their parents was quite limited. Nevertheless, as a possible precursor to a study of parents, it was felt that certain questions would be justified.

First, grade 9 and 10 students were generally positive in response to the question whether their parents were pleased to have them home for an additional year. Grade 11 students, on the other hand were quite neutral on this point. Similarly, the grade 9 and 10 students tended to disagree with the statement in Item 20 that their parents would rather they were in the old program. Although this may suggest a general positive view on the part of parents, the issue is no doubt more complex than this, depending on whether completion of high school actually means that the child will have to leave home, what the actual experience of both students and their parents will be in the new program, and the like. A first hand study of parents is required to shed further light on this issue. Such a study is tentatively planned for the Spring of 1983.

General Attitudes Towards the Program

As a final point, grades 9 and 10 students were asked whether they were pleased to be in the new program or were looking forward to the program (Items 3, 16 and 18). In the case of grade 11 students, they were simply asked whether they were happy not to be in the new program (Items 2 and 7). The responses to these items showed sharp grade level contrasts, as well as some contrast between the notion of the extra year and that of the program itself. For example, grade 9 students tended to agree, although not strongly so, that they were looking forward to the additional year, while grade 10 students were slightly more ambivalent on the issue. Grade 11 students, on the other hand, were distinctly pleased not to have to spend the extra year. On the comparative question of whether they would be happier not to have to spend an additional year, students in both grades 9 and 10 tended to agree more than disagree although the tendency was not overwhelming. On the other hand, when the question was worded in terms of the program rather than the additional year, as in Item 18, the view was somewhat more positive, especially for grade 9.

In general, these response patterns suggest that grades 9 and 10 students were reasonably pleased with the new program, but less so with the feature of the additional year. Grade 11 students seemed distinctly relieved not to have to spend the additional year, while being less extreme in their views about the program itself. The results suggest the hypothesis that the level of acceptance of the program, and of the extra year, will increase as students now in the earlier grades progress through the program.

Item Responses and Student Characteristics

Because of the large number of comparisons involved, detailed tabulations of the relationships between item responses and student characteristics are not reported

here. These tables appear in the complete report of the study. However, two major results of this analysis are worth reporting.

First, it was found that females showed a consistently strong tendency to be more positive in their responses than males. This tendency held both for items about program characteristics and about their own prospects under the program. Overall, it can be said that females seemed to hold a more positive view of themselves as students than males, a point which contradicts much of the published work on sex differences in students.

Second, students planning further education were more positive in their views about the program than those not planning to continue. This tendency was especially pronounced for those planning to attend university. Those who were undecided on further education tended to hold more neutral views on the program. This raises the important question of whether the program should be designed with the non-university student, in particular, in mind. Although the stated goals of the program do not refer to this point, this issue was implicit in the views of many of those interviewed. Certainly, the view that the previous program was "too academic" is quite prevalent. This issue, of course, relates to that of improving the retention rate.

Conclusions and Implications

The most general conclusion to be drawn from the survey is that students held quite positive and optimistic views about the revised high school program. Expectations for the program were quite high. In fact, it might be argued that these expectations extend to areas beyond those inherent in the goals of the program. For example, students clearly expected the new program to improve their post-secondary and career prospects. The results give some reason to wonder whether students were expressing a set of unattainable expectations for the program, and whether such expectations might yield an inevitable disappointment with the program as its implementation proceeds.

A further issue of some importance is that of a possible gap between student expectations for completing high school and continuing to post-secondary education, and the realities of post-secondary admissions. Certainly the proportion expecting to complete high school is greater than the existing data on retention rates would suggest. Whether this reflects a possible sudden improvement in the retention rate remains to be seen. Although improving retention is not one of the explicit goals of the program, many respondents to our interview study believed that such an outcome should be expected.

One of the more interesting findings is the apparent difference in attitudes towards the program in general and towards the specific question of the additional year of schooling. The distinct relief felt by grade 11 students at not having to spend the extra year, and the ambivalence of the younger students on this issue, suggests that students may simply be anxious to be done with high school, whatever the program. Of course, this may be nothing more than a general feeling of dislike for school. However, it does have implications for the issue of maturity in that one of the modes of expression of the argument about students-needing to be more mature centers around the fact that students in the new program will be a year older on graduation.

A final area of concern raised by the study is that of the difference between course availability and individual student course choice. Again, in the interview study, a number of respondents made a clear distinction between the two. A high school can, indeed, offer a wide variety of courses, while strongly limiting student choice through streaming and time tabling. Similarly, post-secondary admission requirements may continue to exert constraints on course choice. We seem not to be clear at this point on the degree of student choice which should be allowed, or whether this is a matter for the school or for students and their parents, or on the nature of the guidance that will be available on course choice. Some clarification of policy in this area seems to be called for.

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OUR SCHOOL: STUDENT PERCEPTIONS

**B.J. Croskery
Coordinating Principal
St. James' Regional High School
Port aux Basques**

In the Spring of 1982 the staff of St. James' Regional High School embarked on an attempt to determine the nature of various opinions held about our school. The first stage of our analysis addressed teacher perceptions (Morning Watch, Vol. 10, Nos. 1-2). Stage two focused on the perceptions of students. This paper reports the findings of stage two of the project - the results of the Student Opinion Inventory. Characteristics of the Inventory

The chosen instrument for tapping student perceptions was the Student Opinion Inventory, developed by the National Study of School Evaluation (1974). This inventory was designed to accomplish two major goals:

1. To assess student attitudes towards many facets of school.
2. To provide student recommendations for improvement.

Part A of the inventory is comprised of thirty four fixed response items. These items were scored on a scale ranging from very satisfied to very dissatisfied. Item mean scores provided particularly precise information on specific topics. Subscale means were also devised for six distinct areas of the school's life.

Predetermined coefficient alpha reliability coefficients of internal consistency for the six subscales range from .69 to .91. Validity of the subscales was predetermined with the aid of corresponding semantic differential subscales, the correlations ranging from a positive, but moderate, .34 to a positive, and significant, .59.

Part B of the inventory invited free response to nine questions. Scoring for this section of the inventory was more subjective in that it required classification of similar responses by a single scorer and reporting in broad percentage terms.

Three hundred and fourteen students constituted the sample. The original intent was to score the entire population, but two classes were scored wrongly and had to be excluded. The exclusion of forty-nine students may moderate the reliability of our research, but the impact of this exclusion is probably insignificant in view of the school's heterogeneous grouping policy.

Results

Each of the thirty-four items on the fixed response section was assigned a mean score, ranging from 1 (very unfavourable) to 5 (very favourable). Means for the seven subscales were then computed. Free response items were tabulated and classified in percentage terms. Reporting of free response items is restricted here to significant and provocative themes.

Part A (fixed response items)

Subscale	Items	Mean
Student-Teacher	6-12	3.78
Student-Counsellor	13-17	3.69
Student-Administration	18-23	3.33
Student-Curriculum	24-28	3.51
Student-Participation	1-5	3.03
Student-School Image	29-34	3.64

The mean for the total inventory was 3.47, indicating a moderate positive response from the students. The somewhat bland reporting of an inventory mean does little justice to the reality of a richly-detailed mosaic of student opinion. Furthermore, the subscale means need to be interpreted with prudence if the perceptions of the students are to be assessed with any degree of precision. Recent research by Martin (1982) indicates that Newfoundland students may have widely differing perceptions of the same experience. Results of this inventory follow a similar pattern.

The student-teacher subscale drew the most positive response from the students. Although the subscale mean of 3.78 may seem only lukewarm, further analysis reveals how clumsy the subscale means are. In this subscale, negative responses averaged less than ten per cent per item whilst positive responses invariably exceeded seventy percent. The following items clearly indicate the general pattern of response on this subscale:

Item 7: How often do your teachers clearly explain what to do on assignments?

87 Always
 140 Usually
 55 About half the time
 24 Seldom
 1 Never

Item 11: How many of your teachers are willing to give students individual help outside of class time?

103 All
 103 Most
 33 About half
 36 Few
 2 None

Items on the Student-counsellor subscale followed the same general pattern as the preceding subscale, with the number of favourable responses averaging about seventy percent. One item, however, drew a very mixed response:

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Item 17: How much help does your counsellor give you in solving your personal problems?

- 68 All the help I need
- 71 Most of the help I need
- 27 About half the help I need
- 35 Little of the help I need
- 90 None of the help I need

It would be interesting to see how many students specifically require more help with personal problems. The free response items point to some concern in this area.

Students appear to be generally satisfied with the administration of our school, although some comments on the free response section indicated some confusion over the term itself. Several students were uncertain whether the administration referred to a system, a facet of teachers' professional experience, or a person. Item 23 confirmed the writer's instinct that students value individual treatment from administrators:

Item 23: Does the administration talk to you as an individual on all occasions?

- 19 Always
- 69 Usually
- 53 About half the time
- 106 Seldom
- 54 Never

Curriculum theorists might be interested to note that students perceived the school curriculum in fairly positive terms. Item 24, pertaining to the utility of the school curriculum, scored 3.27, with a negative response of 21%. Item 25, on teaching methodology, scored 3.52, with a negative response of only 12%. Another item revealed that the school is seen to be a fairly successful agent for the promotion of learning, although significant numbers of students still feel unchallenged.

Item 28: How much do you think you are learning from your schoolwork?

- 29 All that I can learn
- 158 Almost all that I can learn
- 92 About half of what I can learn
- 23 Somewhat less than what I can learn
- 6 Considerably less than I can learn

The subscale with the lowest mean score was student-participation. The items on this subscale drew a curious mixed response from the student body. Item 4 (How often do you feel that you "belong" in your school?) scored fairly high at 3.83. In percentage terms this translates into a positive response from 68.7% and a negative response from only 12.4%. On the other hand, students felt left out of planning school activities (item 1 scored only 2.44) and denied access to other activities (item 3 scored only 2.68).

The final subscale (student school image) proved very encouraging for the school's administrators. Students came out very strongly for their school and its activities. The average negative response for the items on this subscale was only

11.68% of the total. Items 29 and 31 give clear pictures of the response pattern for this subscale:

Item 29: How proud or ashamed of your school are you?

56	1 am very proud of my school	124	1 am proud of my school
124	I am neither proud nor ashamed of my school		
3	I am ashamed of my school		
4	1 am very ashamed of my school		

Item 31: Are you satisfied or dissatisfied with your school?

36	Very satisfied
168	Satisfied
93	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied
17	Dissatisfied
3	Very dissatisfied

Part B: (free response items)

The nine free response questions drew a wonderfully-rich array of responses from the students. Comprehensive reporting of these responses is simply beyond the scope of this paper. The writer wishes to place on record the satisfaction of carefully sifting through so many responses from his students. At the end of this lengthy exercise, one could not help feeling close to the concerns and problems of the students. Every principal should try something similar.

Reporting of free response items is necessarily eclectic and skeletal. Each item elicited a wide variety of responses. These responses were carefully classified and the total number of responses tabulated for the item. Each response category was then scored in terms of its percentage of the total responses. Reporting of free response results is given in terms of three categories, with additional significant comments from students. The three categories reported are the major response category, the minor response category and the no response category.

Item 1: If you think you need more help at school, what kind of help do you need that you are not getting?

Major Response (22.55%) I get all the help I need.
 Minor Response (22.25%) need more help in certain subjects.
 No Response (24.63%)

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Item 2: If there are things about your teachers you like or don't like, what are they?

Major Response (22.62%) Failure or refusal to explain problems.

Minor Response (15.42%) Teacher competence.

No Response (5.91 %)

Significant Comments: "My teachers are good at their job."

"Some teachers, like Mr., don't care."

Item 3: If there are things about the administration you like or don't like, what are they?

Major Response (27.35%) They are doing a good job.

Minor Response (8.84%) They don't get down to our level.

No Response (43.09%)

Significant Comments: "Each member of the administration should visit the school regularly."

"Our principal is kind of stern and hardheaded but he is pretty fair."

Item 4: If you are satisfied with the way pupils in your school treat each other, tell why.

Major Response (49.4%) I am generally satisfied.

Minor Response (23.95%) I am dissatisfied.

No Response (17.07%)

Significant Comments: "We're like one big family."

"There are a lot of big shots who thinks there's no one as good as them."

"I'm not satisfied, try wearing something different."

Item 5: If there are things you think you should be learning which are not being taught in your school, tell what they are.

Major Response (24.42%) Sex Education.

Minor Response (8.31 %) How to handle drugs and alcohol.

No Response (28.83%)

Significant Comment: "I needs to know more about real life."

Item 6: If you don't take part in as many activities as you would like, what are the reasons?

Major Response (18.36°/x) I haven't got the time.

Minor Response (14.1°/x) I feel self-conscious and inadequate.

No Response (23.61%)

Significant Comment: "Only big shots get on our teams."

Item 7: If there are problems with drugs at your school, why do these problems exist, and what can be done to help solve these problems?

Major Response (49.54%) There are problems with drugs in school.

Minor Response (21.85%) There are no problems with drugs.

No Response (19.69%)

Significant Comments: "The students here hate to be different."

"There are people selling drugs and they should be caught and suspended."

Item 8: What do you like least about this school?

Major Response (21.29%) Particular teachers.

Minor Response (13.86%) Poor facilities.

No Response (2.23%)

Significant Comments: "Not enough teachers care. Most teachers have too many pets and they mark harder on the people they dislike."

"I don't like the way some students act. Sometimes I feel the classroom is like a romper room. The teachers don't teach anymore, they babysit."

Item 9: What do you like best about this school?

Major Response (26.36%) The teachers.

Minor Response (18.52%) The way it is run the atmosphere.

No Response (4.58%)

Significant Comments: "This school is very nice and the teachers are what makes it nice."

"It is a very caring and understandable school."

"I don't like nothing at this school, only the teachers."

With respect to the free response items, three points deserve special attention. Firstly, it should be noted that the major response category for some items was really the no response category. Semantic interpretations are possible here. Secondly, it should be noticed that many students did not respond in a precise manner to the question asked. Item 7 is a particularly good example of lack of precision in responding to the question. Does this lack of precision surprise teachers? Thirdly, the immense variety of responses cannot be adequately illustrated in a paper of this nature.

Summary

Four points merit special emphasis concerning student perceptions of our school:

1. A substantial majority of students are very satisfied with life in our school. Negative responses to the fixed response items invariably ranged from 1% to

about 40%, but most items drew negative responses of less than 10% of the student body.

2. Relationships with others are crucially important for our students. Our research strongly supports earlier research by Martin (1982) which identifies the importance students ascribe to "getting along with teachers." Furthermore, there is considerable support in our research for Martin's thesis that students may be placed on an "ease-difficulty continuum" with respect to their relationships with teachers. Relationships with peers also figure strongly in the student responses. The power of peer relationships is poignantly illustrated by the comment of one student who responded "If you try to behave and listen to the teacher and don't act like a little baby, the others think you are immature."
3. Significant numbers of students appear to want more assistance with personal development problems, particularly in the area of drugs, alcohol and sexual problems.
4. Student opinion may vary immensely, even on the same topic. For example, 26.36% of respondents cited teachers as the aspect of school they liked best. On the other hand, 21.29% cited teachers as the least likeable aspect of school life!

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HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS' CRITICAL THINKING COMPETENCE: THEIR ABILITY TO EVALUATE REPORTS OF OBSERVATIONS

**Ruth King and Stephen P. Norris
Institute for Educational Research and Development
Memorial University of Newfoundland**

Introduction

Many of our beliefs are based on things other people say or write. Some of these are reports of what people have observed: seen, heard, smelled, tasted, or felt. Examples might include reports of air pressure levels in a car's tires, reports of wind speed or wave height at a drilling rig, and reports of the extent of damage of a burned building.

Knowing how to appraise such statements is an important aspect of critical thinking ability and is useful in many ways. Sherlock Holmes proved that in order to be a good detective much effort must go into appraising observations. Jurors are called upon to assess the believability of often-conflicting observation statements made by eyewitnesses. Science teachers emphasize that dependable observations are part of the foundation of all scientific knowledge.

This paper explores the competence of high school students in evaluating observation statements. The overall conclusion is that their level of competence is low.

Testing Students' Observational Ability

We are at present developing a test of this aspect of critical thinking ability. It is based upon a set of principles for judging the believability of observation statements originally developed by Robert Ennis in 1962 and revised and enlarged by the second author in more recent years. We hope to present a description of these principles as well as a rationale for their use in teaching critical thinking in a future issue of this journal.

The test contains two stories, one of a hiking trip and one of a traffic accident. For each story the student is presented a number of pairs of observation statements and for each pair he or she must choose which, if either, of the two is more believable. For each item one of our principles is the basis for a correct assessment. For example, the item below is taken from the traffic accident story:

3. A policeman has been asking Mr. Wang and Ms. Vernon questions. She asks Mr. Wang, who was one of the people involved in the accident, whether he had stopped at the stop sign.

Mr. Wang answers, "Yes, I came to a full stop at the stop sign."

Ms. Vernon, who had watched the accident happen, tells the officer, "Mr. Wang's car did not come to a full stop."

In the context of the story the second emphasized statement is the more believable of the two. The criterion by which this assessment is made is that Mr. Wang was involved

in the accident whereas Ms. Vernon was a bystander, placing Mr. Wang in a conflict of interest position. The principle being tested is that an observation statement tends to be believable to the extent that the observer has no conflict of interest.

The current version of the test was administered to approximately 180 Level I and Level II high school students in September, 1982. On the whole, students performed poorly, the average score being less than 40%. The range of scores was from 5% to 80%, with 98% of respondents scoring less than 65%. Since the reading difficulty of the test is at a grade six or seven level and there was no other apparent interference with students' performing at their best, we conclude that students' competence here is weak.

This is corroborated by a comparison of performance scores with "thinking" scores for a smaller sample of 52 students. Each of these students was interviewed while taking a section of the test and was asked to think aloud while doing a number of test items. The interviews were tape-recorded. An index of good thinking was later applied to these reports. Each student received a thinking score for each item and also for the section of the test as a whole. A correlation of .68 was found between test performances and thinking, that is, low test scores were usually associated with low thinking scores and high test scores with high thinking scores.

We thus have two sources of information to diagnose particular problems which students have. One is performance on individual items which can give some indication of the principles of thinking which are generally known and those generally unknown. In addition, thinking-aloud protocols provide a closer look at the actual errors of thinking which students made. In the following sections these errors are summarized and illustrated.

Individual Item Performances

The students tended to perform best on questions requiring them to judge an observer's report on the grounds that the observer was overly emotional at the time of the observation, was unskilled, had a reputation for making mistakes, was in a conflict of interest, used precise observing techniques, and reported something which was corroborated from other sources. While not a spectacular showing, somewhat over half of the students did well on these questions. In addition, about one-half recognized that observation reports are more believable than inferences based on them. However, when an expert in some field was making the inference, regardless of whether or not the inference fell within the area of his or her expertise, the expert was judged more believable. We will speak more of this tendency, which we call "expert fixation", in the following section.

Students performed poorest when required to make judgements of the effects which the following have on the believability of observations: responding to leading questions; reporting on nonsalient features of an event or state of affairs; being exposed to post-event experiences, such as police interrogation; reporting an observation in an environment different from the one in which it was made; and reporting an observation which someone else had made. Fewer than thirty percent of the students were able to answer correctly questions based upon these effects.

Errors Revealed in Thinking Protocols

The discussion in the previous section shows that students appeared to know some principles well and others less so. In addition, however, the protocols revealed that a number of types of thinking errors occurred often. They are listed below, and discussed in the following sections:

- (1) accepting or rejecting one of the statements at face value
- (2) accepting the opinion of an expert in some field regardless of whether or not he or she is an expert in the area under discussion
- (3) making unjustified assumptions
- (4) accepting a statement which is more definite or is made by a person who seems more confident
- (5) making a false statement and creating a personal version of the story based upon it
- (6) giving an example to support one of the two statements (which could have been done for both)
- (7) giving a counter-example against one of the statements (which is equally applicable to both)
- (8) giving an example to show that both statements could be right or that both statements could be wrong.

Face value acceptance. The most prevalent type of error was the accepting or rejecting of one of the statements at face value. In the example test question below Martine, a witness in the story, describes the events leading up to the traffic accident. The respondent quoted here accepts the second statement at face value and tries to disprove the first.

Test Item: Martine, a witness, is responding to a police officer's questions.

13. Martine says, "Just before the accident everyone was driving normally."

She continues, "Then there was a loud squeal of tires. Mr. Peters' car turned quickly toward the fruit stand."

Respondent:

"I'd say in number 13 the second one because they weren't all driving normally and one was driving faster than the other and the faster one had to slam on his brakes, right. The rate of the speed they were going is why the second one, I'd say..."

Interviewer:

"Could you tell me more about the difference that makes?"

Respondent:

"Like if they were all driving normally why should there have been a loud squeal of tires? It's just that everyone's going faster that caused the accident. Maybe they had to slam on the brakes or something."

The respondent takes for granted that there was a loud squeal of tires and that Mr. Peters turned toward the fruit stand, while the more sensible thing given the information would be to reserve judgement here. She then tried to explain how, given this "fact", the first statement, that everyone was driving normally before the accident, could not be true. In the end she gets the answer correct, but for poor reasons. We agree that the second statement is more believable, but for the following reasons: the assertion that Mr. Peters' turned toward the fruit stand describes a more salient feature of the event than does the assertion that everyone was driving normally. It is more salient because it is out of the ordinary and noisy. People tend to notice such things more readily than commonplace happenings.

Expert fixation. We mentioned this phenomenon in the previous section. Students on the whole placed much emphasis on the credentials of a speaker. While it makes good sense to rely upon the opinions of an authority, students tended to carry this principle to an extreme. The opinion of an expert was often accepted even when he or she was discussing things outside of his or her area of expertise. For example, in one question from the hiking trip story, two characters, a geologist and a student, are disputing whether or not a sound they have heard was made by a black bear. Many students accepted the 'expert' opinion of the geologist, even though geologists are not normally authorities in this area. In other questions students refused to believe either of the conflicting statements made by two characters, overlooking or rejecting valid criteria for choosing, because neither of the characters was an authority in the area of concern.

Unjustified assumptions. A third type of error involved making unjustified assumptions. The item below is taken from the story of the hiking trip. In the transcript which follows, the respondent makes an unjustified assumption about Cheng, one of the characters in the story.

Test Item: The group has just come upon a stream whose water is discoloured.

38. Cheng is a member of a group which is fighting to stop pollution of rivers. He sees the coloured water and becomes very angry. He exclaims,

"Some people are very careless! There is not a living plant in that water."

"No," Mary says, "There are some living plants in the water."

Respondent:

"I choose the first one because he is a specialist in it and should know. He studied it for a while and would know the difference."

While it may be the case that Cheng is an expert on pollution, nothing in the story supports this belief. His being a member of a group fighting pollution in rivers does not make him an expert necessarily. A more justified approach to this question would be to focus on Cheng's high level of emotional arousal. Such arousal is known to distort what people see, causing them to see more or less what they expect. Thus Cheng's statement should be judged less believable than Mary's, because she seems to be composed.

Definiteness and confidence. Students tended to believe statements which they considered more definite, that is, which did not contain qualifiers such as "seems", "maybe", and "generally". They also tended to believe people who seemed more confident and presented their views more forcefully. While a moderate level of confidence is, we feel, a valid criterion for granting belief, some students placed far too much emphasis on the confidence of speakers, as in the following example.

Test Item: Mary and Scott have just given conflicting statements about a bird sighting.

33. Juanita says, "Mary was right, Scott. The birds were chickadees. I had a good look at them."

Scott becomes upset at what Juanita says. He shouts, "I know what I saw. The birds were swallows."

Respondent:

"(I choose) the second, it says he shouts. He seems a bit confident that he knows what he saw because he is expressing his point of view a lot better than the other one. She just said the birds were chickadees but he's trying to express his point stronger. He's shouting."

As with the example given in the section above, we feel that observation statements are believable to the extent that the observer is functioning at a moderate level of emotional arousal. Scott is highly emotional and therefore less believable.

Self-created story. Another tendency was for the students to make a false statement and then, in following questions, to build a story around this statement. The example given below is from a student who decided early on in the traffic accident story, without good reason, that the witness Mr. Dawe was not sure of himself. The respondent builds on this assumption for several questions.

Test Item:

7. The officer turns to question Martine and Pierre and Mr. Dawe. The officer asks them to estimate the speed of Mr. Wang's car when it hit the others.

Mr. Dawe says, "it was going about 40 or 45 kilometers an hour."

The officer says, "It was going faster than that, wasn't it?" Martine says, "Yes, It was going about 60 or 65 kilometers an hour."

Respondent:

Probably the second one. Mr. Dawe doesn't seem like he's ever really sure."

According to the story, both Martine and Mr. Dawe witness the accident. No previous evidence points to Mr. Dawe's not being sure of himself nor is any given in this question. Rather, we believe that Martine's statement is less believable since she is responding to a leading question from the police officer.

In the following question, the same respondent again judges Martine's statement to be more believable on the assumption that Mr. Dawe is uncertain:

Test Item:

8. Martine says, "Mr. Wang went right through the stop sign."

Mr. Dawe says, "I can't remember whether Mr. Wang stopped at the stop sign or not. I think he did, though." A while later when the officer asks him again he says, "Mr. Wang did stop at the stop sign."

Respondent:

"I'll take the first. It seems to make more sense. It seems like Mr. Dawe is never really sure about what he is talking about and Martine is always confident."

Martine's statement is more believable here since Mr. Dawe "recalls" something previously forgotten, and such recollections are always suspect. The respondent's reasoning regarding Mr. Dawe is, however, unfounded. Two questions later, the casting of Mr. Dawe as heedless and unsure of himself is again the criterion by which the respondent chooses between the two statements.

Test Item:

10. Mr. Dawe says, "The three cars collided at the same time. There was one crash."

Ms. Vernon says, "No, the Peters' car hit an instant or so later. There was more than one crash. It would be very strange for the three to collide at exactly the same time."

Respondent:

"Mr. Dawe probably wasn't watching too closely. He never noticed things before, right, in his answers."

In this case, Mr. Dawe's statement is less believable because it conflicts with the statement made by Ms. Vernon, whom we have been told is a driver education instructor, and who draws on her knowledge of what is normal in these situations. The respondent, however, disregards all of this. She builds upon her previously made and unfounded claim that Mr. Dawe never noticed things before, claiming that he probably was not watching closely in this case either.

Improper use of examples and counterexamples. The three types of thinking errors involving the giving of examples naturally group together. In one such error, students tended to give examples to show that a particular statement was either believable or not believable which could in fact be applied to both statements contained in the test item. The following is a case of giving an example in support of one of the observation statements.

Test Item: A geologist infers that some mountainside streaks are streams.

29. While you and some of the members of your group are getting a fire ready to cook breakfast Juanita says, "Those mountains over there, which are a few miles away, have several white streaks going from top to bottom." Professor Rocks says to her, "Those streaks are small streams, I would say."

Respondent:

"The second, I'd choose for number 29. The white streaks like they can't be snow. They're white so it must have to be water cause it can't be snow from top to bottom because it would be melting on the bottom or something like that. So they must be streams running all the way down."

Here the respondent argues that since the white streaks cannot be snow, they must be streams. He therefore finds the second statement more believable. He does not realize, however, that arguing that the streaks cannot be snow in no way negates the first statement, which only asserts that there are streaks on the mountain. In fact, his very example assumes the truth of the first statement.

A similar type of error is the giving of a counterexample to disprove one statement, when the counterexample is equally applicable to both statements. A third type involves giving examples to prove that both statements either could be right or could be wrong. For instance, for item 10 above, one respondent said that neither statement is more believable because in the city there is so much noise that you could not tell if there is one crash or two. The student made the unjustified assumption that the traffic accident takes place in the city. This is not mentioned in the story. And even if the story did take place in the city, no indication is given that the intersection was particularly noisy.

Summary and Conclusions

Our work on developing a test of observational ability has led us to conclude that students have difficulty with at least one aspect of critical thinking ability, the assessing of observation statements. Not only was test performance poor overall, but personal

interviews revealed that students tend to make certain types of thinking errors fairly consistently.

Specifically, students:

1. often accept things at face value when this is not warranted;
2. rely unconditionally on the word of experts;
3. make unjustified assumptions, and compound this by building their own story line on them;
4. place too much trust in speaker confidence and definiteness; and
5. improperly use examples and counterexamples to illustrate or support conclusions.

We believe that thinking errors of the type outlined in this paper can diminish with a systematic treatment of the legitimate ways to evaluate what others assert. In a future paper we will present a set of principles upon which these judgements can be made.

NOTE

¹This test is not yet available for use by teachers as the development is not yet finished. It should be ready by September, 1983.

STUDENT PROMOTION POLICY IN NEWFOUNDLAND - AGREEMENT OR CONFUSION?

Dennis L. Treslan
Educational Administration, M.U.N.

Cyril P. Coombs

Currently, numerous professionals play a role in developing student promotion guidelines in Newfoundland schools - Department of Education, school boards, local schools, and principals/teachers. With each school district responsible for developing promotion criteria, opportunity exists for possible variation in content and approach. It is well known that a dichotomy already exists in this area, with some educators favouring automatic promotion and others adhering to rigid grade advancement. Given this fact, it seems reasonable to expect promotion-policy differences between elementary, central and junior high schools both within and between districts in that these institutions are responsible for implementing respective board policy. Since curriculum content is a primary responsibility of the Department of Education (Schools Act, 1970, Section 59), students across Newfoundland are being exposed to a standard curriculum but possibly different promotion practices. It can be argued that a serious weakness lurks in this educational system if students with equal performance may be promoted in one situation but not in another.

This problem was addressed in research conducted during January 1980/July 1981. (See Appendix for instrument description) Various aspects of student promotion policies in Newfoundland central/junior high schools and associated feeder schools were examined as perceived by organizational administrators. In this manner, it was hoped that variation in promotion practices between school boards, elementary schools and central/junior high schools could be identified. More specifically, answers to the following questions were sought:

- (i) What differences exist among perceptions of school board student promotion policies?
- (ii) What differences exist among perceptions of selected central/ junior high school student promotion policies?
- (iii) What differences exist among perceptions of selected elementary school (feeder school) student promotion policies?
- (iv) What differences exist between perceptions of school board, central/junior high, and feeder school promotion policies?
- (v) Is there a relationship between perceptions of central/junior high school and associated feeder school student promotion policies?

Study participants consisted of all Newfoundland and Labrador school boards (35), principals of all central/junior high schools (114) and associated feeder schools (232). All responded to a three-part questionnaire designed to examine the nature of existing student promotion policies. Response rates were high: school boards (82.9%); central/junior high schools (86.8%); and elementary (feeder) schools (75.4%).

Study Findings

"What differences exist among perceptions of school board student promotion policies?"

Though divided on some items, board response to this question reflected considerable similarity of viewpoint. A majority viewed promotion factors to include minimum standards of achievement, completion of academic requirements, passing major subjects, continuous promotion, and student ability to demonstrate level of performance – portraying an emphasis on academic achievement as criteria for promotion. Most boards do not allow retention in a grade for more than two years, while many others do not permit conditional promotion. Interestingly, interpretation of the term conditional promotion varied among those who permit its usage. Most respondents defined it as a student showing improvement early in the midterm. Reasons for non-promotion, frequently cited but without majority agreement, included habitually working below grade level, poor study habits, effort, attendance record, social immaturity, lack of ability to handle work of the next grade, and being a slow learner.

"What differences exist among perceptions of central/junior high school student promotion policies?"

Minimum standards of achievement, completion of academic requirements, passing major subjects, multi-factor approach to promotion, continuous promotion, and student ability to demonstrate level of academic performance were jointly agreed upon by a majority of principals as prevalent promotion practice in Newfoundland central/junior high schools. This seems to reflect a heavy emphasis on academic achievement as a rationale for student promotion. In a majority of these schools, no student remains in any grade for more than two years, no student is permitted to spend less than three years completing three grades, and skipping the work of a grade is not permitted.

Reasons for non-promotion revealed substantial disagreement among these same administrators. Particularly strong differences in perception were noted in the areas of attitudes towards school, work and study habits, effort, attendance record, needing a firmer foundation before advancing to the next grade, and marks in relation to the class.

Conditional promotion, though a somewhat contentious issue, was practised by a majority of respondents. However, a variety of definitions were used to describe this exercise. Too, a majority of principals indicated that promotion/non-promotion of an individual student is always discussed with staff members. Slightly more than 82% indicated the principal finalizes decisions of this type.

"What differences exist among perceptions of selected elementary school (feeder school) student promotion policies?"

Responding principals from these schools demonstrated a high level of agreement concerning promotion practices, indicating a stress on academic achievement as a basis for decisions reached. Most individuals did not allow a student to remain in the same grade for more than two years nor spend more than three years completing two consecutive grades. Concomitantly, a student could not spend less

than three years completing three grades. Skipping is not permitted. Slightly more than half of the responding schools allowed conditional promotion.

Reasons for non-promotion revealed a division of opinion among principals. Most frequently reported reasons included poor study habits, poor effort, poor attendance records, needing a firmer foundation before moving on to more advanced work, being a slow learner, slow progress in relation to the class, inattentiveness during classroom lessons, and social immaturity. Interestingly, elementary principals seem to agree that academic achievement is an important reason for non-promotion. Roughly one-third of these same schools involve the entire staff in promotion/non-promotion decisions, while slightly more than 16.0 percent involve parents. Yet, in nearly 50.0 percent of these schools, the principal has final say in all promotional matters.

What differences exist between perceptions of school board, central/junior high and feeder school promotion policies?"

Six items relating to promotion practices revealed significant differences in perception among the three study groups. These included minimum standards of academic achievement, student retention in any grade beyond two years, time spent to complete two consecutive grades, skipping, chronological age, and the multi-factor approach to promotion/non-promotion.

Response to 'minimum standards of achievement' and 'student retention in any grade beyond two years' displayed similarity of view between central/junior high principals and superintendents, while feeder schools differed. Very little similarity in response was observed concerning the item 'No student is permitted to spend more than three consecutive years completing two consecutive grades.' Of the three responding groups, feeder school principals practised this most frequently. Too, central/junior high school principals favoured less 'skipping' than did superintendents and elementary principals. Only feeder schools place a strong emphasis on 'chronological age' as a promotion practice and, interestingly, likewise place a strong emphasis on 'the multifactor approach to promotion/non-promotion.' Central/junior high school respondents utilize this factor least, whereas school board officials tended to demonstrate ambivalence in opinion here.

Four reasons for non-promotion revealed significant differences among respondents. Items relating to mastery of grade work, study habits and classroom behaviour were more strongly adhered to as non-promotion factors by central/ junior high schools than by feeder schools and boards.

Group differences were significant on two questionnaire items associated with administrative regulations. A large percentage of board respondents stressed adherence to conditional promotion at the end of June, whereas only a very small number of central/junior high and feeder school principals indicated this to be the case.

"Is there a relationship between perceptions of central/ junior high school and associated feeder school student promotion policies?"

Responses for central/junior high schools were joined with responses received from each associated feeder school. In each case, a correlation coefficient was obtained. These correlations were further divided into low, medium, and high categories to facilitate analysis. The relatively high mean correlation (+.448) suggests

there is considerable agreement of view between central/junior high schools and associated feeder schools regarding promotion policies. [However, this figure does not indicate the nature of agreement; merely that group response was similar.]

Conclusions and Recommendations

Presently, academic achievement is an essential component of student promotion guidelines in Newfoundland, espoused by school boards and practised by central/ junior high schools and associated feeder schools. Whereas continuous promotion is non-existent, a variety of definitions surrounds the practice of conditional promotion. It is interesting to note that a fluctuating school board viewpoint emerges concerning board involvement in promotional decisioning. This might reveal three important facts. First, it is possible that local boards assume responsibility for mega policy development or development of a master plan since there is an apparent absence of same at the Department of Education level. Since, by definition, mega policies are not intended to be definite, variation in practice might cause fluctuation of viewpoint. Second, such fluctuation might indicate lack of awareness of individual school practices. Third, boards may allow flexibility in practice due to existing exceptional circumstances.

Central/junior high school staff members play a more active role than do elementary staff members in promotion decisions. Generally, the structure of high school and the nature of their programs would lead to this conclusion. However, it could also point out the fact that high schools have a clearer promotion policy than do elementary schools.

Analysis of questionnaire response by group (board, central/ junior high and feeder school) displayed certain similarity in response patterns. Whereas central/junior high school principals and feeder school principals could arrive at agreement on many questionnaire items, the same did not hold true for viewpoint between central/junior high schools and school board respondents.

Split in respondent viewpoint was particularly evident in points of view surrounding conditional promotion and the reasons for non-promotion. Perhaps conditional promotion is more viable in central/ junior high school settings due to the prevalence of subject teaching. Too, less conditional promotion may occur in elementary schools because borderline students may be promoted without having conditions attached. Concomitantly, lack of agreement in perceived promotion practise between central/junior high schools and their associated feeder schools could indicate one of two things - either school boards are not coordinating promotion policies between their respective schools, or boards have intentionally devised different policies for elementary and secondary schools.

In light of these findings and conclusions, the following are suggested recommendations arising from this study:

1. The Department of Education should assess school board promotion policy differences throughout the Province.
2. School boards should examine student promotion policy discrepancies within their districts.

3. Every school board and school therein should state its student promotion policy in written form, accompanied by appropriate administrative regulations.
4. In view of conflicting student promotion policies, boards and schools therein should assess the merits of promotion policy variance.
5. A study should be undertaken to determine teacher's perception of their school's promotion policy to establish if this view differs appreciably from that of their principal's.
6. A study should be undertaken to examine different grades and streams in the Newfoundland school system.
7. Further study should be undertaken to assess teacher, parent and student reaction to existing promotion practices with the aim of seeking suggestions for improvement.
8. A study of other provinces should be conducted so that comparative analysis of student promotion policies can be made.
9. The relationship between student promotion policies and variables such as principals' experience and professional preparation, school community and board size, and board denomination should be determined.
10. A study should be carried out to more accurately determine why student promotion policy differences currently exist in the areas of conditional promotion; acceleration; skipping; classroom behaviour; chronological age; study mastery level; promotion during the year; and student study habits.

APPENDIX

The questionnaire was divided into three major sections. Section one and two attempted to determine the nature of the organization's student promotion policy as perceived by the respondent. More specifically, the first section provided a list of policy statements. The respondent was asked to indicate the extent to which they were practised. Statements dealt with: minimum standards of achievement, passing major subjects, amount of time in a grade, chronological age, skipping material of a grade, consideration of factors other than academic achievement and promotion regardless of academic achievement.

The second part of the instrument presented reasons for non-promotion of borderline students in view of board/school promotion practices. Such listed reasons were: mastery level of the grade, ability to handle work of next grade, attitude, physical maturity, work and study habits, effort, class behaviour attendance record, marks in relation to class ability to learn, and social maturity.

Section three of -the instrument focused on promotion policy regulations. Questions dealing with conditional promotion, promotion during the year, and the making of promotional decisions were asked.

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STUDENT RIGHTS IN A NEW ERA

Romulo F. Magsino
Educational Foundations

The Promise

The arrival of the Charter of Rights and Freedoms entrenched in the Constitution is happily thought to have ushered in a new judicial era for Canada. As one Appeal Court Justice recently phrased it, "The public is now being told in a fundamental document... that there are individual and group rights beyond the reach of government."¹ That this public includes students who are constitutionally ascribed individual and group rights seems a foregone conclusion for student rights advocates.

Present optimism sharply contrasts with frustrations expressed in the past. Not too long ago, Gilmour Sweezy despaired that litigation of student cases seldom reached the courts due to immense discretionary power wielded by school authorities; to lack of precedents because lawyers, uncertain of litigation in this area, tended to settle out of court or to refuse handling school regulation disputes; and, more importantly, to a doubt that a constitutional right - specifically freedom of expression - existed in Canada which could be invoked in favour of students.² Now, Charter provisions are perceived to have opened up opportunities for students and other young people in pursuit of their rights. Section 15 specifies that every individual is equal under, and has the right to equal benefit of, the law without discrimination based on age, among others. Thus it is now possible to view young people as possessing the fundamental freedoms enumerated under Section 2 such as freedoms of belief, conscience, opinion, expression, peaceful assembly, and association. In addition, they may now be regarded as vested with various legal rights usually enjoyed by adults such as the right to fundamental justice or due process, to security against unreasonable search and seizure, to protection against cruel and unusual punishment, and the like.

The Canadian Scenario

The scenario for the affirmation of these rights for students harks back to judicial events that occurred south of the Canadian border. There, under the aegis of the United States Bill of Rights, the American Supreme Court gradually unfolded the doctrine that children - students in particular - are constitutional persons and are thus equally entitled to rights enjoyed by adults.

Given a new Charter not unlike the American Bill of Rights, the way is presumably paved for an era of justice and liberty for Canadian students. Aware of constitutional guarantees, droves of students - with their parents and sympathizers - will lodge their grievances before the courts of law. Mindful of the Charter mandate, the courts will then declare Canadian students in possession of constitutional rights no different from those given to adults. Finally, the advocacy of student rights is vindicated.

How are we, Canadian educators, supposed to react to this scenario? Is it time for us to dig our trenches in defense of our time-honored educational autonomy and authority to determine the conduct of schools?

Perhaps an intuitive, and not an inappropriate, answer to the first question, is "Quickly". The optimistic scenario above anticipates a willingness by students to respond courageously to the Charter's invitation (in Section 24) for people to seek remedy for grievances before courts of competent jurisdiction. Already, this invitation has had a healthy response. As Peter Russell has observed, the first few months under the Charter has seen private litigants instigating judicial review of a substantial number of laws and policies.' There is reason to believe that grieving students will positively respond to the psychological stimulus that the Charter provides. Realistically, unless educators are quick to establish new arrangements which will eliminate or minimize occasions for valid student grievances based on constitutional grounds, we can expect student test cases reaching the courts not long after the equality rights provision of the Charter operates in 1985.

Unlike the first question, the second does not lend to any quick answers. In coming to grips with it, it is important that we view the scenario above in a better light. This scenario envisions Canadian courts assuming judicial activism so evident among their American counterparts. It anticipates their jumping eagerly into the arena of socio-political policymaking and then their overturning the policies of societal institutions which show the slightest trace of inconsistency with constitutional provisions.

The fact, however, is that legal scholars themselves do not see things this way. They seem to agree that the Charter paves the way for the courts' judicial review of legislative and administrative policies in the country.' However, they do not imagine that, overnight, our courts will assume a liberal, much less a radical, orientation. Indeed, there is no reading infallibly into what direction judicial activism or policymaking might take. While they may follow the American lead, they may remain generally conservative as they had been in their interpretation of the 1960 Canadian Bill of Rights. After all, legal studies seem to suggest that judicial conservatism may not disappear from the Canadian judicial landscape that fast.' Clearly, the establishment of student rights similar to what we find in the United States is by no means a foregone conclusion - at least not for the near future.

Legal and Moral Imperatives

Nevertheless, the chance that courts will pronounce students as possessors of constitutional rights, no matter how attenuated in content, should be enough motivation for educational authorities to reformulate school regulations in line with Charter requirements. The Charter provision (Section 32, ss. 2) which postpones the operation of the equality rights provision for three years allows the breathing space needed in seeing to it that governmental institutions, with their laws and policies, are not in violation of the Charter. Canadian educators would wish to use this grace period to make certain that they are not caught flatfooted in the same way American educators were in the Sixties and Seventies. The shock and apprehension the followed the American student rights cases need not be experienced in this country. If only to avoid such humiliating experiences it is imperative that Canadian educational authorities seize the opportunity afforded them.

Apart from the need to avoid possible rebuke from the courts, reexamination of school regulations and policies affecting students is made imperative by another reason. Were the courts to remain conservative and continue to find administrative exercise of present policies acceptable, moral considerations alone should enjoin

educational authorities to scrutinize their present practices. The inevitable entanglement of lives of people whose conduct and actions are bound to affect the well-being of one another gives rise to moral dimensions that ought to be considered in the workings of the school. Such dimension gains added importance in that a substantial group therein is, in many ways, dependent on another, more mature group for its well-being. Even further, the moral dimension arises from the fact that schooling, as a purposive process, requires educators to foster the development of young people into full human beings that they are capable of becoming. Thus are created moral obligations that educators must take seriously.

From the moral perspective, two things seem required of educational authorities: (i) To assess school policies and practices affecting students in terms of consistency with moral rules and principles; and (ii) in the first place, to identify and clarify these rules and principles. Concededly, both are not easy to do. Fortunately, the push to attempt both is there. The push comes, in a round-about way, from the legal imperative. As we know, Charter provisions are general in their concepts and application. Courts will still have to be asked how these provisions apply to particular social groups or institutions. Having been asked, courts will no doubt seek guidance from existing legal doctrines. But since the Charter is intended to inaugurate new entitlements, these doctrines governing the status quo will themselves have to be evaluated. Inevitably, courts will have to reach deep down, at least in part, into the moral underpinnings of the law. Surely, courts will find student cases suitable opportunities for the clarification of the moral presuppositions they are supposed to uphold as men of the law. In this clarification, school boards would not want to be shown waddling in murky moral waters. Given the commendable lead taken by some Canadian school boards which have already formulated, or are in the process of formulating, policies on student rights, the future in this area looks brights.

A Perspective on Student Rights'

While several moral perspectives are available in examining student rights, I incline towards the orientation, derived from the philosopher John Stuart Mills, which aims at the greatest happiness or well-being of the greatest number (or, just about the same thing, the improvement of mankind). This orientation presupposes that the 'mankind' at issue is made up of humans with physiological and psychological needs, as well as distinctively human capacities. It also assumes that their well-being depends on these needs being met and their capacities developed and exercised. Thus, insofar as fulfillment of well-being is a legitimate *raison d'etre* for society, entitlements or rights emerge. Such rights might be classified into (i) welfare rights, aimed at the satisfaction of needs and development of capacities, and (ii) freedom rights, geared towards the unhampered expression of human capacities in thought and action. Since students are, individually and collectively, included in the greatest number, there is presumption in favour of their possession of rights granted to other individuals or groups in society.

In principle, then, the Millian orientation will find unacceptable any unjustified (for lack of valid reasons) denial to young people of rights granted to adults. At the same time, it insists that the attempt to insure well-being of each and everyone should not be compromised by indiscriminate or inappropriate granting of rights. Complete freedom of action, for example, cannot be provided because of risks against human life.

(i) **Providing for welfare rights.** The student's right to due process, particularly where he faces suspension from school, is now legally accepted in the United States. There is good moral reason for this. In the way that adults are protected against arbitrary punishment, so should students be. While compromising the educational process should be avoided, at least minimal elements ought to be observed: informing the student of charges against him; allowing him to refute charges and to present his own evidence; and giving him the chance to appeal. More elements might be demanded in expulsion cases.

Students' right to protection against cruel and unusual punishment ought to be examined. Young people's welfare, just like adults', is no less threatened by physical pain and abuse. Thus, if corporal punishment may not be banned altogether, safeguards ought to be in place for its limited, reasonable and humane application, if at all, in schools.

Similarly, serious concern for pupils' welfare rights should result in the specification of teacher and school accountability to forestall individual and/or institutional malpractice in relation to the central task of schooling. The right to the development, under normal circumstances, of cognitive capacities characteristic of the educationally initiated should be clearly delineated. By no means should schools and educators go scot free for shoving otherwise mentally and emotionally normal children thru a diploma mill without having developed appropriate skills. Although the American school board won in the celebrated *Doe v. San Francisco Unified School District* case, the legal judgment is an indictment of schools for teaching badly and of teacher educators for failing miserably to establish acceptable standards of professional competency.

Protection of children's welfare rights with respect to the effects of school/classroom structures, arrangements, and practices also needs to be ensured. The harm wrought by haphazard assessment of students, by the use of classification procedures based on inappropriate standardized intelligence tests, and by careless implementation of certain practices such as ability grouping, special education placement, and the exclusion of 'ineducable' children ought no longer be tolerated. Further, inequitable treatment of children through unequal distribution of school resources and through lack of concern for remedial provisions should be resisted.

(ii) **Providing for students' freedom rights.** If some of the welfare rights that can be claimed for students are contentious enough, more so, perhaps, are freedom rights. The left-of-centre sentiment among student rights advocates seems to incline towards extending adult freedom rights to the young. The Millian orientation, however, would have us take a more cautious stand on the matter. Famous for his espousal of individual freedom, Mill nevertheless is known to have thought that freedom may be denied to young people when still in need of care or protection from others. For him, freedom applies in principle when the individual has become capable of being improved by free and equal discussion.

Subjected to criticism, Mill's point is nevertheless unobjectionable. If our goal is mankind's well-being - which includes satisfying real needs, developing capacities, and enjoying their exercise - freedom may temporarily be suspended for individuals when their exercise of such freedom is likely to go counter to that well-being. For example,

it does not make sense to leave a child thinking that schooling is useless and to let him miss it altogether. We do know that in our complex society, failure to internalize basic cognitive skills militates against one's freedom to make reasonable choices. Ignorance can hardly be thought to contribute to one's well-being.

Mill insisted that human improvement requires a schooling which enlarges and liberates the mind and the spirit and which makes him more serviceable to himself and to others. Much of that schooling calls for student initiation into knowledge by authoritative (not authoritarian) teachers. By the very logic of the disciplines of knowledge which students need to internalize, teachers have to mould student beliefs, thoughts and opinions. To proscribe teachers from doing so, because it violates students' fundamental rights to their beliefs, etc., amounts to scrapping school altogether. The problem in any affirmation of students as full-fledged, legal possessors of fundamental rights in the Charter is that it would allow young people to go through the motion of exercising political and civil rights even without their meaningful understanding of what they are about, and without necessitating the internalization of those skills and dispositions needed for the responsible exercise of such rights. Once a political or civil right is granted, it becomes immaterial whether it is discharged intelligently or not. To grant students freedoms enumerated in Section 2 is, in a real sense, to transport them automatically into the real world of democracy where social arrangements and relationships result from the test of strength and desire, not reason or good faith. If anything, this is the way to further decline of mankind.

My personal position on students' freedom rights would seek to accommodate the utilitarian presumption of equal enjoyment of rights with Mill's concern for the development of rational autonomy before freedom is granted to individuals. In light of what we know from common sense and from developmental psychology, Mill's denial of civil and political freedoms to elementary pupils would be difficult to dispute. We can justify the claim, however, that developing student understanding of themselves and of society during the high school years should be accompanied by an increasing feel for political and civil freedoms together with associated responsibilities. The development of rational autonomy, treasured by Mill, in fact requires the merger of knowledge and practice.

The mechanism I have in mind for the junior and senior high school levels is already implemented by many school boards in the United States and by some in Canada. This consists in the formulation and student exercise of what I would call developmental freedoms. Such freedoms are analogous to the civil and political freedoms enjoyed by adults but are subject to reasonable regulation by school boards. Generally, accompanying specific statements of particular rights are corresponding limitations and student responsibilities.

(iii) **Prospects for the future.** The formulation of students' developmental rights, together with provisions on students' welfare rights, makes up what is usually called "student bill of rights" or "student code of conduct". In most cases, they have been formulated cooperatively, primarily by educators in close cooperation/consultation with students and other interested parties like parents. Once approved at the school board level, they take on at the least a quasi-legal character. They become binding documents which give non-arbitrary guidance to both students and school authorities. Models are already available, and should provide educators much help should they decide to develop their own. The need for such student bill or code cannot be overemphasized in the era of the new Charter.

But will the courts find these documents satisfactory distillation of student rights? Assuredly, no one knows for certain. However, having succeeded in formulating a bill or code, all that educators can do is keep faith that the courts will recognize their honest attempt to provide for student entitlements without compromising the educational tasks. They can also hope that, not intending to act as superintendents for the schools of the nation, the courts will simply ask educators to show evidence that students are being treated in a reasonable manner.

FOOTNOTES

1. The Hon. Gerard La Forest (Court of Appeal of New Brunswick), "The Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms: An Overview." **The Canadian Bar Review**, 1983, 6, p. 23.
2. Gilmour Sweezy, "Free Speech and the Student's Right to Govern His Personal Appearance." **Osgoode Hall Law Journal**, 1969, 7, pp. 297-299.
3. Peter Russell, "The Political Purposes of the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms." **The Canadian Bar Review**, 1983, 6, p. 47.
4. Peter Hogg, "The Supremacy of the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms." **The Canadian Bar Review**, 1983, 6, p. 69.
5. Perceptive reading into the future handling of the Charter by the Canadian Supreme Court has been attempted by Berend Hovius, "The Legacy of the Supreme Court of Canada's Approach to the Canadian Bill of Rights: Prospects for the Charter." **McGill Law Journal**, 1982, 28, pp. 31-58; and Walter Tarnopolsky, "The Constitution and Human Rights." In Keith Banting and Richard Simeon (eds.), **And No One Cheered**. Methuen, 1983, pp. 261-279.
6. More extensive discussion on this is found in my "Student Rights in Canada: Nonsense upon Stilts?" **Interchange**, 1977, 8, pp. 52-70; and "Freedom and Rights in Schools: Towards Just Entitlements for the Young." **Educational Theory**, 1979, 29, pp. 171-185.

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HARLOW IN RETROSPECT: REACTIONS OF THE FIRST GROUP OF STUDENT TEACHERS

**R.R. Kelleher
L.E. Williams
Student Teaching
Faculty of Education**

It has long been recognized that a study period away from one's home environment may be considered a significant contributor not only to one's formal education but also to more complete, personal development. Through a process of acculturation, students who live and study outside of their home environments theoretically enhance their intellectual development, expand their cultural awareness, and achieve greater emotional maturity. Such an experience is deemed to precipitate positive changes for both the individual student and society in general.

The literature indicates that since World War II North American Universities have significantly promoted study-abroad programmes with the aim of providing an international dimension to the home-based college and university curriculum. Abrams (1968) says this kind of educational experience in a cross-cultural setting has traditionally involved three major sets of educational purposes: the general education of the student; specialized learning; and the promotion of international understanding. Marion (1980) cites a number of studies which suggest that the effects of study-abroad include a greater awareness of cultural relativity, increased open-mindedness, broadening of horizons and new insight into one's own self. All imply that beneficial changes take place in participants during the experience, but that systematic research is required in order to follow up the impact on those who have engaged in such programmes.

A recent report by West (1980) indicates that many institutions have established programs of student teaching in cross-cultural contexts. He reported finding over 100 North American institutions having over 1,000 student teachers in some 50 countries in 1979. Given the extent of these involvements, it is surprising that there have been so few reported efforts to assess the impact of overseas student teaching upon the participants involved.

Since the late sixties, the town of Harlow in Essex County, England has been the host site for one kind of cross-cultural study program. That program dates back to 1968 when Memorial University of Newfoundland acquired a small 'campus' in Harlow, a town with a population of approximately 90,000 residents. Harlow is 25 miles north east of the center of London and is midway between London and Cambridge. The campus consists of a converted Maltings with accommodation for up to 31 student residents as well as modest library and seminar facilities. In addition, four faculty residences, two of which are housed in a former school in Old Harlow, are available to professors from the main campus in St. John's, Newfoundland.

While a number of North American universities have study abroad programs, few have established campuses in the host countries. The establishment of the Harlow Campus by Memorial University was designed to serve a number of purposes. In a general way it was seen as forging a link between the old and the new worlds and providing an opportunity for Newfoundland students to gain international experience. On a more specific level, it was seen as offering students the opportunity to develop

skills in the industrial, business, medical and educational settings available in Harlow and nearby towns.

In 1972 the Student Teaching Division of the Faculty of Education at Memorial University selected fifteen students to undertake a one-month student teaching experience in England. That original group included eleven females and four males. These students who came from a range of socio-economic backgrounds represented different geographical areas of the province. All students had completed three or more years of university study. Eleven of them were preparing to be primary and elementary school teachers while four were at the secondary level.

Upon completion of that trial experience, Dr. Harry Cuff, then Director of Student Teaching, asked participating students to assess the program by providing their perceptions of the quality and value of the experience. Students were asked to rate the value of the entire experience to them as future teachers. Of the fifteen students, fourteen rated the experience as being "of great value"; one respondent indicated that it was "of some value"; and none of the respondents rated the program as having "little value" or "of no value".

On the basis of that very successful initial trial, it was decided not only to continue but to expand the program in terms of numbers of participants and length of stay in England. Now, approximately fifty education students, per year, complete a thirteen-week practicum in schools in the Harlow area. Since 1972 approximately five hundred teachers have completed their final teaching practicum in British schools.

In a systematic attempt to assess the value of the program in England, a two-phase research effort has been initiated. Phase one of that work has been an attempt to contact the first group of fifteen students, who went to Harlow in 1972, to ascertain how they now, in retrospect, perceive the value of that experience. Phase two which is presently in the data collection stage is an attempt to assess the perceptions of all participants who have been through the British program since 1972.

The purpose of this paper is to present the findings of Phase One. This aspect of the follow-up effort was designed to provide information concerning two questions. First, how do the Harlow graduates now feel about their British experience thirteen years in retrospect; and second, how do those assessments compare with the responses given by the students upon completion of their program in 1972? To do this, questionnaires were sent to the first group of Harlow students. The questionnaire which was administered in 1985 was designed to solicit student perceptions of the overall value of the program, its strengths and weaknesses, and the extent to which the experience affected their professional and personal lives. In order to make comparisons with data collected in 1972, the 1985 questionnaire contained some questions previously asked these students in 1972.

FINDINGS

Of the original group of fifteen students, only thirteen could be contacted and responses were received from eleven. It might be of some interest to note that of thirteen students who could be reached, ten are currently engaged in the teaching profession in Newfoundland, two have established their own business firms and the other is unemployed by choice.

The remainder of this paper presents the current views of the first Harlow group and, where appropriate, compares these views with those expressed in 1972.

Overall Evaluation of the Program

It seems that even after a time-lapse of more than a decade, the favourable attitudes of students toward the British experience have been maintained. Of the ten students who responded to a question regarding the overall value of the program, eight rated the experience as being "of great value" and two "of some value". Once again, no student, even in retrospect, rated the program as being "of little" or "of no value".

Typically, student ratings of practice teaching are relatively positive immediately following completion of a program. However, those ratings tend to become less positive as the student becomes involved in a full-time teaching career. In the case of this program, the initial glow of the experience did not diminish with the passing of time.

In addition to ratings, students were asked to provide written comments about the program. These comments are insightful and instructive, they tell a story beyond the statistics. The following are representative of students' comments:

"I personally found it of great value in two specific areas. First, it greatly enhanced my confidence, and second, as a history major, and as a history teacher, the experience of visiting the "real thing" brought history alive for me."

"It was an excellent program. Aside from giving us much needed teaching experience, it allowed one to see education and life in a somewhat different culture, something which I often look back on and appreciate as an "older teacher."

"I think the students who have attended Harlow are a little more receptive to new ideas, a little more resourceful, and much wiser as a result of that experience."

"It was my first trip abroad. It introduced me to a new culture. It helped me realize how much I love to travel, meet new people, exchange ideas and return to the classroom with first-hand knowledge."

"I found the Harlow program beneficial in giving me insights to other approaches to education and teaching. I was made more aware of meeting individual needs than I had been prior to the program."

"I had less fear of trying something on my own - less fear of failure."

"Harlow was one of the best experiences of my university career."

Program Strengths

Students were asked to indicate what aspects of the program in England they liked best. Six of the respondents highlighted professional issues as program strengths. The following two comments are indicative of those replies:

"Seeing education at work in another country - the non-use (absence) of prescribed texts and guidelines."

"The opportunity to view the English school system and to compare it with our own."

Three respondents noted cultural aspects of the program as its real strength. Typical of these was one student who cited the opportunity of ". . . meeting and mixing with people of a different culture" as the greatest strength of the experience.

Professional and personal growth suggested by the foregoing comments are obvious expectations of cross-cultural programs. Beyond these two outcomes it is interesting to note that two of the respondents suggested the strength of the program lay in the opportunity to ". . . get to know more about people from our own culture." In other words the opportunity to live in a residence in a 'different' culture resulted not only in an appreciation of that culture, but also in a reanalysis of one's own.

Program Weaknesses

The one consistent criticism forthcoming from the group was that the one-month experience in England was not long enough to allow students to assimilate the facets of life in the school system and in the country generally. As one student put it "It was too short a time to get maximum benefits from the program."

Another stated "At the time the length of stay was not long enough to really get into the school system. . . I didn't feel I had enough opportunity to teach."

The students had identified this point as a major weakness during the assessment conducted in 1972 and, it is interesting to note, some thirteen years hence they still feel their experiences were all too brief. This feature of the program has since been changed in that students now spend a full thirteen week semester in England.

Several of the students suggested that a greater variety of experiences in the school system would have been appropriate. They pointed to the desirability of visiting other classes and other schools in addition to their formal assignment.

It is interesting that three of the respondents did not find anything undesirable about the program. Indicative of their comments was the expression from the student who said - "All experiences were good."

Professional Outcomes

While there may be some inherent flaws in the notion of 'transplanting' educational techniques and practices from one cultural setting to another, it is

nevertheless, a desirable outcome of cross-cultural student teaching programs that students become exposed to new practices and procedures and that some of those hold the possibility for adaptation upon return home.

In order to ascertain whether such a transfer had subsequently taken place, those students who had taught since completion of the program in England were asked what specific school and/or classroom practices, activities or programs they had adopted as a result of the British experiences.

Five of the respondents indicated that as a result of the Harlow experience they had individualized their classroom programs. One student said:

"I set up individualized reading programs with students. The Harlow experience gave me the confidence to branch out and use trade books as reading materials in the classroom."

Another commented:

"The individualization of the English system has helped me a lot especially in view of the fact that I teach T.M.R. children who require individualized educational programs."

One student indicated she had developed classroom learning centers and ". . . used ideas for planning for individual learning activities and for meeting individual needs."

Other students pointed to additional educational benefits. For example, a physical education student said he had adopted ". . . many practices for gymnastics, soccer, and track and field programs."

Another student said that when discussing people of other cultures, "I often used England. I was able to bring to class pictures, articles, money and various items from the country. Visits to the Tower of London, Stratford, Buckingham Palace, etc., were extremely beneficial."

Three students indicated they had not adopted any classroom practices that would have resulted from the Harlow experience.

Students were asked to comment on what practices they deemed worthwhile in England but which could not be implemented in their Newfoundland classroom situation. From the responses one theme emerged. Most comments focused on the relative degree of autonomy available to teachers in the English system as compared with the Newfoundland system. This theme is reflected in the following comments:

"You cannot individualize programs as much here (Newfoundland) as in Harlow as the curriculum here is more specific and binding."

Another said that in Harlow ". . . there was more freedom available to individual teachers with regard to the curriculum."

One primary teacher indicated ". . . so many outdoor activities would be impossible to implement in Newfoundland because of weather and because they would require changes in attitude."

Four students did not respond to this question. One student, however, said, "I would not operate my classroom in any way like the English system." Unfortunately the student did not elaborate on this comment, however, this same student in response to another question stated, "I now realize how lucky we are in St. John's to have such a good educational system."

Personal Outcomes

Many writers suggest that one of the most significant outcomes of cross-cultural study programs is the growth in self-confidence and poise on the part of students who participate. To a great extent Harlow graduates bear out the truth of this statement. Students were asked to indicate how their personal lives had been affected by the experience in England. The following comments tell their own story.

One participant who is now a retail store owner said "The program gave me confidence to go out and seek opportunities for myself as well as to assist others."

This development of self-confidence was voiced by others:

"The biggest effect was the gain in self-confidence which resulted from an experience so different from what was familiar. I felt ready to face new situations."

"My self-confidence was greatly enhanced".

The program also affected attitudes toward travel. While all students have subsequently travelled, some quite extensively, many students made specific comments about the impact of this aspect of the program on their lives:

"I feel travelling and seeing how other people live is a positive experience.""

"I realized how much I love to travel and meet new people."

Conclusion

Evaluations of cross-cultural programs must, of course, be conducted against the backdrop of purposes for which those programs are initially established. Two broad purposes undergird the Harlow experience. First, the overarching aim of the program is the development of the professional competence of the prospective teacher. Students are, first and foremost, engaged in an undergraduate student teaching practicum. The development of professional competence is a prime concern. The Harlow program seems to go a long way toward meeting this objective. Almost all of the participants felt the British experience had an impact on their professional lives. All of the students who subsequently taught indicated that the experience in England was

either "of great value" or "of some value" to them when they began teaching in their own classrooms in Newfoundland.

The second aim of the program is the enhancement of the personal development of the students involved. The challenge of a cross-cultural assignment and the attendant multifarious demands to be met, should, if channeled wisely, uncover latent potential, develop self-confidence and hone the life skills of students who participate. This aim of personal growth, of course, facilitates the development of and may be requisite to professional competence, but it goes beyond the scope of that particular aim.

In terms of the impact on personal development, it appears that there were three main effects. First, participants cited enhanced levels of self-confidence as one important outcome of the program. A second, beneficial outcome of the program was the development of close personal friendships with people in England. Many cited deep appreciation for the way they had been welcomed to and assisted in the school system in Harlow. Finally, it seems that this early travel experience, the first for many of these students, whetted their appetite and spurred additional travel in the ensuing years.

The findings reported here represent only the initial examination of the British-based cross-cultural student teaching program. A more comprehensive analysis currently being conducted should illuminate other significant aspects of this particular program.

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STUDENT TEACHING - APPRENTICE OR INTERN

James R. Covert
Educational Foundations

Introduction

The student teaching component of the teacher education program is an interesting example of the theory practice relationship. The object of this experiential part of the program is put into practice those understandings that have been developed as a result of learning pedagogical methods and techniques in education classes.' There have been attempts to professionalize the teacher education program by extending the student teaching component and calling it a practicum or an internship thereby more closely emulating the traditional professions. This trend towards a longer practicum has been prevalent for several years prompting Richards and Thiessen (1978) to note that:

There has been a national trend towards longer periods of student teaching resulting in the so-called internship which may be up to sixteen weeks in length. The rationale for such a trend has been well documented and is accepted by almost all institutions. (p. 63)

However the professionalization process also requires the internalization of a strong theoretical perspective so institutions of teacher education are caught in a theory practice dilemma which often leads to an extension of the total program. Allen (1976) puts the problem this way.

Unless total time is increased, extra time in schools will reduce time on campus and consequently reduce the amount of course work that many professors and teachers consider essential. (p. 47)

Teachers patterning themselves after the traditional professions have an additional problem to overcome. In order to be considered a professional teacher it is necessary to possess a theoretical understanding of the subject to be taught as well as a sound theoretical grounding in pedagogy. In addition to being technically competent in the discipline, it is necessary to have the pedagogical skills to get this information across to others.

The Theory Practice Relationship of Interns and Apprenticeships

There are different kinds of practical experiences associated with different kinds of occupational training. It is difficult to conceive of an educational program that would claim that no theory was necessary in order to achieve excellence in their particular occupational field. But it is quite clear that different occupational groupings have different theory and practice requirements. For example in vocational programs often the bulk of the learning comes from on-the-job training which provides experiential learning rather than extensive theoretical courses. This kind of vocational training leads directly to employment and can be measured by the number of graduates that are successfully employed. Teachers rightfully carry the expectation of being employed but few educators claim that teachers can be adequately prepared by on-the-job-training.

An apprenticeship is generally associated with arts and crafts or with learning a trade such as an electrician or a plumber. Aspirants learning crafts and trades typically undergo years of closely supervised practical experience because learning comes mainly from experience where trial and error leads to an adequate understanding of the manipulation of things. An apprenticeship program is long and arduous because there is an attempt to provide a complete array of practical experiences enabling the apprentice to encounter all of the problems that might occur during the coming career. Rex (1968) makes the point this way:

An apprentice can learn all he needs to know about his chosen trade or craft by spending an appropriate amount of time progressing through the various stages of "how to do" the job. Through this experience he ultimately moves from the position of novice to the position of craftsman. Apprenticeship is, therefore, an appropriate means for training in the semiskilled and skilled trades. It is not an appropriate method for training professionals. (p. 11)

Using this apprenticeship model for teachers presents several practical problems regarding time, money and supervision because teaching is such a large occupation. However a moral concern is even more important because teaching involves practicing on children rather than clay pots or kitchen sinks. An apprenticeship program seems impractical for teachers because it does not develop the theoretical component adequately nor does it provide the predispositions to act towards humans rather than things.

The teaching situation is closer to that of a professional who has to diagnose, evaluate, prescribe, and reevaluate in order to properly treat the client. However, while doctors can send their patients home to mend or die, the teachers clients return day after day to receive further treatment. Teachers stalled at the craft level have little hope of becoming more professional by perfecting mere skills and techniques through an apprenticeship. Housam et al. (1976) make the point this way:

Though teachers often may not be as aware of their role and its significance as they might be, they are involved in continuous decision making. Every moment has its uniqueness; every situation is in some ways different from every other. There is no index of craft-like answers available in a professional cookbook or manual. Teachers must draw upon what they have in professional insights and intervention strategies in order to decide how to help children learn. (p. 11)

It is ironic that teachers often lament this situation claiming that there are no agreed upon standard methods or techniques for dealing with specific situations, when this is one of their basic claims to professional status.

Professionals generally argue that it is not possible for them to learn from an apprenticeship because they deal with the human condition and therefore can never experience all of the complex combinations that might arise in their treatment of even one individual case. Professionals must be able to diagnose the human situation by the application of theoretical understandings which can not come from practical experience alone. Therefore professionals utilize a shorter, more highly structured period of practical experience and insist on a long theoretical program which will provide them

with diagnostic skills enabling them to more accurately solve the varied human situations.

If the traditional professional model emphasizing the enlarged theoretical component as well as a structured practical experience is appropriate for teachers, then teacher education should seriously consider the internship program as proposed by Rex (1968).

. . . the intern, who aspires to ultimate professional practice, must have accumulated a body of substantive knowledge, must have acquired specific skills, and must have developed at least a degree of technique before he is even considered eligible to function in the internship. There is, in effect, an identifiable plan to function in the internship. There is, in effect, an identifiable plan and period of preparation for an internship. (p. 18)

Housam et al. (1976) concurs with this position and underlines the theoretical component of teacher education this way.

Professions cannot exist without an undergirding science. To fail to develop principles, concepts, and theories, and to validate practice is to restrict the occupation to the level of a craft.

The undergirding disciplines of teaching are relatively easy to identify; psychology, sociology, anthropology, and philosophy are most central. (p. 11)

Therefore, it seems as though the professionalization of teachers needs to have a strong theoretical component and a level of technical competence even before embarking on an internship. It should be noted that Medicine and Law require a high level of competence and the conclusion of the major part of their program before taking an internship. Medical internships and Legal articling are undertaken by certified professionals for pay.

In addition to these rather basic concerns there is the question of how long it takes to socialize a person from the role of a student to that of a teacher. As was indicated above, trades and crafts often require a lengthy period of apprenticeship to take on the mantle of their chosen occupation. Doctors and lawyers have cut the academic portion down to three years of concentrated study in some instances, but when the internship is considered, a four or five year program is commonly needed to socialize a student into being a professional. Of the four traditional professions only the military has managed to shorten its period of socialization to approximate that of a teacher. Perhaps many student teachers see their practicum as similar to the boot-camp experience of the armed forces.

Professional Socialization

In discussing both the theory-practice relationship and the socialization aspects of teacher education it is necessary to consider what constitutes an appropriate goal for teachers. If it is suggested that teachers should behave in a professional manner then there must be some intent to differentiate professional behavior from that of the

other occupational groupings. In addition to a prolonged period of theoretical preparation and a structured practical experience, professionals traditionally claim to have a strong commitment to their clients that demonstrates that their service should be performed for the benefit of the client. Quite clearly, teachers are engaged in performing many technical functions in an endeavor to promote learning in their students. However, in addition to this, professional teachers are expected to act in a manner that exhibits that they care about the welfare of their students. To the extent that teachers are able to convey this notion of professional commitment they will be successful in making a vital distinction between a craft and a profession. Therefore it is claimed that the motivations and attitudes needed to behave professionally are of equal importance to the development of sound teaching methods and techniques, and that these predispositions to act professionally must be developed in the preparation of teachers through their academic preparation as well as their experiential activities.

Teachers and the teacher education programs in Canadian institutions have taken on a huge task in the professionalization of teachers. Student teachers must understand the theoretical underpinnings of educational practice and they must develop pedagogical skills and techniques that will transform their knowledge into information that can be readily understood by students much younger than themselves. In addition they must acquire the attitudes and values of service that will sustain them in the pursuit of a professional career. The questions of the length of the practice teaching component of the education program looms very large given these considerations. Furthermore the ability of the practicum to foster professional attitudes and values should be as important as the concern of perfecting methods and techniques. While the mastery of content material and the pedagogical methods and techniques must be pursued, it is essential that the development of professional predispositions to act on the best interests of the student be encouraged by educators in Universities and in the Schools. Teachers and professors need to recognize this and modify the practicum accordingly. Perhaps an internship ought to take the place of the current probationary period with master teachers hired to oversee this crucial transition stage.

Conclusion

From the above it can be seen that teachers represent an interesting occupational example of the theory practice relationship. They claim professional status even though the ratio of time spent gaining practical and theoretical experience is closer to that of a work-study program than either a professional internship or craftsperson apprenticeship. This is an unfortunate situation because teachers are required to combine a high level of technical competence with the strong professional commitment that is typically associated professional who undergo a much more extensive training program. Therefore it seems quite likely that there will be an extension of the teacher education program in the near future. Undoubtedly the current student teaching block will be replaced by a longer practicum, hopefully consisting of an early experience, a clinical experience, and a true internship. Practicing teachers need to be much more involved in all stages in order to insure that the program graduates competent practioners who will have an adequate understanding of what it means to be a career professional.

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FOOTNOTE

1. It should be made clear that I believe that there is no distinction between theory and practice and that the separation made here is for purposes of illustration and a reflection of how the terms are used in everyday language.

FIRST YEAR PERFORMANCE OF RECENT HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES IN THE CHEMISTRY PROGRAM AT MUN

Peter Fisher
Chemistry Department
and
Institute for Educational Research and Development
Memorial University of Newfoundland

Changes at the High-School Level

The revised high-school program was introduced in Newfoundland and Labrador in 1982 following a number of years of intensive curriculum planning. At the same time, the high-school chemistry program was itself substantially altered. Throughout the previous decade this program had followed a Chem-Study approach which de-emphasized the descriptive aspects of the subject while concentrating upon somewhat abstract, mathematical concepts. The result of this emphasis was an erosion in the number of high-school students studying chemistry, which came to be perceived as a particularly difficult subject for all but the most able. The new high-school curriculum is substantially more descriptive and less mathematical. It is designed to be within the capabilities of the average student, while at the same time, through the inclusion of a number of elective areas, to provide a challenge to the academically more able student.

The immediate effect of the new chemistry curriculum has been to produce a dramatic increase in the number of high-schools offering, and students studying, the subject (Table 1). In fact, even though overall enrolment in science courses has increased since the introduction of the revised high-school program, the percentage increase in enrolment in the two new chemistry courses has been substantially greater than that in all other science areas combined. There is still room, however, for further significant growth. Less than half of the high-schools offer chemistry at even the 2202 level, and fewer than 40% of eligible students in any particular Grade study the subject at all.

Changes in the First-Year Chemistry Program

The introduction of both the revised high-school program, and the new chemistry curriculum, had a number of implications for first-year chemistry studies at the University.

1. Since more students were now taking chemistry as part of their high-school program, it would be expected that demand would begin to fall for the courses (100F and 150AB) which were designed primarily for those with no high-school experience of the subject.
2. Since students were now one year older and, it was hoped, more mature, it would be reasonable to expect that they, rather than the Chemistry Department, should decide whether they needed to enrol in the Foundation course (100F) if they had not done well in their high-school chemistry courses.

Table 1

High-School Chemistry Enrolments 1982/83 to 1984/85†				
Course	82/83	83/84	84/85	% Increase 82/83 to 84/85
Number of SCHOOLS Offering Chemistry Courses				
Chem 2202 Chem 3202	6023	8962	9571	58%
Number of STUDENTS Studying Chemistry				
Chem 2202 Chem 3202	2021 517*	2970 1606	3702 1841	83%
† Source: Government of Newfoundland and Labrador, Department of Education. * Introductory pilot year - some schools still offered Chem Study course.				

3. The new chemistry program would produce high-school graduates who had been exposed to a less mathematical approach to chemistry than was the case in the past.
4. Certain areas of chemistry which had been covered in the past were not now included in the new high-school course.
5. Certain areas of chemistry were now elective.

In response to these implications, and in response to budgetary restraints within the University, a number of changes in the first-year program were introduced in the Fall of 1984.

1. The Chemistry 100F Foundation course was made optional for students who had completed two years of high-school chemistry, irrespective of their performance in the two courses. At the same time, students who had achieved a mark of less than 70% in the high-school Chemistry 3202 course were advised that they should seriously consider registering for Chemistry 100F. (Previously, students who had achieved less than 70% in their high-school chemistry course had been required to register for Chemistry 100F).
2. The Chemistry 1000 course, which had for some time been felt to be somewhat too long, was shortened. By this means additional time was provided for review of certain basic chemical concepts and computations with which those completing the new high-school program would now be less familiar. Three changes were made to the course to achieve this shortening:
 - a. Students were made responsible for some areas of simple review material which had previously been covered in the Chemistry 1000 course.

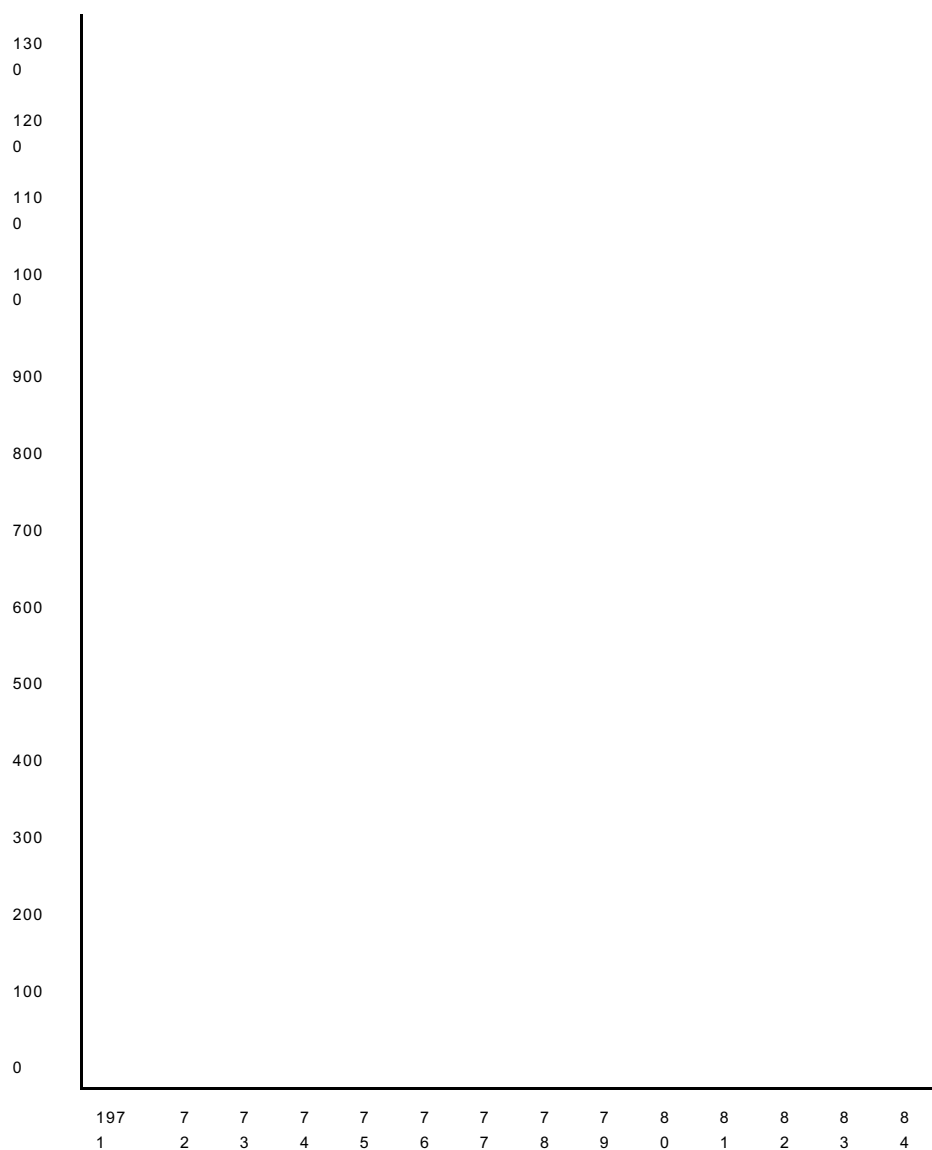
- b. The topic of nuclear chemistry, one of the options in the high-school course, was removed from the Chemistry 1000 course.
 - c. Some rearrangement of topics between Chemistry 1000 and Chemistry 1001 was made.
3. Students who had completed the honours mathematics program in high-school were grouped together in an attempt to provide some streaming of Chemistry 1000 students.
4. The practice of dropping one or more courses at some point during the semester has become widespread within the University. Since the facilities available for Chemistry courses had become stretched to capacity, students were told that the opportunity to register for Chemistry 1000 would not be available in the following semester to those who dropped or failed the course.
5. In view of the fact that, for budgetary reasons, sufficient facilities were not available to accommodate all first-year chemistry students adequately, it was reluctantly decided that the size of classes in the Chemistry 1000 course would be increased from an average of 40 to an average of 80 to 84.
6. For the same budgetary reasons, some 200 Chemistry 1000 students had to take their laboratory class from 7:00 p.m. to 10:00 p.m. at night.

Overall Effect of Changes

With so many changes occurring at the same time, the precise effect of many of them must remain a matter of conjecture. There were, however, some clear results of certain of the changes.

Figure 1 Fall Semester Enrolment in First-Year Chemistry

That enrolment in first-year chemistry courses at the University has been increasing for some years, except for 1983 when there were no graduating high-school students, is clear from Figure 1. At the same time, of course, overall first-year enrolment has been climbing. However, the rate of increase in chemistry enrolment has been greater than that in overall first-year student numbers. In fact the proportion of new first-year students registering for a chemistry course increased from 38.5% to 42.5% between 1982 to 1984; the number of new students who registered for a first-year chemistry course increased by 17% over the two-year period. The extent to which this increase has been caused by the increase in interest in chemistry at the high-school level is uncertain. It should be noted that the relatively modest increase in total enrolment between 1982 and 1984 is misleading since the number of senior students registering in 1984 was sharply curtailed as a result of the lack of high-school graduates in 1983. Had the number of senior students remained at the 1982 level, the total potential first-year enrolment in the Fall of 1984 would have reached almost 1400, exceeding by almost 200 the maximum number which the Chemistry Department could have accommodated.



The effect on enrolment patterns of the decision to make the Foundation course optional for those who had completed two years of highschool chemistry can be seen in the data contained in Table 2. The proportion of first-year chemistry students registering for the Foundation course dropped from 32% to 20% between 1982 and 1984, while registration for Chemistry 1000 showed a corresponding increase. At the same time, the proportion registering for the 150AB course, which is restricted to students who have not taken a two year chemistry course, but who have highschool averages of over 75%, remained constant over the same period. Clearly the increase

in the number of schools offering the new chemistry course is as yet too small to have a noticeable effect on enrolment demands for this course.

The decision to make enrolment in the Foundation course optional also certainly improved the morale and level of interest in the Foundation classes. At the same time, there can be no doubt that some students who chose to enter the Chemistry 1000 course directly were unable to cope, and subsequently dropped the course.

The restructuring of the Chemistry 1000 course did provide sufficient time for the material to be covered in a manner appropriate to the average student. The attempt at streaming, however, had mixed results. While the proportion of 'A' and 'B' grades was higher than average among the students who were separated out, there were a number of students who were unable to keep up with the increased pace which was demanded. Clearly, successful completion of the honours mathematics course was not a perfect predictor.

The lack of opportunity to repeat the Chemistry 1000 course would appear to have had some effect in cutting the drop-out rate from the very high level that it had reached in 1982 and 1983. Some 20% of the original enrollment in Chemistry 1000 dropped from the course during the semester (see Table 5), a very high proportion, but nonetheless substantially lower than that which had become the norm over the previous two years.

Table 2

**Proportion of Students Registering
in Each First-Year Chemistry Course**

Fall Semester	100F	1000	150 A/B
1981	28%	52%	20%
1982	32%	49%	19%
1983†	35%	52%	13%
1984	20%	59%	21%
† No high school graduates this year			

The effect of the two last changes in the first-year chemistry program is uncertain, although it is hardly likely that a doubling of class size was in any way beneficial, particularly to any student who was experiencing difficulty.

First Semester Performance in General

Table 3 contains information related to the initial enrolments and overall success rates in all first-year chemistry courses taken together for each of the last ten years.

An inspection of the Table shows that two very obvious trends occurred from 1981 through to 1983, coincident with rapidly expanding enrolment. In the first place, the drop-out rate rose dramatically from around 10% of initial enrolment to around 20%,

while in the second place the overall success rate, which had remained steady at almost 70% for some years, began to drop off. Both of these trends were reversed in the Fall semester of 1984. Even though initial enrolment remained high, the drop-out rate fell to 14%, while overall, almost 70% of those initially registering for a first-year chemistry course achieved a passing grade. This reversal in drop-out and success rates was not, however, due to an improvement in the performance of the 1984 intake of students; rather, as will be seen below, it can be attributed to the absence of large numbers of students from earlier years who generally perform less well than recent high-school graduates. Most of these senior students had taken their chemistry courses during the 1983-1984 academic year.

Table 3

**Enrolments and Success Rates in First-Year Chemistry
1975 to 1984 Fall Semester**

Year	Initial Enrolment	# Drop	% Drop	Percentage					% Success
				A	B	C	D	F	
1975	700	115	16%	2	35%	18	11	16	70%
1976	755	70	9%	1	29%	%	%	%	69%
1977	720	76	11%	1	25%	%	%	%	69%
1978	680	54	8%	4	25%	25	9%	23	70%
1979	905	75	8%	1	30%	%	11	%	69%
1980	995	130	13%	1	28%	25	%	22	66%
1981	1240	246	20%	3	29%	%	9%	%	61%
1982	597	126	21%	%	24%	22	10	24	57%
1983	1225	175	14%	1	29%	%	%	%	69%
1984			20%	6	%	22	12	25	
1985			21%	1	%	22	10	24	
1986			14%	9	%	%	%	%	
1987			14%	%	%	23	12	24	
1988			14%	1	%	%	%	%	
1989			14%	4	%	23	10	27	
1990			14%	%	%	%	%	%	
1991			14%	1	%	23		20	
1992			14%	4	%	%		%	
1993			14%	1	%				
1994			14%	3	%				
1995			14%	1	%				
1996			14%	4	%				
1997			14%	1	%				
1998			14%	8	%				
1999			14%	8	%				

† No high-school graduates this year

First Semester Performance in Chemistry 1000

Since admission to Chemistry 1000 is restricted to those students who have completed two years of chemistry in high-school, the results for this course in particular should best reflect the effects of the change to the new chemistry program. In the Fall of 1984, 87% of the students registered for Chemistry 1000 had recently graduated from high-school, and almost all of these had completed the new chemistry program.

Figure 2 shows the distribution of marks achieved by those students who had completed the high-school Chemistry 3202 course. It should be noted that if

assignment to Chemistry 100F been made on the basis of the 3202 mark, 120 students who scored less than 70% would not have been able to register for Chemistry 1000.

During the first week of the semester all students registered in the Chemistry 1000 course were given a review test so as to determine whether any particular areas of weakness existed. Since this had not been the practice in the past, no comparisons can be drawn with earlier years. However, only 60% of the students scored more than 50% on this test. The mean score was 53%. Table 4 shows how scores on the review test were related to students' Chemistry 3202 marks. Three-quarters of those who achieved less than 70% in Chemistry 3203 failed to score 50% on the review test. One-third of the remainder also failed.

Mark Frequency (one # equals four students)

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50 to 59%      *****
60 to 69%      *****
70 to 79%      *****
80 to 89%      *****
90 to 100%     *****
  
```

Figure 2 Distribution of Chemistry 3202 Marks for Students Registered in Chemistry 1000 Fall 1984

Table 4

**Correlation of Chemistry 3202 Mark and Review Test Mark
(Chemistry 1000 Students Fall 1984)**

3202 %	Review Text (marked out of 30)										
	0	1	4	7	10- 12	13- 15	16- 18	19- 21	22- 24	25- 27	28- 30
50- 59	2		1	4	5	8	3				
60- 69	2		1	9	17	30	25	4			
70- 79	3		2	9	24	31	39	16	9	2	
80- 89	4			1	14	35	48	40	17	7	
90- 100	2				2	3	11	18	17	7	5

Clearly the results of the review test were disquieting even though most students had very little time to prepare, and one or two questions were related to material which is not now part of the core of the new highschool chemistry course. At the same time there was a high degree of correlation between the results and the Chemistry 3202 marks. One interesting consequence of the test was that students did subsequently

seem more motivated to undertake the review of the basic material for which they were responsible.

Table 5 gives details of the final results and overall success rate for chemistry 1000 for the Fall Semester of 1984. Results from previous years have been included for comparison purposes. As has been mentioned above, the proportion of students who dropped out was reduced to 20% of the initial enrolment. While still a very high number, this does represent a marked decline from the drop-out rates of 1982 and 1983. The overall pass and success rates in the course also compare favourably with those from earlier years, the latter, in fact, approaching success rates when enrolment was at a lower level.

These results, however, include all students registered in the course, irrespective of their year of entry to Memorial. A more accurate picture of the relative performance of those students

Table 5

**Chemistry 1000 Enrolments and Success Rates
1974-1984 (Fall Semester)**

Fal l	Initi al Enr ol	Dro p	%Dr op	A	B	C	D	F	% Pa ss	% Succe ss
74	447	77	17%	18	28	23	10	20	80	66%
75	240	35	15%	%	%	%	%	%	%	78%
‡	296	59	20%	31	40	14	7	8	92	63%
76	274	35	13%	%	%	%	%	%	%	71%
77	324	20	7%	19	33	16	11	22	78	83%
78	354	23	6%	%	%	%	%	%	%	75%
79	429	56	13%	17	28	26	11	19	81	76%
80	530	104	20%	%	%	%	%	%	%	65%
81	622	172	28%	21	32	26	10	11	89	55%
82	244	74	30%	%	%	%	%	%	%	46%
83	702	115	20%	25	27	21	7	20	80	72%
†				%	%	%	%	%	%	
84				20	37	21	9	13	87	
				%	%	%	%	%	%	
				16	30	21	13	20	81	
				%	%	%	%	%	%	
				15	27	22	12	24	76	
				%	%	%	%	%	%	
				15	21	25	15	23	77	
				%	%	%	%	%	%	
				19	30	27	10	14	86	
				%	%	%	%	%	%	

‡ 150A/B introduced
† No High-school graduates this year

Table 6

**Chemistry 1000 Success Rates
(Recent High-School Graduates Only)**

Fa ll	Initia l Enro l	Dro p	%Dro p	Pass 1000	Fail 1000	% Pass	% Succe ss
79	253	0†	0%†	236	33	88%	88%
80	294	0†	0%†	280	23	92%	92%
81	376	20	5%	303	53	85%	81%

82	389	21	5%	288	80	78%	74%
83	No recent high-school graduates						
84	599	91	15%	449	59	88%	75%
† Late adds outnumbered drops							

who entered the University in 1984 can be obtained by comparing them with recent high-school graduates (new Memorial admissions) from previous years. Table 6 shows the result of such a comparison for the years 1979 to 1984. On this basis, the performance of the 1984 entry looks less good.

Clearly recent high-school graduates have not been the source of drop-out from Chemistry 1000 in the past. In fact, for the 1979-1980 and 1980-1981 academic years the few students who may have dropped the course were outnumbered by those who added late. A drop-out rate of 15% among recent high-school graduates in 1984-1985 must be regarded against this backdrop as alarmingly high. No doubt this can be attributed in part to the decision to make entry to the Foundation course optional for students who had completed a two year high-school chemistry course, irrespective of their performance. Many of those who decided to enter directly into Chemistry 1000 were not, in fact, able to cope with the academic level of the course.

Table 6 also shows that 88% of those who remained registered in the course succeeded in obtaining a credit. This pass rate compares favourably with earlier years. In fact, as Table 7 shows, the net result of the increased enrolment in Chemistry 1000 was that, despite the high dropout, a higher proportion of students who had recently graduated from high-school succeeded in obtaining a first-year chemistry credit at Christmas than had been the case in the past.

The average mark in the Chemistry 1000 course was 63%, substantially higher than that in the review test which was given at the start of the semester, but, at the same time, much lower than the average mark reported for the highschool 3202 course. Despite the difference in means, however, the marks which students obtained at the end of the Chemistry 1000 course correlated very highly with both the review test and with the 3202 mark. Table 8 shows how students' final Chemistry 1000 marks were related to their marks in 3202.

Table 7

**Proportion of Initial Chemistry Enrolment Gaining
Chemistry 1000 Credit at the End of the Fall Semester
(Recent High-School Graduates Only)**

Fall	Initial 100F + 1000 Enrolment	Pass 1000	% Gaining Credit
79	524	236	45%

St. John's	8%	92%	30%	35%	24%	5%	7%
Large	15%	85%	9%	23%	31%	18%	15%
Center	22%	78%	13%	33%	27%	11%	16%
Rural							
Center							

of the material contained in the Chemistry 1001 course is mathematical in nature, and would have been difficult for weaker students to grasp. In addition, most of the material covered in Chemistry 1001 was covered in an elementary manner in the old ChemStudy highschool course, but is now treated much less rigorously; students with two years of high-school chemistry who took Chemistry 1001 in the past found this course relatively easy because they were already familiar with many of the concepts.

The overall performance of the 1984 intake of recent high-school graduates in Chemistry 1000 and Chemistry 1001 is summarized in Table II. The effect of the lower pass rates for Chemistry 1001 can be seen reflected in the overall success rate. After two semesters, 52% of the original intake into Chemistry 1000 succeeded in obtaining two credits. This is a markedly lower rate than in previous years.

The performance of academically more able students during the 1984-1985 academic year was, in contrast, very similar to that of similar students in the past. Although it would appear from Table 10 that the proportion of students gaining an 'A' or 'B' grade in Chemistry 1001 was reduced from previous years, it should be remembered that a much higher number of students registered for this course in Winter 1985. In fact the actual number of 'A' and 'B' grades in Chemistry 1001 was little different, as a proportion of the number of recent high-school graduates registering in the registering in the Fall for first-year chemistry courses, from earlier years; initial enrolment of new students rose by 17% in 1984, while the number of 'A' and 'B' grades in Chemistry 1001 rose by 14%.

Table 12 shows the total number of students gaining two first-year credits at the end of the second semester as a proportion of the original total intake in the Fall. Quite clearly, the success rate measured for both the 1981-1982 and 1982-1983 academic years. As has already been indicated, the relatively small number of senior students who registered in first-year courses during 1984-1985 would have been expected to produce a somewhat higher proportion of students gaining two credits. On a numerical basis, the large number of additional entries into Chemistry 1,000 in the Fall of 1984, which resulted from the optional nature of the Chemistry 100F course, produced no more students gaining two credits at the end of the year than was the case when entry to Chemistry 1000 was restricted.

Table 10

**Chemistry 1001 Results Winter Semester
(Recent High-School Graduates Only)**

Winter	A	B	C	D	F	% Pass	N
79/80	47%	34%	12%	4%	2%	98%	218
80/81	37%	33%	20%	6%	4%	96%	240
81/82	33%	33%	18%	9%	6%	94%	274
82/83	34%	37%	17%	6%	5%	95%	264
83/84	16%	27%	25%	12%	20%	80%	143
84/85	28%	26%	15%	10%	22%	78%	397
† All students – no recent graduates							

Table 11

**Overall Performance in Chemistry 1000 and 1001
(Recent High-School Graduates Only)**

Year	Initial Enrollment	Drop 100	Pass 100	% Pass 100	Drop 1001	Pass 1001	Fail 1001	% Pass 1001	Overall % Success
1979-80	253	0	236	88%	18	213	5	98%	84%
1980-81	294	0	280	92%	40	231	9	96%	79%
1981-82	376	20	303	85%	29	257	17	94%	68%
1982-83	389	21	288	78%	24	252	12	95%	65%
1983-84	No recent high-school graduates								
1984-85	599	91	449	88%	52	311	86	78%	52%

Conclusions

Assessment of the many changes which have been made, for both pedagogical and fiscal reasons, to the high-school structure, the highschool chemistry program and the University first-year chemistry program will take some time. Both the registration pattern and the success pattern of the 1984 intake of recent high-school graduates differed markedly from those of the past. At the same time, however, the proportion of students who gained two credits at the end of two semesters, and the final distribution of grades, was little different from that observed in 1981-1982 and 1982-1983. Many weaker students who opted to register for Chemistry 1000 in the Fall semester were unable to gain two credits by the end of their second semester. More students were able to achieve 'A' and 'B' grades in Chemistry 1001 than in 1982-1983, indicating that the additional number of students who registered for chemistry courses at the University included all ability groups.

Table 12

Proportion of Original Enrolment Gaining Two Chemistry Credits at the End of-Two Semesters

Year	Initial Enrol	Number Gaining Two Credits	% Gaining Two Credits
1979-80	619	311	50%
1980-81	815	355	44%
1981-82	934	387	41%
1982-83	1169	479	41%
1983-84	465	154	33%
1984-85	1190	491	41%

In all likelihood the proportion of the total first-year intake wishing to register for a chemistry course will continue to grow. Clearly, many of the students who complete the 3202 course, particularly those with grades below 75%, would be well advised to enrol in the Foundation course before attempting Chemistry 1000. Since this Foundation course will carry credit as an elective as of the Fall semester 1985, the enrolment pattern might well be expected to shift again in this direction. There are serious implications for the Chemistry Department, whose resources have already been stretched to the limit to accommodate current enrolment, if an increasing number of students, many of whom require three first-year courses in order to succeed in gaining credit at the Chemistry 1001 level, expect to be able to register for first-year chemistry at the University.

STUDENTS' VIEWS ON THE AVAILABILITY OF HELP FROM THEIR TEACHERS'

**Ishmael J. Baksh
Wilfred B.W. Martin
Department of Educational Foundations**

An examination of the comments from almost seventeen thousand high school students on their schooling experiences in Atlantic Canada reveals that one of their major concerns relates to the extent they perceive their teachers to be providing help to students who need assistance with their academic work. Given this concern among high school students, this paper draws attention to their observations regarding the demand for extra individual help in the school and teachers' responses to their requests for assistance.

Provision of Extra Individual Help

There can be little doubt that from the perspective of numerous respondents the provision of individual assistance to students is a vital responsibility of the teacher. It is unrealistic, in the eyes of a Grade 10 New Brunswick girl, for teachers to "expect every student to understand as well or as quick as other students do", and teachers have an obligation to "supply extra help" where it is needed. The absence of appropriate individual help might result in students' not understanding the material being taught. Such a view is expressed by, among others, a Grade 9 Nova Scotia boy who suggests that with teachers "helping students individually this would make it easier for the students to understand the work". A Grade 12 Nova Scotia girl believes that slower pupils need individual assistance "and if they aren't helped then they will just continually lose interest and will grow to hate school". The lack of individual help for students might actually result in pupil failure, the view communicated by a Grade 11 Nova Scotia girl who notes that without such assistance a student who has , problems with his/her studies "is in trouble" and by a Grade 12 girl from the same province who is convinced that she failed her Grade 11 examinations in Mathematics because she "had no understanding of the work and when asked of him [the teacher] for help he said no".

Indeed, the provision of individual help to students is regarded as a central element in good teaching:

I think our teachers should be more concerned about students who are having trouble. For instance if a student is having difficulty in one particular thing I think the teacher should be willing to help that student until he fully understands it. That should be one of the main part of their job.

(Grade 11 girl, Prince Edward Island)

Teachers are wrong if they decide to "look at their work as a job" (a Grade 10 Nova Scotia boy). It is far more than this, requiring a dedication to service which prompts them - as a Grade 9 Newfoundland girl puts it - even "to put down their coffee and help" during a break if students have problems with their work. It is inappropriate for teachers to tell students "to ask a friend for help, since they've been trained to teach, students haven't" (a Grade 11 girl in Prince Edward Island). In other words, they have

the primary responsibility for helping students. They should therefore "organize a system in which they can spend more time with students who feel they need extra help" (a Grade 10 Newfoundland girl), and students should be able to go to them "for extra help without getting the brush off".

It is interesting, in view of the importance apparently attached by respondents to receiving assistance of the type being discussed here, to examine students' perceptions of the extent to which teachers actually make such aid available. Numerous students in all four Atlantic provinces remark in very general terms that they find their teachers willing to give them help. In Newfoundland respondents note, for example: "The teachers in this school. . .will help in any way" (a Grade 9 boy); "The teachers try and help you with your problem if they can" (a Grade 9 girl); "The teachers. . . show me how to do the things I don't understand" (a Grade 11 boy), and "The teachers. . .try their best to help everyone understand" (a Grade 11 girl). Examples of similar comments made by students from the other Atlantic provinces are: "The teachers are always there to help you in your studies" (a Grade 9 Nova Scotia girl); "The teachers. . .are always there to help you and seldom complain if you require extra explanation on any aspect of the course" (a Grade 12 Nova Scotia boy); "They [teachers] try to help in any possible way if you will let them" (a Grade 11 New Brunswick boy); "The teachers try to help the students as much as possible" (a Grade 12 New Brunswick girl); "The school has a good organization and the teachers are helpful" (a Grade 11 Prince Edward Island boy), and "I feel that each teacher that I have had seemed to be concerned and willing to help" (a Grade 12 Prince Edward Island girl). The perspective of many students is perhaps captured by the following observations of a Grade 11 Newfoundland girl:

I think that as students we are very lucky to have such good teachers. They care about us as individuals. To them it is not another job, they seem to enjoy it too. If extra help is required they will help.

It must be acknowledged, however, that students vary greatly in their perceptions of teachers' willingness to provide individual assistance. A Grade 9 New Brunswick girl finds that "a lot" of the teachers in her school "really try and help pupils. Other respondents - for example, a Grade 9 Newfoundland girl who reports that "teachers don't always understand how to help a student", a Grade 12 Nova Scotia boy who claims that "some teachers get really worried when you don't understand something and insist on help you while others. . . just seem to let things pass by without a thought", and a Grade 11 girl in Prince Edward Island who believes that "some of the teachers are quite willing to help you but others just don't pay any attention" - imply that there are several teachers who are not disposed to render individual assistance.

The presence of exceptions - that is, of teachers who are seen as not willing to assist pupils with their specific difficulties - is hinted at as well in students' suggestions that teachers are "usually" helpful. Comments such as "The teachers usually try to help out the students as much as possible" (a Grade 11 Newfoundland girl), "The teachers are usually more than willing to help you" (a Grade 12 New Brunswick boy), and "The teachers. . . seem to understand the difficulties the students have and they usually try to help the students in any way they can" (a Grade 12 girl in Prince Edward Island) are typical of those made by students in that vein.

Other students openly concede that "most" or "the majority" of their teachers are willing to offer individual assistance:

Really to begin with the teachers are there to help. They have all experienced what we might call "the hard times in school". They (most of them any way) try to do as much for the students as the students really deserve.

(Grade 11 boy, Newfoundland)

It is my opinion that most teachers make a genuine effort to help any student who approaches them.

Many teachers show concern for those who seem troubled either academically or personally.

(Grade 12 girl, Nova Scotia)

I feel this is a very good and worthwhile school. Most of the teachers here make the effort to help out the students in class and out. I was in this school last year (when I was in Grade 10) and then transferred out for four months to a nearby school (private school). Now I have returned and I am very impressed with the efforts that most of the teachers have made to help me out in the process of catching up. I think this says a great amount for the teachers in this school because they were willing to make extra work sheets, and give up extra time to help me in my work.

(Grade 11 boy, New Brunswick)

Several students are sufficiently satisfied with their teachers to describe them "all" as being very helpful. For instance, two Grade 10 girls - one in Nova Scotia who believes "all" her teachers to be "great" since "they do all they can to help you" and the other, from New Brunswick, who is of the opinion that her teachers "all try to help in their certain ways" - are pleased with their teachers' attitude toward providing individual attention. A similar outlook is evident in the remarks of other students, among which are the following:

As far as the teachers go they are all quite willing to try and help you with any difficulties you may have if you ask them.

(Grade 12 girl, Nova Scotia)

The teachers here are all understanding, and helpful and informative in their subject areas. And I am sure if a personal problem arose I could easily go to any of my teachers for an understanding listener. Where there are so many students individual help must usually be sought out if needed but can always be found.

(Grade 11 girl, New Brunswick)

Respondents are particularly appreciative "when a teacher gives up his/her free time to help a student out" (the words of a Grade 10 Nova Scotia girl). Some teachers apparently make themselves accessible to students "outside the classroom at any time" (a Grade 10 Newfoundland girl). Others are reportedly available for consultation in their lunch break and/or after school:

I find most of the teachers I have are always willing to give extra help if you need it. If you don't understand something you can go in after school or at noon hour and they would be willing to help.

(Grade 10 girl, New Brunswick)

The teacher's willingness to attend to the difficulties encountered by particular students is apparently likely to have favourable consequences. It might inspire positive attitudes toward teachers and the school. For example, a Grade 12 New Brunswick girl gratefully recognises that some of her teachers "are very dedicated, to the point of doing individual tutoring on their own time", while a Grade 11 Nova Scotia girl discloses that she has considerable "respect" for all her teachers because "there is always someone there willing to help you". Several students reveal that they like their teachers because of the latter's willingness to help them. Others report having a "good" feeling because of their confidence about being able to receive individual assistance from their teachers.

Not surprisingly, students are convinced that such individual attention from their teachers is likely to prove beneficial to them academically. A Grade 12 Nova Scotia girl, for instance, declares that her teachers "are willing to take time out to help if you need extra help", which makes it "easier to learn". Again, a Grade 11 Newfoundland girl believes that by asking her teachers "to explain some of the questions that are not very clear" to her she "should be able to get better marks" and a Grade 10 girl from Prince Edward Island suggests that without the individual help made available by teachers students "probably won't pass the exam".

While numerous students dwell on the helpfulness of teachers, others focus on the scarcity of such assistance. Few respondents go so far as to claim, however, that their teachers are generally deficient in this aspect of teaching. A Grade 12 Nova Scotia boy states unequivocally that "most" of his teachers "will not help a student who is failing and needs the help, even if the student comes and asks for it". Two Newfoundland students - a Grade 9 boy who believes that teachers in his school "do not help you as much as they should" and a Grade 11 girl who is of the opinion that teachers are unlikely "to kill themselves helping students" - manifest somewhat generalized dissatisfaction with their teachers. Apart from these comments, sweeping condemnations of teachers are rare. On the whole, respondents are content to declare that only "some" of their teachers fail to provide the desirable amount of individual attention. Typical of students are statements such as "Some teachers are not very helpful" (a Grade 11 Newfoundland boy), "Some of our teachers are straight forward and want to teach but don't want to give individual help" (a Grade 11 Newfoundland girl), "There are some teachers who make little effort to assist those students who find certain subjects difficult" (a Grade 12 Nova Scotia boy), and "The only complaint I have is that sometimes the teachers don't help as much as they should" (a Grade 12 Nova Scotia girl). On occasion, students dwell on the supposed deficiencies of specific teachers:

I am fairly smart in all other subjects but I am not mathematically inclined and my teacher knows so still he offers no assistance.

(Grade 12 girl, Nova Scotia)

In my opinion many of my teachers are basically here to help students with their school work and are willing to assist with any academic problems you have. There are always exceptions however and these exceptions are very discouraging. For example I have a chemistry teacher who only works, or shall I say tries to teach, a half a day. She leaves at lunch time every day and never arrives earlier than 9:00 a.m. I find her not willing to give extra-help and uncooperative in this area.

(Grade 12 girl, Nova Scotia)

Teacher Response to Requests for Assistance

Quite interesting, also, are students' perceptions of how some teachers respond to their efforts to obtain individual assistance. According to a number of students, teachers might simply ignore them when they ask questions on specific points:

I don't like some of the teachers in this school because they dislike me that is the impression they give me when I ask a question and they don't answer me when they see me.

(Grade 9 girl, Newfoundland)

At times, students have the feeling that teachers "don't seem to want to listen" (a Grade 12 Nova Scotia girl) or that they "don't come right out" and refuse bluntly to help but just "never mention" the student's question again (a Grade 10 Nova Scotia girl). Alternatively, it is alleged, teachers might communicate their aversion to assisting students by making the task seem an unwelcome chore:

There is some teachers when you ask them a question they must seem to sigh, like it's a big chore for them to help you. When they do that I don't even want to talk to them.

(Grade 11 girl, Nova Scotia)

Again, the teacher might declare that he "did not want to spend any of 'his' time tutoring" (a Grade 10 Nova Scotia girl) or that "he didn't have enough time" to assist the student (a Grade 10 Newfoundland girl). Teachers might also assign to the students themselves the responsibility for dealing with the problem, suggesting that the pupil should utilize other resources - for instance, "the math help area" - in the school (a Grade 12 Nova Scotia male), should "check his/her notes" (a Grade 10 Newfoundland girl) or should deal with the difficulty "on their own" (a Grade 11 Nova Scotia boy). Sometimes, teachers are likely to imply that the student is at fault for not understanding the subject-matter. A Grade 10 Newfoundland boy reports that "if you ask them [the teachers] something they say you should know" and a Grade 9 Nova Scotia girl that teachers "just sit there and say, 'Well you should know that, it's common sense' ". It is not improbable, also, that a teacher will accuse the student of having "a bad attitude" and of "not studying" (a Grade 12 Nova Scotia girl), or that they will become incensed on being asked for additional explanations. In this connection, a Grade 9 Nova Scotia girl alleges that when students need additional help some teachers "lose their cool too easily", a Grade 10 Newfoundland girl that a certain teacher "shouts or kicks out the students" and another Grade 10 Newfoundland girl that one teacher "yelled" at her when she asked for help, which "has happened with the same teacher and a lot of other students".

Even when teachers evince an apparent willingness to assist students individually, it is thought, the latter might not always profit from the offers of help they receive. For example, as a Grade 11 New Brunswick girl complains, "you go to him [the teacher] and he tells you to sit down because he'll be ready in a minute" but "he doesn't come to help you anyhow". Again, teachers might offer to assist students but then fail to make themselves easily accessible:

My Physics teacher keeps telling us to come in after school and get things worked out. He even tells my parents that he said that when they come to see why my marks are low. When I took him up on the deal he told me, "Go figure it out yourself, I'm busy."

(Grade 10 boy, Newfoundland)

I think that if teachers are going to give extra help, they should be there when they say they will be and not making up excuses like [name of teacher].

(Grade 9 girl, Nova Scotia)

I also find teachers in high school very unwilling to give extra help to students, although they say, "Please, if you ever have any problems feel free to talk to me about it." Well I've tried that, and more often than not, they have to go somewhere like the staff-room for a cigarette.

(Grade 10 girl, New Brunswick)

Also, there might be so many students seeking assistance at the times the teacher is available that effective attention by the latter is virtually impossible:

In junior and senior high the teachers also take time to help you, such as help after school, but usually there is more people that can stay after school for help than there is in your classroom and you still don't learn anything.

(Grade 11 girl, Nova Scotia)

An important problem arising when teachers do provide assistance, however, might at times be the speed or superficiality of their explanations:

The teachers don't take time to teach a lesson before they pile on the homework, and half the time homework can't be done because you don't know how. When you go in for help the teachers rush right through the problem making you more confused than ever.

(Grade 11 girl, Nova Scotia)

Most teachers will give help but when you ask others, they go so fast through the material that you don't have a chance to grasp it all.

(Grade 10 girl, New Brunswick)

It is interesting to find that, though many respondents attribute a scarcity of individual help to teachers' unwillingness to provide it, there are students who contend that it is often the fault of pupils if they fail to obtain the assistance they desire. Students need to take the initiative in the matter of receiving teachers' attention and it is their failure to do so that results in limited teacher help:

The teachers are very helpful in situations. We all know they teach too many students to give personal attention to, and if we require help we must go to them. Too many students don't do this and they suffer for it.

(Grade 12 girl, Nova Scotia)

The teachers I feel are doing as well as can be expected. They do not always know if you are having problems and are afraid to admit it. It is up to you to go and get help from the teachers if you need it.

(Grade 12 boy, New Brunswick)

The teachers will help you if you want to help yourself. And I always believed that is true. You can't get help anywhere if you don't try.

(Grade 12 boy, Prince Edward Island)

However, not all students agree with such a perspective. A Grade 10 Nova Scotia boy, for example, believes that "teachers should try to help a troubled student instead of leaving him/her until they came to the teacher" and a Grade 10 girl from the same province that "teachers should offer help to the students instead of students having to ask for it". There exists a belief among some students, that teachers should actively seek to ascertain whether students require their assistance and should voluntarily provide it where necessary. Other respondents disclose specific reasons why the pupils' pursuit of individual attention is inappropriate. In some cases they perceive a danger of being ridiculed by the teacher if they were to ask for help:

I have one teacher who is constantly on my back, and she is driving me nuts. If I don't understand something and I ask her about it she humiliates me in front of the class and she says don't ask such stupid questions.

(Grade 9 boy, Nova Scotia)

I think that teachers should care more about the individual who needs help. . . I realize that these students could ask the teacher for help, but they are afraid that the teacher or other students will make fun of them. This happens a lot, and a student ends up failing a course.

(Grade 12 girl, Nova Scotia)

There are some teachers in this school I've had problems with. If you asked him for help, you would have to go up to his desk and then he would say something to make you feel stupid. There are many students that feel this way about this certain teacher.

(Grade 12 girl, New Brunswick)

In other instances, they reveal that fear of the teacher makes some pupils reluctant to seek assistance:

I think it is good for a teacher to be strict but I find that some teachers are too strict and because of this I as a student is sort of scared to ask for help.

(Grade 11 boy, Newfoundland)

Many students are afraid of certain teacher, therefore, are afraid to speak in class, or get help, answer or ask questions. I don't think it's right that students should be afraid of their teachers. If students can communicate more freely with their teachers they can learn more easily.

(Grade 11 girl, New Brunswick)

Sometimes, too, there is little point in trying to obtain help individually from teachers because the times at which the latter make themselves available are unsuitable for

many students. The bus schedule, for example, might require students to leave at an hour which does not permit sufficient time for consultation with teachers who allow students to see them only after school.

Conclusion

It is clear from the foregoing discussion that students tend to regard the availability of individual assistance by teachers as an integral part of school life. It is obvious, also, that though many students are highly satisfied with the accessibility of such assistance in their schools others are not. The principal result of the latter state of affairs appears to be a student perception that their teachers are "not caring", a perception communicated in such repeated expressions - relating to teachers - as "don't give a damn", "don't seem to care", "don't care" and "can't be bothered". Such a perception is likely to colour student attitude toward school.

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WHAT STUDENT TEACHERS APPRECIATE MOST AND LEAST ABOUT CO-OPERATING TEACHERS

Len Williams
Royston Kelleher
Division of Student Teaching

Most people, in whatever field of endeavour, would recognize the need for people who share similar tasks with them to have positive working relationships. In the instance of a relationship between the co-operating teacher and a student teacher, a sense of support, trust and cooperative understanding is especially important. Indeed, there is some evidence to suggest that when the relationship is a positive one, the co-operating teacher exerts more influence upon a student teacher than does any other person (Friebus, 1977, Karmos and Jacho, 1977; Haberman, 1983).

Most student teachers approach their assignments with eagerness and enthusiasm and a strong desire to grapple successfully with the complexities of the teaching task. Many, no doubt, as well, share some considerable apprehension as to the expectations their co-operating teachers have for them. Undoubtedly, some co-operating teachers share the same anxiety about role expectations. It is important that participants in the student teaching experience have a clear understanding of their roles and responsibilities and of the expectations each participant has for the other (Applegate and Lasley, 1983; Copeland, 1979).

The Faculty of Education at Memorial makes approximately one thousand student teacher placements per year in its three field study programs: the Professional Year, the Internship and the regular Student Teaching Programme. This study attempted to gather information which may be useful to those involved in the implementation of these programs. Some 150 student teachers who had just completed the traditional student teaching program were asked to complete two statements indicating what they appreciated most and what they appreciated least in a co-operating teacher. All responses were examined and common themes clustered. This particular approach was used in an earlier study of student teaching in physical education at the University of Alberta (Beauchamp, 1983). This paper focuses on the themes identified and relies heavily on student comments, quoted verbatim, to illustrate the points raised.

Personal Characteristics

Frequently student teachers identified personal attributes of cooperating teachers who were kind, understanding and approachable. They wanted co-operating teachers to bring to their tasks a desire to be helpful and a willingness to assist in ensuring that student teachers had a positive learning experience. The following comments are indicative of what many students appreciated most in a co-operating teacher:

One who is particularly helpful and friendly towards student teachers, who guides a student teacher along while still giving some freedom.

Someone who is helpful, understanding, considerate and friendly; one who understands our needs and is willing to help and share ideas.

A friendly open manner. This is the basis upon which a firm working and personal relationship can be built. To aid the student teacher in areas of difficulty and to provide advice.

Someone who is helpful, patient, and willing to give the guidance that is necessary to make the experience as valuable as possible.

Very helpful and understanding. Makes an effort to learn about my problems and assist me in overcoming them.

Approachability: With his/her busy schedule, he/she may not realize all of your concerns as a student teacher. Therefore he/she must be approachable by accepting and encouraging questions, etc.

Understanding and willingness to be helpful. A friendly, caring cooperating teacher who shows interest in you and your teaching.

These general characteristics such as helpfulness, kindness and understanding were translated by other students into very specific patterns of interaction. For example, many students identified factors such as communication, availability, and assistance as being important in facilitating the student teacher's transition to the classroom.

Communication

Students indicated that open and frequent communication is vital to the success of the student teaching experience. They appreciated the opportunity to share concerns, to examine issues and to discuss their experiences with co-operating teachers. Many students identified the opportunity to communicate as the factor they appreciated most about their relationship with co-operating teachers. On the other hand, many students indicated their concerns over the lack of communication. Table I contains representative quotations from both of these points of view.

Whereas the comments of Table I highlight the desire on the part of student teachers for close communication, those comments do not delineate specific areas of concern for discussion with the co-operating teacher. Many other student comments shed some light on this issue. One pervasive theme is the value placed by student teachers upon constructive criticism forthcoming from co-operating teachers. Table II provides representative comments of what students felt about this issue.

Time

One of the greatest barriers identified by students to effective communication between the student and cooperating teacher was the unavailability of time. The following statements suggest that although student teachers recognized the many demands on a teacher's time, they, nevertheless, regretted that sometimes their co-operating teacher did not have extra time to devote to them:

Little time available to spend with student teacher e.g. after school. They always seem to be too busy (meetings).

One who has little time for the student teacher.

When the teacher does not have the time to give, taking for granted that we know certain things with which we are not familiar.

That he/she is too much in a rush and doesn't take time to stop and say "hi", and enquire about how things are going.

That they do not have much time to talk with you especially for things not directly connected with what has to be taught.

Introduction to the School and the Classroom

Another theme related to the manner in which the co-operating teacher facilitated the student teacher's introduction into the school and classroom situation. Many student teachers, as the following comments indicate, appreciated co-operating teachers who took the time to inform them about the school in which they would work:

When he/she takes time to inform more about other aspects of the school, as well as greater opportunity to get to know other teachers.

One who gives much guidance to student teachers on matters relating to requirements of the school.

The willingness to explain the system. To inform you of the do's and don'ts in teaching.

One who provides an introduction to the way certain things are done around the school.

The help they give in preparing the student teacher for classroom teaching. The extra time spent in discussing school environment.

She made introductions in the staff room, I did not have to fend for myself.

In addition to providing a general orientation to the school, student teachers appreciated those cooperating teachers who made them feel welcome and comfortable in their classrooms:

His ability to make me and all of his students feel comfortable in his classroom.

One who is friendly, makes you feel welcome in the class and explains to you what is going on.

Taking the time to give background on the courses and classes he teaches, to explain many of the teaching techniques he uses, and to provide practical suggestions/criticisms on my teaching.

The way in which they make you feel comfortable in the classroom.
Starting you off with a good rapport with the students.

To make me feel wanted in the classroom and a part of the classroom.
I feel if you have this, most other things fell in place.

Clearly from the point of view of many students, the effective cooperating teacher understands the importance of human relationships and works to establish an emotional climate in which the student teacher feels accepted and wanted.

Assistance with Planning

It is perhaps natural for student teachers to place emphasis on interpersonal relations and the emotional climate of the student teaching setting. Such an atmosphere may be conducive to the discussion of professional roles and responsibilities. In particular, student teachers appreciated those co-operating teachers who spent time assisting them with the planning dimension of the teacher's role:

His willingness to work with the student teacher - helping with lesson plans telling the student what to expect and some of the problems that might be encountered.

A willingness to sit down before a lesson is to be taught and discuss ideas for the lesson; frank analysis after the lesson has been taught.

Her willingness and enthusiasm in helping me to develop lesson plans and teaching skills.

An ability to communicate freely her views on my performance; and a willingness to guide me through initial attempts at planning lessons.

The willingness to give assistance in setting up a lesson plan to continue in the same general area in which the teacher is already progressing.

The guidance given choosing suitable topics for lessons to teach in the school.

Many student teachers see it as the co-operating teacher's duty to assist the student teacher to plan for teaching. One dimension of volunteering for the role of co-operating teacher is that one must not only be a good teacher but in the eyes of the student teacher be an effective teacher educator.

TABLE I: COMMUNICATION

Appreciated Most in a Co-operating Teacher	Appreciated Least in a Co-operating Teacher
<p>Communication between student teacher and co-operating teacher with regards to advance knowledge or awareness of student behaviour in a class, subject material to be taught and constructive criticism.</p> <p>Someone who shows that you are welcome by sharing ideas with you, giving you some feedback as to how you are doing and just talking about things in general.</p> <p>Co-operation in regards to having time to talk about the different classes; i.e. what to expect and how things went. In other words, talk on a buddy system.</p> <p>Her guidance and her listening ability as I expressed some of my concerns. She was also very friendly and this helped put me at ease.</p> <p>Listening and giving opinions of my ideas, difficulties, how I handle myself during lessons etc.</p>	<p>Difficult to communicate with the teacher. Indifference towards my position. Lack of willingness to assist me when needed.</p> <p>There is not enough communication sometimes between the student and the co-operating teacher. This is needed if a student teacher is to step in and take over a class.</p> <p>Rigidity in thought and practice. Inflexibility (not willing to allot time for student teachers to teach). Impersonal manner; one who is hard to "open-up" and hard to get to know.</p> <p>One who is afraid to open up to their student teacher. One who always attempts to portray things the way they should be instead of the way they really are.</p> <p>When the teacher displays an attitude of having the only right way to do something without giving any consideration to possible positive input from the student teacher.</p>

TABLE II: CONSTRUCTIVE CRITICISM

Appreciated Most in a Co-operating Teacher	Appreciated Least in a Co-operating Teacher
<p>His kind but still critical analysis of my work; suggestions of what I might try for next time; the time he takes to help me in general.</p> <p>A teacher who would be willing to take the time after each lesson to provide the student teacher with feedback and to help in preparing for the next day.</p> <p>Someone who is willing to help when there are problems. Giving advice and constructive criticism to help me become a better teacher.</p> <p>I like it when the criticism is constructive rather than destructive.</p> <p>Valuable advice that he can give me about my teaching methods. I like him to be honest and open about how he feels about my teaching.</p> <p>Their honesty in bringing to the attention of the student teacher these areas that need improvement and how to improve. One who observes my teaching and gives me comments on my teaching skills - lots of feedback.</p> <p>A certain amount of constructive criticism. It is a learning experience for student teachers, therefore they should know how they are doing and also some possible means for improvement.</p>	<p>Would appreciate more feedback from a cooperating teacher after a student teacher has taught a lesson.</p> <p>Too often the co-operating teacher leaves once the student teacher begins teaching and as a result cannot provide his comments about the lesson.</p> <p>When he/she seems not interested in your presence and is vague in feedback and evaluation.</p> <p>Lack of definite, critical observations as to how I as a student teacher can improve.</p> <p>An uncritical teacher. If the teacher does not criticize your teaching, it's difficult to isolate problems and correct them.</p> <p>I feel the teacher should give good honest feedback after each lesson the student teaches. If not, the student is lost and doesn't know what to improve on.</p> <p>That he does not observe you. He just lets you teach in your own way and does not criticize your method of teaching.</p>

Acceptance

The co-operating teacher is frequently faced with the dilemma of accepting the student teacher as a colleague and peer, on the one hand, while on the other recognizing that student teachers are novices in the field. Some students expressed a strong desire to be seen as peers and colleagues. The comments in Table III reflect the feelings of some of those students.

On the other hand, many student teachers appreciated those cooperating teachers who saw them as neophytes and were sensitive to the anxieties of student teachers who were new and in an unfamiliar role. Table IV contains illustrative comments in this connection.

In spite of the comments made with respect to some student teachers' wanting to be seen as novices, a significant number of respondents expressed a desire to have the freedom to try out their own ideas and to teach in the manner they preferred. The ambivalence reflected in Tables III and IV suggests very strongly that the co-operating teacher must be particularly sensitive to the feelings of readiness of student teachers during the student teaching term. Early in the term some student teachers may feel quite inadequate when faced with the complexities of teaching in the school system. For those, the co-operating teacher should provide special support and extra guidance in assisting them to overcome their feelings of inadequacies. Other students do not share these concerns and wish to be treated more autonomously. It may be desirable to provide time early in the semester for intensive discussions between the cooperating teacher and the student teacher about these issues. Certainly one cannot assume there is a common level of competence and confidence on the part of all beginning teachers. Table V highlights the desire of many student teachers to be granted, at some point in the experience, the autonomy to develop their own personal teaching styles.

It is probably the natural tendency of some co-operating teachers to want to ensure that the lessons taught by student teachers proceed smoothly. Apparently, in order to ensure this, some co-operating teachers adopt the practice of interrupting the student teacher at times to ensure class control. It is interesting that no student teachers indicated that they appreciated this practice whereas a large number of student teachers seem to deplore it, as the following statements suggest:

I do not appreciate a co-operating teacher who interrupts the class when you are teaching a lesson. I feel you should have to control the class yourself and also you as a student teacher need the experience in controlling a class. I do not think a cooperating teacher should interrupt or intrude on your class.

Too much interference when trying to learn how to control the students during the teaching of a lesson.

I did not appreciate her well-intentioned help in disciplining some of the students while I was teaching.

I did not like interruptions to discipline the students for me.

TABLE III: ACCEPTANCE AS A COLLEAGUE

Appreciated Most in a Co-operating Teacher	Appreciated Least in a Co-operating Teacher
<p>A willingness to work with the student teacher as professionals, working towards a common goal - excellence in teaching for the ultimate benefit of the students.</p> <p>Being treated like a peer. I thought this was very important because it made me feel like I was part of the school situation and I fitted right in. It made me realize the true responsibilities of teaching.</p> <p>Their ability to be informal and create a relaxed atmosphere. To treat the student teacher as a teacher not as a student.</p> <p>The generation of a professional yet comfortable and friendly relationship with the student teacher. Is willing/eager to have discussions while at the school. Doesn't give the impression that the student teacher is an imposition.</p> <p>A helping attitude rather than looking down upon the student teacher; treating the student teacher as a member of the staff.</p>	<p>A person who treats you as one of the high school students rather than a colleague of the near future.</p> <p>A tendency to treat you as little more than another student, to be aloof and act as though it would be a waste of time to discuss issues.</p> <p>The feeling of inferiority that a student teacher may get. The feeling that what he/she is doing is not very important.</p> <p>Being ignored when another teacher enters the classroom. When the two teachers discussed a lesson it would have made me feel much better if they could have asked my opinion on something. We went out in the schools to take the role of a professional, so I think that a co-operating teacher should realize this.</p>

TABLE IV: ACCEPTING STUDENTS AS NEOPHYTES

Appreciated Most in a Co-operating Teacher	Appreciated Least in a Co-operating Teacher
<p>That he/she is sensitive to the fact that this is the first experience in the classroom situation as a teacher rather than student. The qualities of a good teacher such as being kind, good self-concept and sure of her subject areas are equally desirable as a cooperating teacher.</p> <p>His/Her understanding of how the student teacher is unexposed to all the realms of teaching. I appreciate a co-operating teacher who endeavors to assist the student teacher to become competent, effective and comfortable with teaching.</p> <p>For them to offer their time after class to discuss their experiences as a teacher, to understand that this is your first teaching and to give guidance.</p> <p>Their sharing of experiences with you and their helping you feel comfortable at their school. I feel it is important for a cooperating teacher to think back to when they were a beginning teacher and try and understand your difficulties.</p> <p>The co-operating teacher who realizes that we are only practicing, and not professionals.</p>	<p>Someone who isn't willing to help and who doesn't realize that teaching in a classroom setting is fairly new and scary to most student teachers.</p> <p>Assuming that you are already a teacher, sarcastic comments and a lack of respect for the student teacher.</p> <p>Her assuming I know everything; leaving me to prepare lessons with no guidance as to the materials.</p> <p>Giving little attention to the student teacher and thinking that you already know all there is to know about teaching (i.e. offering little practical help).</p> <p>A closed-minded person who sees the student teacher as somebody who may not meet their standards. Really a person who can't understand that the student teacher is just beginning.</p> <p>Treating me as if I know everything about teacher - really I don't - give me your time and experience.</p> <p>Confining student teacher to practically total observation. Taking for granted that the student teacher knows material in primary texts, books, etc. Thinking that the student teacher has a collection of materials like his/her own.</p>

TABLE V: AUTONOMY TO DEVELOP PERSONAL TEACHING STYLES

Appreciated Most in a Co-operating Teacher	Appreciated Least in a Co-operating Teacher
<p>Flexibility with his/her teaching style, in that the student teacher will not have to worry about adopting the same style and thus will be free to try out many methods. Also, willingness to help and make suggestions, yet giving the student teacher space to work in.</p> <p>Teacher allowed me the freedom to try out many topics and techniques in class without any type of censorship.</p> <p>One who gives feedback and suggestions as to my teaching. One who is receptive to my ideas, and willing to let me teach in a manner that I choose.</p> <p>One who is helpful, yet doesn't smother me. You must be given an opportunity to make some mistakes.</p> <p>The freedom to teach or decide to teach a lesson whenever the student teacher feels he or she is ready. I felt that she gave me the opportunity to try out my own ideas but was always there for guidance or to ask questions when I needed her to.</p> <p>Openness to let me teach the class in my way and try new things I have gained in other courses.</p> <p>One who doesn't try to force ideas and beliefs on you.</p>	<p>One who expects a student teacher to fit into the co-operating teacher's style.</p> <p>One who feels that his or her methods and style is "the" one which the student teacher should adopt.</p> <p>One who hands me exactly what I am to teach and never gives me any responsibility as a teacher.</p> <p>When they expect the student teacher to be like they are. When the co-operating teacher doesn't let student teachers be themselves in the classroom situation.</p> <p>A teacher who tells you exactly what to do, how to teach and is generally rigid in the class.</p> <p>I don't like the fact that when I have to teach a class, the co-operating teacher tries to tell me how to teach it and what to say.</p> <p>The fact that you are performing in a manner that you feel will please her most, not necessarily the way in which you would normally teach.</p> <p>When she dictates to me what she wants me to do and how to go about it instead of letting me experiment and try to find my own way allowing me to make my own mistakes and learn from them.</p>

That if I had discipline problems in the class he always tried to control it for me.

Interfering with the class while a student teacher is teaching.

Conclusion

Clearly, appreciated co-operating teachers are those who take the time to orient student teachers to their new roles, to the school and to the classroom. As well, student teachers appreciate those co-operating teachers who take the time to provide guidance in the technical aspects of teaching such as planning and at the same time provide the opportunity for students to become autonomous professionals.

Many of the previous comments present dilemmas for co-operating teachers. For example, on one hand co-operating teachers are faced with the myriad demands of their daily teaching tasks, while on the other they are faced with the expectations of student teachers who are competing for the limited time available. It is important for those involved in student teaching to recognize the difficult problems posed by these competing expectations. Given these demands, credit must be given to those dedicated teachers who, despite the heavy requirements of their regular teaching responsibilities, find that extra to give to those who are about to enter the profession.

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MONOTONY AND PASSIVITY: STUDENT VIEWS OF TEACHING IN ATLANTIC CANADA

Ishmael J. Baksh
Wilfred B.W. Martin

Department of Educational Foundations

In a recent questionnaire survey of over twenty thousand high school students in Atlantic Canada, the final item invited respondents to outline the various aspects of their experience in school that were of "concern" to them. The students' observations in response to this open item covered a great diversity of topics, one of these being teachers' instructional strategies (see Baksh and Martin, 1986). The present paper deals with students' perceptions regarding a particular dimension of teaching strategies - an alleged monotony of teachers' practices, often linked in respondents' minds with a passive student role.

Of course, several caveats are in order here. First, the nature of the questionnaire item providing the data analysed in this paper is such that students are encouraged to dwell on the less positive aspects of their experiences and to de-emphasize the more positive elements of their life in school. Even so, many students offer favourable assessments of their schools and teachers. Second, qualitative data of this sort cannot provide precise information about the percentage of students holding specific views about their schooling experiences. What might be claimed from the present analysis is that some students seem to possess certain *kinds* of views regarding their life in school. The study, in any event, deals with students' *perceptions*, and the extent to which these reflect reality is a matter for additional empirical investigation. This paper can reveal something of the kinds of teaching characteristics some students dislike; it can make no statement about how far such reported features of school life actually occur.

While some respondents concede that there are stimulating teachers who kindle interest by encouraging active student participation in classes, others seem convinced that a number of their teachers are "dull" and that they make little or no provision for an active student role in the instructional process. As might be expected, students often stress the value of a greater diversity in teaching strategies and of teacher approaches that permit a much higher level of active involvement by pupils in the course of instruction. The students' views are discussed below under appropriate headings.

Variations in Teacher Dullness and Student Passivity

Not all students suggest they are forced into a dull and passive student role. Several Grade 11 and Grade 12 students from New Brunswick, for example, report that their teachers succeed in introducing a fair amount of variety and activity into school work. One Grade 11 girl describes her courses as "usually interesting", including even History, "which uses lecturing, research essays, group projects, class discussions, and verbal presentations by students to vary the matter", while another claims that her school is a "nice place" since all her teachers "get you involved in class activities". Again, three Grade 12 girls from that province view their courses as "interesting", in large measure because their teachers "supplement" the textbook with projects, field trips and other activities.

To many students, however, schools are boring places that inflict upon them an uncomfortable quiescence. Monotony is induced in part when teachers engage seemingly perpetually in the same classroom strategies and repeat too often the same subject matter. Respondents elaborate on the subject of teacher dullness and student passivity, however, as they comment on such matters as the abundance of teacher talk, the monotony of teachers' oral delivery, the tendency toward spoonfeeding, teacher inclination to dictate how work is to be done, and requirements regarding memorization.

The Abundance of Teacher Talk

The amount of talking done by teachers is a matter of special concern for many students. Repeated accusations are made that teachers "talk a lot", that they "talk for the whole period" and that they "talk during the whole class". One Grade 9 boy complains that his teacher "just stands in the middle of the class and talks and talks until we get bored" and a Grade 12 girl that in a lot of her classes "all you do is sit there for forty minutes and listen to some teacher talking". The routine of listening to teachers for long periods is obviously seen as burdensome by many students.

The Monotony of Teachers' Oral Delivery

The problem of the abundance of teacher talk seems often, in students' view, to be compounded by teachers' failure to attend to some physical aspects of oral communication, particularly voice control. The difficulties as seen by some pupils are varied. One problem is the perceived tendency of teachers to speak in a "monotone". One Grade 11 boy, for instance, asserts that his teacher "talks in a monotone" and another that "it is very hard to learn with a teacher who has a monotonous voice and drones on and on for the whole class period". Another difficulty might be the teachers' allegedly impersonal manner of speaking. A Grade 11 girl claims, for instance, that "some teachers are very boring (speak in a monotone voice) as if they had memorized the lesson and just let it fall out of their mouths with no expression", while to a Grade 11 boy his teacher is "a real drag" since he talks in a "low unconcerned tone" which the student finds "boring" and a Grade 12 boy believes that his teachers speak in a "long draggy boring voice". The import of such student statements is that the apparent character of teachers' oral delivery might in some cases contribute to rendering an important teaching strategy - the exposition by teachers - highly monotonous.

Spoonfeeding and Dictating Work Procedures

A number of respondents seem to believe that teachers often use strategies - for example, spoonfeeding and dictating work procedures that require substantial passivity on the part of students, ultimately leading to pupil boredom. Thus, at least some students are of the opinion that they are "spoonfed" too much and have little opportunity to contribute actively in the process of instruction. One Grade 10 boy from Newfoundland declares that he is "practically being spoonfed with information" and "the student is not given a chance to learn on his or her own", while another notes that his teacher in Mathematics "often does the work himself" even though it has been assigned to the students. A Grade 10 girl from the same province observes that students "were spoonfed too much" instead of being encouraged "to do things".

Students apparently feel they are passive recipients, also, in the sense that they are often required to adapt to the teachers' lessons plans or to the teachers' preferred manner of doing work. A Grade 12 Nova Scotia girl, for instance, informs us that "many of the teachers are too concerned with following their lesson plans" and that the students' perspective on such a preoccupation "doesn't seem to matter". Teacher rigidity, some students feel, also runs to dictating how work is to be done. A Grade 12 boy in New Brunswick states, for example, that "a few older teachers must achieve everything and do it by the book" or they might compel students to "follow a set rule for every equation in math, etc. and if you have one comma out of place you get a zero". Teacher orientations of the type being discussed here are disliked by many students because of the limited opportunity they offer for relieving the monotony of student passivity.

Requirements regarding Memorization

Students insist repeatedly that there is "too much memorization", that teachers "put too much emphasis on memorization" or that studies at school seem to involve "more memorizing than understanding". Such an emphasis, they feel, is highly inadvisable. For one thing, the requirement that students simply memorize factual material is an unimaginative educational strategy. In this connection, a Grade 12 girl from Prince Edward Island notes that when asked to memorize some material from English history she did not really understand the events but when she later read some fiction set in the same period everything made more sense to her. She suggests that a "piece of fiction containing fact" will help students learn more easily "than most straight facts". Merely asking students to memorize subject-matter, in other words, is not a very imaginative method of teaching. Also, memorization is unfair to many students: some students can do very well in school simply because they have a good memory. A Grade 10 girl from Nova Scotia claims that "there is no possible way that a person who does not have a good memory can do well in school". Furthermore, committing material to memory is in some students' view rather useless, since much of what is memorized is quickly forgotten or has little subsequent application. As a Grade 12 Nova Scotian boy puts it, "you learn it then forget it". A Grade 11 girl from the same province goes so far as to say that "memorizing and copying down notes is only promoting good handwriting".

Of greater concern to many students, however, is the implicit passivity of their classroom role, since in their view they are expected essentially to absorb information they have been given. Among those commenting on this matter is a Grade 10 boy in Newfoundland who states: "We might as well be tape recorders [or] video tape machines for all of the work and notes we are expected to memorize [because] to get good grades in this course we are expected to learn word for word every note we get". Similarly, a Grade 11 Nova Scotian boy describes schools as "academic cookie cutters", since "students (read: prisoners) are expected to soak it up and accept it as fact". Students are often of the opinion that they are not trained by schools to confront information in an active critical manner. Along such lines a Grade 12 girl from Nova Scotia states: "I think schools will be doing us a favour if they gave us a chance to use our own minds, instead of memorizing useless theories and formulas". A major consequence of alleged teacher emphasis on memorization, then, is the relegation of students to a comparatively inactive role in the educational process, that of a receptacle for "knowledge".

The Need for Variety and Activity

Fair numbers of students from all four Atlantic provinces write of the need for greater variety in teachers' instructional strategies and for teacher procedures that would permit them a measure of active participation in the educational process. It is difficult to separate the plea for greater variety from that for greater activity, since the suggestions regarding the latter almost invariably constitute important means for helping to achieve the former, and while the following discussion relates to active approaches available to teachers - though reportedly not always extensively employed - it also provides illustrations of how more variety (and consequently less monotony) might be introduced into classroom work.

What students positively disposed toward greater activity often have in mind is a desire for discovering or locating information for themselves rather than passively receiving it from a teacher or a textbook. The learning of science, for example, is seen as much more enjoyable and effective when students can conduct experiments in a laboratory, and the absence of adequate facilities and laboratory opportunities is regarded as a substantial drawback. Students apparently feel a need as well for "more outside learning experiences" (the words of a Grade 10 Newfoundland girl). Individual and group projects are attractive possibilities here. Among the students who are enthusiastic about projects are a Grade 9 Newfoundland boy who recommends "more time to do projects" and "more time in the library", a Grade 12 Nova Scotia boy who believes that teachers do not make sufficient effort to provide "exercises which are to be done outside" and a Grade 11 New Brunswick girl who suggests that "classes could do more projects that take you out and away from the classroom once and a while". It might be noted, though, that not all students are enthused about projects: first, the limited availability of resource or reference materials may be a problem at times and, second, there might well be so many projects to do at the same time that students cannot readily cope with teachers' demands, however well intentioned the latter are.

Field trips are perceived as another alternative available to teachers for allowing students to acquire information in an active way. A Grade 11 girl in Prince Edward Island complains, however, that her teachers "just have everything prepared and dictate what they want done" without allowing her to do anything different, such as "going on field trips", while a Grade 9 boy in Newfoundland claims: "We should do field research in Geography to clearly outline what we are doing. It is no point learning it if we don't know what it means". Other students express similar views, among them a Grade 12 New Brunswick girl who believes "there should be more field trips and experiences outside the classroom", since "after being isolated between four walls for twelve years you really get sick of taking notes and reading about things" when "it would be a lot more educational to get out and do things".

Yet another way in which teachers might promote greater student activity in classes is by employing more practical methods of teaching, methods that encourage students to practise what they are being taught. A Grade 12 Nova Scotia boy is irritated, for example, because while his school has "an expensive language lab" this facility is not employed in the teaching of French, and a large French community nearby is not used to assist with practising French. Student activity might also take the form of determining how knowledge may be applied in real life, but from the student perspective too little of this is being attempted in the schools at the moment. "The main

trouble", a Grade 10 Nova Scotia boy suggests, "is [that] some teachers feed us useful information but never alert of its relevance and impact". Teachers, he believes, can provide students with "new interesting ways of studying", such as "applying the knowledge you learn to real life situations".

Class discussion, too, provides a crucial means of facilitating active student involvement in learning, and the options available here include exchanges between teachers and individual students or groups of students, open class discussion and small-group discussion. It appears, from students' comments, that in many classrooms discussion of some sort is permitted and even nurtured. For instance, a Grade 10 Newfoundland boy is pleased with his teachers because they let students express their ideas in class, while a Grade 11 girl from the same province regards her teacher as "good" because she allows students to express their own opinions. Where such practices prevail teachers are often perceived in a favourable light. To a Grade 10 Newfoundland girl, for example, teachers who allow discussion are "good at what they are teaching". Not all students, however, are satisfied with the amount of discussion evident in their classes. Repeatedly, students complain in terms such as the following: "Teachers are not willing to get involved in class discussions" (Grade 11 boy in Newfoundland); "Discussions do not take place nearly enough as they should" (Grade 11 Nova Scotia girl); "One of the biggest problems in school is that [students] never have enough discussions in class" (Grade 10 New Brunswick girl), and pupils "should be able to express themselves more and give more opinions" (Grade 12 Prince Edward Island boy).

Class discussion, students often seem to think, has several potential benefits. School work becomes more enjoyable, particularly when "students are to work in groups" (Grade 12 Nova Scotia girl). Interest in school subjects is consequently likely to be intensified. Also, students receive practice in oral communication and their self-confidence is enhanced. Furthermore, it is "easier to learn this way" (Grade 9 Newfoundland boy) and "discussing things helps you understand them" (Grade 9 Newfoundland girl). Active participation in the classroom is also important, however, because it relieves the tedium of school routine. As a Grade 12 boy in New Brunswick observes, "free discussion and debate" provide relief from the boredom generated by the daily work routine of schools and, in the words of a Grade 11 girl from the same province, "teachers could make a little effort to draw the students into discussion and maybe make the classes a little less boring".

It must be noted that not all students whole-heartedly endorse class discussion. Occasional respondents draw attention, for example, to an allegedly fallacious teacher assumption that "all students like to work in groups with other students" (Grade 11 New Brunswick girl). On this subject, a Grade 11 boy in Prince Edward Island confides that he hates "talking and answering orally in class". Again, two Grade 12 Nova Scotia boys - one claiming that "group work is generally not effective, nor are discussion groups" and the other that "a lot of class time is wasted by teachers who carry on meaningless discussions" - are among those skeptical about the utility of class discussion.

Conclusion

The high school students in this survey often direct a substantial amount of attention to the reported monotony of teachers' instructional strategies. They perceive some teachers as introducing a fair degree of variety and student activity into school

work but view others as dull and as tolerating only a passive student role. Monotony arises when teachers engage perpetually in the same classroom strategies and repeat too often the same subject-matter. Teacher dullness and student passivity are apparently generated in particular by such phenomena as the abundance of teacher talk, the monotony of teachers' oral delivery, the tendency toward spoonfeeding, teacher inclination to dictate how work is to be done, and excessive requirements regarding memorization. Field trips, projects and "practical" approaches to teaching are among the experiences seen by students as likely to reduce their boredom and passivity. In this connection, students also discuss their opportunities for, and the perceived benefits of, participation in class discussion. Since the occurrence of such perceptions is likely to affect students' attitudes toward and responses to school, it may be profitable for teachers to ascertain how far these perspectives exist in their own school and classroom, to investigate why they do and to consider the desirability of action to modify those that might create problems.

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**THE EMPLOYMENT OF SUBSTITUTE TEACHERS: SOME EMERGING
PATTERNS IN TEACHER ABSENTEEISM IN NEWFOUNDLAND**

**Arthur Ponder
Department of Educational Administration**

Declining enrolments coupled with the inability of Memorial University, the sole teacher preparation institution in the Province, to adjust to market conditions have created a new class of teachers in Newfoundland-the itinerant substitute teacher. That is, an increasing percentage of teachers entering the force are employed in substitute positions, wherever and whenever available. Table 1 shows the number of full-time teaching positions in the Province (exclusive of distinct office personnel). Aside from the increase between 1982/83 and 1983/84, which, incidentally, came about as a result of the revised high school program, the numbers of full-time teaching positions have actually declined over the past four years. At the same time, the numbers of active substitute teachers have experienced yearly increases. Thus, the number of substitutes, as a percentage of active teachers in the Province, has increased from 18.5 percent in 1982/83 to 22.1 percent in 1986/87, suggesting that, given current funding and teacher allocation formulae, teachers entering the force are more likely to be relegated to the role of substitutes than was the case heretofore.

TABLE I

**Teaching Patterns of Regular and Substitute Teachers
1982 - 1986**

School Year	Full-Time Teachers			Substitutes as a % of the active teachers in the Province
	Regular ^a	Substitute	Total	
1982/83	7707	1749	9546	18.5
1983/84	8177	1834	10011	18.3
1984/85	8152	2019	10171	19.9
1985/86	8049	2145	10194	21
1986/87	8026	2279	10305	22.1

^a Excludes District Office Personnel

Source: Department of Education, Newfoundland & Labrador

TABLE II
Changing Patterns of Substitute Teaching
1982 - 1986

School Year	Substitute Teachers	Total Days Worked	Average Days Worked
1982/83	1749	52525	30.0
1983/84	1834	62487	34.1
1984/85	2019	68648	34.0
1985/86	2145	72931	34.0
1986/87	2279	77796	34.1

Source: Department of Education, Newfoundland & Labrador

Up to this point, it should not have been too encouraging for those entering the profession. However, a concomitant increase in the incidence of absenteeism amongst regularly employed teachers has helped to pick up the slack. Table 2 indicates the increase in the total number of days which occurred over a five year period from a low of 52,525 in 1982/83 to a high of 77,796 in 1986/87. What this works out to is an increase in the average number of days absent by teachers for which substitutes were hired from 6.8 in 1982/83 to 9.6 in 1986/87. The net result has been to keep the average number of days worked by substitutes constant over the last four years, at around 34 per year, a figure which, incidentally, qualifies most for Unemployment Insurance in times when no work is available.

Newfoundland Teachers' Association offer two reasons why there is a growing amount of absenteeism. First, the increased availability of qualified substitutes makes it more likely that teachers who are sick will stay home. When substitutes were less available and colleagues had to cover for absent teachers, sick teachers were loath to stay away. Secondly, the number of in-service days designated for teachers has increased.

Figure 1 illustrates that teacher illness accounted for 62.5% of all absences in 1986/87, the only year for which composite figures are available. This figure is three times that indicated for in-service work, making this defence of teacher absenteeism somewhat questionable.

However, the prevailing view is that teacher absenteeism interferes with the normal learning process. Is this necessarily the case? For example, a fresh, well qualified substitute may very well provide better education than a sick regular teacher. Coupling this with the previously mentioned point that teachers are more likely to be absent when sick if well qualified substitutes are available could well be an explanation for increased absenteeism.

However, the cost of substitute teachers continues to be a major concern to government. Substitutes are presently paid by government, with no cost accruing to boards. Table 3 examines the cost of substitutes (less fringe benefits such as pension contributions, unemployment insurance, etc.) over a nine year period. From 1978/79 to 1986/87 the cost of substitutes has increased by more than \$7.0 million. Obviously, inflation and the increased qualifications of substitutes would account for some of the increase. But even in 1978 constant dollars, the bill has doubled. Further, over the past five years, the average per diem cost of substitutes has increased only about \$18.

TABLE III
Cost of Substitute Teaching
1978 - 1986

School Year	Substitute Cost		Average per diem cost ^b for substitutes
	Actual	Constant ^a	
1978/79	2,932,365	2,932,365	Not Available
1979/80	4,141,394	3,792,485	"
1980/81	4,174,801	3,469,171	"
1981/82	5,805,782	4,288,508	"
1982/83	6,103,394	4,068,929	116.20
1983/84	7,967,120	5,020,239	127.50
1984/85	8,807,275	5,315,834	128.30
1985/86	9,606,359	5,575,044	131.70
1986/87	10,492,170	5,849,130	134.90

^a 1978 Dollars

^b Actual Dollars

Source: Department of Education, Newfoundland & Labrador

A study by the Memorial's Institute for Educational Research and Development is currently underway. It will examine the influence of a number of demographic variables such as age, sex, years of experience and experience in a particular school or subject area on teacher absenteeism. Additionally, a number of other variables, such as entitlement (when a teacher has accumulated the maximum of 180 sick days), visibility (the degree to which absent teachers are visible to, for example, school officials or parents. A teacher living in a small community and teaching in that community is highly visible. A teacher living in St. John's and teaching in or outside the city is invisible), availability of substitutes, and teacher perceptions of school climate, job satisfaction and one's own state of health will also be incorporated into the model.

FIGURE I
Reasons For Teacher Absences By Percentage
86/87 School Year

Sick Leave

(INSERT DIAGRAM)

Other 4%
Teaching Principal 1.2%
Special App Leave 1.9%
Compassionate 1.8%
Vacant Position 1.9%
Illness in Family 2.4%
Approved Leave 3%

Inservice

Source: Education Finance Division

Regardless of what the study reveals one can predict certain changes for the future. As in the past two sets of negotiations, a strong emphasis on limiting or reducing salaries paid to substitutes will be advanced by the Government. In addition, some sorts of schemes to reduce overall teacher absenteeism will also be on the table. One might well be the introduction of some sort of school based budgeting, in which schools with low absentee rates acquire a percentage of the overall savings, to be spent on extra equipment and supplies. Such schemes, tried in other jurisdictions, have had considerable success in reducing absenteeism. However, any such plans will most certainly have an adverse effect on the future employment opportunities of substitute teachers.

SEEKING AND ACCEPTING STUDENTS' OPINIONS'

Wilfred B.W. Martin

Ishmael J. Baksh

Department of Educational Foundations

The purpose of this paper is to report on research findings concerning the relationships between selected student characteristics and the extent to which they perceive their teachers to be seeking and accepting their opinions in the school. As part of a survey questionnaire administered to more than 20,000 high school students in Atlantic Canada (almost 8,000 of whom were from Newfoundland and Labrador), data were collected on the frequencies (never, seldom, sometimes, often/very often) with which they perceive their teachers to exhibit certain behaviours, including the following:

- Ask you to make decisions concerning what you want to do during regular class time.
- Seek your opinions concerning your desires for certain subjects and topics.
- Accept your opinion on what to do during a regular class period.
- Accept your opinion on what to do during activities outside of the classroom.
- Accept your opinion on what to do during activities outside of the classroom.
- Encourage students to talk and express their ideas, even though they realize that those ideas are different from their own.

By means of a chi square test of significance, the relationships between the following student characteristics and the degree to which teachers invite and accept students' opinions as indicated in their responses to the above questions were isolated: gender, age, ethnicity, membership in student representative council, being a prefect, number of school clubs in which one has membership, grade level, whether one failed a grade, number of grades failed, whether one repeated a failed grade, whether one failed a subject, number of subjects failed, number of failed subjects repeated, whether one is bused to school, whether one has lived in the same community all one's life, and number of years one has lived in the present community of residence.

With reference to the frequencies to which teachers (1) invite students to make decisions concerning what they want to do during regular class time, (2) seek students' opinions concerning their desires for certain subjects and topics, and (3) encourage them to talk and express their ideas even though those ideas are different from those of their teachers, indications are that:

1. Girls, more often than boys, think teachers seek student opinions.
2. The older students perceive teachers to be seeking their opinions more often than the younger students do.
3. English students perceive teachers to be seeking their opinions more often than French students, or bilingual students, or, Native students do.
4. Student representative council members tend to think their teachers seek the opinions of students more often than do students who are not members of such councils.

5. Students who are prefects, more so than students who are not prefects, reported that their teachers seek student opinions.
6. The more club memberships students have the more likely they are to perceive their teachers seek student opinions.
7. The lower the grade level (Grades 12 to 9) the less likely are students to perceive their teachers as seeking their opinions.
8. Students who failed a grade are less likely to perceive teachers as seeking their opinions than do those who have not failed a grade.
9. The larger the number of grades failed the less likely are students to see their teachers as seeking their opinions.
10. Students who repeated a failed grade see teachers as seeking their opinions more often than those who did not repeat a failed grade.
11. Students who failed a course are less likely to perceive teachers as seeking their opinions than do those who have not failed a course.
12. The more courses failed the less likely are students to see teachers as seeking student opinions.
13. Students who repeated one failed course perceive teachers as seeking their opinions more often than do students who repeated more than one failed course, whereas students who did not repeat any of the courses they failed are least likely to perceive their teachers as seeking their opinions.

The frequencies with which teachers are seen to be accepting students' opinions on what to do during regular class time and accepting their opinions on what to do in school in general suggest that certain students see teachers as accepting their opinions more often than other students seem to do. In point form, preliminary findings are as follows:

1. Girls, more so than boys, tend to perceive teachers as accepting student opinions.
2. Student representative council members tend to see teachers as accepting student opinions more often than do students who are not members of such councils.
3. Students who are prefects, more so than students who are not prefects, reported that their teachers accept student opinions.
4. The more club memberships students have the more likely they are to perceive their teachers as accepting their opinions.
5. Grade 9 students perceive teachers as accepting their opinions on what to do during class time more often than do students in any of the other high school grades.

6. Grade 12 students perceive teachers as accepting their opinions on what to do in school in general more often than do students in other high school grades.
7. Students who failed a grade are more likely to perceive their teachers as accepting their opinions on what to do during regular class time than do those who have not failed a grade.
8. Students who failed a grade are less likely to perceive teachers as accepting their opinions on what to do in school in general than do those who have not failed a grade.
9. There is a slight indication that the larger the number of grades failed the less likely are students to see their teachers as accepting their opinions on what to do in school in general less often than do students who did not repeat a failed grade.
10. Students who repeated a failed grade see teachers as accepting their opinions on what to do during regular class time more often than do students who did not repeat a failed grade.
11. There is a slight tendency for students who repeated a failed grade to see teachers as accepting their opinions on what to do in school in general less often than do students who did not repeat a failed grade.
12. Students who failed a course are less likely to perceive teachers as accepting their opinions than do those who have not failed a course.
13. Students who did not repeat any failed courses are more likely to see their teachers as accepting their opinions than are students who repeated one or more failed courses.
14. Students who are not bused to school perceive teachers as accepting their opinions more often than do students who are bused.

These findings concerning the relationships between selected student characteristics and the extent to which they perceive their teachers to be seeking and accepting their opinions in the school are offered as one attempt, albeit a small one, to isolate particular features of the processes of student input into teaching. For teachers who see the desirability of understanding the different features of student views about the extent of their input in this regard, it is interesting to note that evaluation indicators (number of grades and courses failed, for example) and the extent of student involvement in organizations in the school are often associated with their views about the degree to which teachers invite and accept their opinions. The practical implication of this finding is twofold. One implication relates to the need to give special attention to students who have failed some of their courses in the school. Such attention is needed for improvement of students' marks, as is generally the focus of such attention, but it should also be geared to understanding students' experiences in the school. For example it is important to ask: how do these students perceive teachers' actions in the school and what sort of input do they see themselves having in teaching-learning situations? Another practical implication of this finding relates to the extent to which students have the opportunity - and are encouraged - to participate

in school organizations. Perhaps, student involvement in organizations in the school is more important than is sometimes thought to be the case.

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STUDENT PERCEPTIONS OF THE PROFESSIONAL YEAR SCHOOL EXPERIENCE

**Alice Collins, Royston Kelleher
and Leonard Williams
Division of Student Teaching**

The primary and elementary teacher education programs at Memorial University of Newfoundland incorporate two school placement requirements in a five-year framework. The first of these school experiences is undertaken in the professional year of study and the second is a thirteen-week teaching internship in the final year. This paper will report on student perceptions of the professional year placement.

The professional year constitutes a concentrated study in Education for prospective teachers. During the professional year all students undertake a prearranged program of ten Education courses. In addition, students spend 50 hours, distributed over two academic semesters, in a school placement.

The professional year school placement has three objectives: (1) to provide students with an exposure to schools sufficiently early in their program to enable them to make informed decisions regarding the desirability of continuing in teacher education; (2) to provide students with opportunities to integrate theory and practice by relating school experiences with theories, principles and concepts taught in the ten professional courses; and (3) to provide students with opportunities to be involved in a variety of teaching activities such as observing competent teaching, participating in tasks associated with classroom routines and processes and undertaking a limited number of teaching activities.

During the professional year school placement, students are assigned to cooperating schools rather than to specific co-operating teachers. School principals are requested to ensure that professional year students are engaged in classroom work at each grade level of their program designation. This is intended to ensure that students have opportunities to be involved with pupils and programs across the whole spectrum of primary or elementary levels. All student placements are arranged by the Division of Student Teaching. Students are not supervised during this early school placement by members of faculty; however, a member of the Student Teaching Division liaises with students and schools regarding program expectations and concerns.

THE STUDY

At the end of the Winter Semester 1987, 80 professional year students completed a questionnaire regarding various aspects of their school placement. This paper provides an analysis of participants' responses with regard to: (a) the value of the school experience; (b) the degree of involvement during the school placement; and (c) recommendations for modification and improvement of the school experience.

Value of the School Experience

Students were asked to respond to five questions to determine their perceptions regarding the value of the pro-supplemented by a reorganization of the mode of production in different sectors of the economy, in a way which could adapt itself to the skill potentials of those in the job creation programs. In this way it is hoped, that long term jobs can be created, which in turn will augment labour productivity.

The Task Force On Labour Market Developments in the 1980s' observes that traditionally the impact of job creation on levels of labour productivity has varied from metropolitan to non-metropolitan areas. In metropolitan areas job creation programs have proved to be cost-effective. In non-metropolitan areas stable long term jobs have proved to be cost-effective, but creation of seasonal and cyclical jobs has proved to be cost-ineffective. The major causes of the failure of job creation programs in metropolitan areas were the negative attitude of private sector employers to the programs on grounds of low labour productivity of target groups, low reliability of commitment by target groups to long term employment, inability of different sectors to adapt their modes of production to the skills of target groups of workers and, consequently, an over concentration of jobs created in the construction, service and government sectors. Because most of the jobs were created in the institutional service sector, it is difficult to measure the value of output contributed by the participants. It was noted, however, that a large part of the participants went back to school after training and a good part dropped out of the labour force.² A new perspective on job creation is therefore, imperative.

2. Job Creation Perspectives in the Private Sector through Wage Subsidy and Levy/Grant System

There are three principal types of cost associated with job creation: program installation cost, carrying cost on the participant, which comprises regular compensation plus the opportunity cost of productivity difference between actual and expected marginal productivities of labour, and finally the cost of training lost in the event of job abandonment and firing. These components of the total cost of job creation affect the decision of creating additional jobs in various ways. In the public sector a 100 per cent coverage of the program installation cost by the government does not raise the significant issue of labour productivity. However, despite the lower importance given to the above components of job creation in the public sector in respect to productivity concerns, it has been found that the total cost of creating an additional job is only one-third of that required to open up a new employment position instead.³

In the private sector, however, employer attitude towards job creation varies between small and large firms. In small firms, government could be well off by subsidising the total cost of job creation, the wage subsidy must thereby be capable of allaying the cost of installing the job and the loss in productivity resulting from the target groups of workers in the lower rungs of productivity.

In the case of large firms the wage subsidy incentive may not be adequate to provide incentive to the employer to create jobs for target groups of workers.⁴ Large firms depend heavily on specialized skills.

Table 1

Student Perceptions of the Value of Professional Year School Experience (percentages)

Value	Rating	Value in Making Decision to Continue in Education	Value in Forming Realistic View of Teaching	Value in Providing Insight into Schooling	Value in Linking Theory with Practice	Overall Value of School Experience
Of no Value	1	3	0	0	0	1
	2	1	4	3	9	1
	3	8	3	6	4	4
	4	11	10	18	24	15
	5	21	16	24	36	24
	6	23	36	26	14	27
Extremely Valuable	7	34	31	24	13	28
Mean		5.5	5.7	5.4	4.8	5.5

Table 2
Comparison of Preferred and Actual Involvement

Categories	Degree to which students indicated they wanted to be involved	Degree to which students indicated they were involved
Category 1 Observation Activities	X = 6.0 S.D. = .7	X = 4.7 S.D. = 1.1
Category 2 Assisting the Teacher	X = 6.1 S.D. = .7	X = 4.6 S.D. = 1.1
Category 3 Teaching Activities	X = 6.1 S.D. = .7	X = 3.3 S.D. = 1.3

Second, students came closest to achieving their preferred level of involvement in Categories one and two, namely, observation activities and assisting the teacher. They were less involved in activities in Category three, although their preferences for involvement in all three categories received similar ratings.

In some respects the three categories of experiences can be viewed as points on a continuum in which students move from observation through an initiation to teaching by assuming an assistant's role and finally to actual teaching. Seen in that light it may not be surprising that the level of involvement in category three was lower than in the other two. It should also be noted that the questionnaire was administered only after the school experience had been completed; hence the views expressed by students are retrospective. A comparison study is now under way to determine whether student preferences for involvement in professional year school activities change over the duration of the program.

Recommendations for Improvement of the School Experience

Students were asked to make recommendations for improvement of the professional year school experience. They expressed concern with respect to the arrangement of time spent in the school. Although a number of students suggested that a longer period of time be spent in the school setting, the vast majority recommended a rearrangement of the 10 days allocated for school visits. Within the present structure, students are assigned to schools one day per week for a five-week period in each of the fall and winter semesters. Some students felt the discontinuity inherent in this arrangement limited their opportunity for involvement in activities in Category three, namely teaching activities. In particular, they indicated that this fragmentation militated against the opportunity to observe and be involved in units and themes from beginning to end.

While they saw value in gaining exposure to a variety of grade levels and teaching styles, they nevertheless wished to spend an extensive period of time with

one grade or teacher in order to become immersed in the work of at least one classroom. In order to overcome this problem, a number of students recommended that the present practice of rotating students among classes during the fall semester be continued. However, they suggested that during the winter semester students be assigned to a specific classroom for a block of five consecutive days. Such an arrangement, they felt, would provide an exposure to many facets of primary and elementary schooling and, as well, would enhance the opportunities for more extensive and meaningful involvement in at least one classroom.

CONCLUSION

This study found that the school experience of the professional year program was, in the opinion of students, valuable in a number of ways. It helped them to assess their decision to continue in teacher education, to develop a realistic view of teaching and to gain new insights into primary/elementary schooling. To a lesser degree the experience was valuable in helping students link theory with practice. The findings also indicate a significant discrepancy in the preferred and actual levels of involvement during the school. This discrepancy is particularly noticeable in the area of undertaking teaching activities where they reported less involvement than in the areas of observation and assisting the teacher. Finally, the main concern professional year students had with the school experience was with regard to arrangement of time. It was their recommendation that at least part of the school experience be undertaken in five consecutive school days; further they recommended rotation among classrooms take place only in the first semester with a placement in only one classroom during the second semester. This arrangement might enable students to become more actively involved in teaching activities.

STUDENT AND TAXPAYER EQUITY

Jim Cooze

Department of Educational Administration

Introduction

Education has been recognized not only as consumption but also as an investment for both the individual and society (Schultz, 1963; Maltby, 1966; Blaug, 1970; Brown, 1981). Therefore, the education of an individual is seen as contributing to improvements in not only the individual's social and economic well being but also in the society as a whole. Since individuals are not equally endowed financially, socially, and intellectually to enable them to gain equal access to education, it thus becomes necessary for the government to ensure that all individuals, irrespective of their financial, social or intellectual hardships, have access to education. Furthermore, Jones (1985:12) points out that:

Whereas the economics of education addresses primarily the allocation of resources among competing uses, school finance is concerned with the distribution of education's benefits and burdens among various population groups ... burdens ... in the form of taxes, tuitions, fees, and charges

Thus, the concept of equity emerges from the government's role in ensuring accessibility to education by all individuals under fair distribution of costs within constraints of limited resources.

The concept of equity will now be examined by giving consideration to the different views of equity which have been espoused by philosophical and school finance scholars, along with an explication of some of the problems inherent in trying to create a balance between student and taxpayer equity.

Various Views of Equity

McMahon (1982:16) defines equity as "a redistribution of resources (or of costs) designed to achieve the community's philosophical and ethical standards of fairness" whereas Jones (1985:4) views equity as "justice and fairness in the treatment of individuals." Alexander (1982:194) notes that justice implies equality. Thus equity encompasses equality, but "equity is more than equality ... it (equity) is abstract and less susceptible to definition. Equality, on the other hand, as a general standard conveys an element of prescription and measurability" (Alexander, 1982:195).

The 18th century German philosopher, Kant, viewed equity as founded upon "right" rather than upon the principles of beneficence, benevolence, or charity. His "right" was natural (innate right) as well as positive (founded upon judicial acts), but for him "the innate right is the obligation which equity must address" (cited in Alexander, 1982:195).

According to Sampson (1975), the principle of equity was reintroduced and reemphasized in the late nineteenth century due to the advent of Darwinism. Social

Darwinism, in particular, viewed inequalities not as the result of man's fall from his natural state of Shangri-la but rather as

the outcome of open competition in which those investing most by the way of strength, ingenuity, skill, native talent, and so forth, received the most favored outcomes; those who were weaker and unfit to compete deserved the lesser outcomes which they received. In its later form, this view stressed the need for all men to have equal opportunities to compete openly in order to receive the unequal rewards due those who won in this fair and just competitive struggle (p. 50).

In our Western culture, these "unequal rewards" are justified, according to Sampson (1975:50), "on the basis of inputs among persons who, however, have had equality of opportunity to compete individually to achieve these outcomes."

A cursory search through the related periodicals, journals and books revealed that there were only "bits and pieces" of information on equity as it relates to student and taxpayer equity, and a clear, concise definition of equity in this regard could not be found. However, an article entitled "Concepts of Equity and their Relationship to School Finance Plans" by Berne and Stiefel (1979:109-132) treated the subject of equity in a very comprehensive manner, and it is from this article that most of the following ideas have been taken.

Berne and Stiefel agree that there is a difficulty in defining equity, but they do attempt to define equity as:

specifying fair and unfair treatment of individuals and making choices that distinguish one concept of equity from another, often on the basis of personal values.

Also, like most writers on this topic, they classify equity into two main categories, equity for students and equity for taxpayers. In trying to analyze the different aspects of equity for each group, the authors use three equity components (the object, principle and measure) which will now be discussed in the two sections that follow.

Student Equity

What are the types of objects that might be distributed equitably throughout an educational system? Viewing education as an input-output mechanism, an evaluator of the system could use educational inputs as the object to be distributed equitably. These inputs could be measured in a number of ways, such as revenues or expenditures per child, cost adjusted revenues or expenditures per child, or real resources such as teachers or supplies per child. The output of the education system is a second possible category of objects which could be measured by the number of years of schooling completed or by achievement test scores.

Finally, some people's concern for educational equity is viewed as a relationship between education and the distribution of lifetime outcomes; therefore, outcomes (such as lifetime income, satisfaction, or status) could be used as the object.

What are the equity principles that might be used in evaluating equity of the objects used in the education system? According to Berne and Stiefel, the equity principle pin-points the "criterion that will be used to evaluate how equitably the object is distributed among the group members." These include the principles of horizontal equity, vertical equity, and equal opportunity.

The vertical equity principle is used when some members of the group are judged to be more or less deserving of the object than others. In other words, it can be described as "the unequal treatment of unequals." Students who exhibit learning disabilities fall into this category and, no doubt, would require larger revenues per child than "normal" children.

The horizontal equity principle refers to the "equal treatment of equals." In this case the assumption is made that each member of a particular group of students should receive the same amount of the object being distributed on the basis of the fact that the group is perceived as consisting of equally deserving members.

The equal opportunity principle refers to the absence of discrimination with regard to such attributes as sex, race, or wealth. It is often felt that pupils from poor districts and minority groups are denied equal opportunity and, in fact, receive less of a particular object than their counterparts from more affluent districts.

Can the equity of an educational system be measured? By using one of two broad classes of measures - namely, the dispersion-type and the relationship-type - it can be measured; however, within each type there are many alternative measures which entail value judgments and, unfortunately, research has shown that the same conclusions do not always result from using alternative measures.

Taxpayer Equity

The foregoing discussion has been concerned entirely with equity of the educational system as it relates to students, but equity in educational finance also applies to those who pay for the educational system - the taxpayers. Hence, the following discussion will look at some of the conceptual underpinnings relevant to taxpayer equity using the same foci as in the previous section, namely, the object of concern and the equity principles involved.

The major object of concern is tax incidence by ability to pay. This is a complex problem since the tax incidence, in some cases, may not be an economic onus for the one who pays the tax. For example, some property owners transfer some of the burden of property taxes to their renters. Also, two individuals may have the same aggregate income that may result in one case from all wages but in the other case from all rent. Consequently, each individual would be viewed as having the same income for tax purposes, but it could be contended that these individuals should not be treated as being equal since one had to forfeit leisure to earn wages whereas the other did not (Broadway & Kitchen, 1980:19). In addition, the criteria used to assess the taxpayers' ability to pay are far from perfect, and there is also the concern of whether taxpayers with no children should pay different amounts of tax, not to mention the variation of service inflows which exists among taxpayers.

Equity appears to be achieved with property tax, an important source of school board revenue, under a system where an equal amount of tax is paid by owners of property with the same value, provided that the value of the property is related to income levels of the owners. In practice, however, the value of the property may not be related to the income level of the owner such as in the case of a retired person occupying his own home. In such situations, equal taxes on property with the same value may not meet the principle of ability to pay. To achieve equity in property tax under such circumstances would call for the provision of some grants to home owners with low income levels. The personal income tax, on the other hand, from which educational revenues are also derived, appears to be equitable since it, by design, gives equal treatment to equals and is consistent with the principle of ability to pay.

Like student equity, then, taxpayer equity also involves the principles of horizontal and vertical equity. The former, in this case, refers to "equal tax incidence for taxpayers with equal ability to pay," whereas the latter refers to "the variation in tax incidence associated with different levels of ability to pay" (Berne & Stiefel 1979:117). According to Berne and Stiefel, there are two problems associated with these two principles of equity, apart from calculating the measurement of incidence or assessing the taxpayers' ability to pay. These problems are:

1. since service inflows are bound to vary across taxpayer units, it may not be appropriate to examine tax incidence separate from service inflows.
2. since education taxes are only part of the tax system it may not make sense to separately assess taxes for education.

Obviously, such methodological and conceptual difficulties pose problems for school finance authorities in their quest for equity in assessing tax burdens.

Conclusion

It appears that, in educational finance, no clear, concise definition of equity exists for the simple reason that there are so many different standards of equity for students and taxpayers. In addition, these different standards yield different results, depending on the statistical measure used and the value judgments inherent in the evaluation. Although there are a number of choices regarding equity in the complex school finance system, the ultimate aim will always be a fair trade-off between the quality of children's experiences at school and an equitable distribution of tax liabilities among taxpayers.

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**THE ACADEMIC STANDING OF EDUCATION STUDENTS
AT MEMORIAL UNIVERSITY***

L. Pereira-Mendoza
Department of Curriculum & Instruction

J.W. Bulcock
Institute for Educational Research & Development

In the winter of 1988 a Review Committee on Teacher Education at Memorial University assigned the authors the task of evaluating the academic standing of Faculty of Education graduates. The committee was chaired by Dr. Madeline I. Hardy, former Superintendent of schools, City of London, Ontario. The six other Committee members were representatives of the major educational constituencies in the Province - the Department of Education, the Newfoundland Teachers' Association, the Denominational Educational Councils, the Post-Secondary Educational System, the University and the Faculty of Education. The Review Committee's report was published in November 1988 and is available from the Office of Dean, Faculty of Education.

This article deals with that part of the academic standing project which addressed the question: Is there a difference in academic performance between education graduates and non-education graduates? The question is both relevant and timely. To meet their mandate universities must gain public confidence, and to do so they must foster excellence in education. Most universities, therefore, establish guidelines for assessing institutional effectiveness, often in the form of program accreditation. In most respects Memorial University is no exception, but so far the Faculty of education has been exempted from this accountability unless one counts the Review Committee's assessment.

In the United Kingdom, for example, every three years the Universities Funding Council publishes quality ratings of each university by subject - Economics, English Literature, Chemistry, and so on. The rating categories range from 1 (little or no national excellence) through 5 (international excellence in many areas, national excellence in all others). The UK ratings were last reported in September 1989. They reaffirmed the preeminence of the universities in the Cambridge - Oxford - London triangle. This kind of approach was not available to the authors. Instead a procedure was adopted which compared the quality of the Faculty of Education student body with the quality of the student body in other faculties and schools, rather than the quality of the institution itself. Two standards were invoked: first year grades and average performance in academic majors.

The first reason for conducting the study, then, was to find out whether the standards of academic excellence which prevail in the university as a whole were being met by education students. There are other reasons for conducting comparative studies of the ACSTAN variety. Such assessments, for example, encourage institutional improvement through recurrent self-evaluation. They reassure the public, the academic community, and above all the teaching profession that the institution has clearly defined educational objectives, and that it has established the conditions for meeting them. They also protect institutions from misleading and ill-founded myths that can jeopardize their educational effectiveness, their integrity and their academic freedom.

There seems to be a general impression that Faculty of Education students are weak. The 1986 Report of the Royal Commission on Employment and Unemployment, Building on Our Strengths, reinforced this with its unverified claim that "A minimum average of 55 percent ... as an entrance requirement (to the Faculty of Education) does not ensure that students in the Faculty are meeting the standards that must be reached if they are to be well prepared for ... being a teacher" (p.221). To what extent this view is accurate or to what extent it is simply a reinforcement of the global impression that education students and faculty generally do not measure up to their counterparts in other academic units of the university is unknown. Certainly there is evidence from other sources (Weaver, 1979; Shields and Richards, 1982 to cite but two) that education students tend to perform poorly compared to students in other fields. But is this the case at Memorial University? In the remainder of this article we address this question. The question turns out to have a complex answer. In general, however, Educational graduates from Memorial University achieve academic standards which compare favourably on most yardsticks with those achieved by non-education students.

THE DATA BASE

The sample selected for the study consisted of all the 1987 graduates in the Faculties of Arts, Business Administration, Education and Science, and the Schools of Music, Physical Education and Social Work. Data for students in other Faculties and Schools were not available. All students who started their degree programs prior to the 1980-81 academic year were eliminated. They were not considered typical of the 1987 Memorial graduates. Transfer students from other universities were eliminated for the same reason. Invoking these constraints resulted in the sample size being reduced from 1066 to 1036. The sample is described by degree program in Table 1.

The information required for analysis purposes was abstracted from counselling reports and academic transcripts made available to the researchers through the Office of the Registrar. Once the relevant information had been compiled in machine readable form the counselling reports and transcripts were shredded. The data were written on a file which made it virtually impossible for any individual to be identified, thus ensuring respondent anonymity.

Research Questions

Because most students at Memorial take two English courses (English 1000 and 1001), two psychology courses (Psychology 1000 and 1001) and two courses in mathematics (Mathematics 1010 and 1011) graduates from different faculties and schools can be compared in terms of first year performance in these subjects. English is a requirement for entry into all schools and faculties; psychology is required for entry into the social sciences, education and most health science fields; while mathematics is a mandatory requirement for entry into the faculties of science, engineering and medicine. Graduates can also be compared by major. For example, average first year marks in English can be compared between education students and non-education students by major field of study or area of academic concentration. In addition,

TABLE 1
Number of Graduates by Degree Program

Degree Program	N	% of Total
Arts	21	21.3
Commerce	59	5.7
Education*	391	37.7
Music	10	1.0
Nursing	73	7.0
Physical Education	11	1.0
Science	242	23.4
Social Work	50	2.8
Totals	1036	99.9

* Education includes the following degree categories: Conjoint B.A/B.Ed., B. Music,

Conjoint B.Sc./B.Ed., B.Ed. Primary, B.Ed. Elementary, B. Vocational Ed., B.A(Ed.), B.Ed, Conjoint B.P.E./B.Ed., and B. Special Ed. Thus, Music graduates do = include those in Music Education, Science graduates do t141 include those who graduated with a conjoint B.Sc-B.Ed. etc.

comparisons can be made between graduates in terms of average marks on majors; that is, in terms of average standing on their academic majors. Another common yardstick for comparing education and non-education students is by a variable called cumulative average (CUMAVE) or the aggregate standing of a student in the first year courses taken in the first two semesters. The CUMAVE variable is a proxy variable which is used to represent a student's early academic performance; hence, it can be used to indicate the abilities of students recruited to the different programs, schools or faculties in the university.

Given student achievement in first year English, psychology and mathematics; given their major fields of study and their aggregate academic standing in their major field; and given their cumulative average in first year courses, it is possible to investigate the matter of the academic standing of students in different faculties and schools by addressing four interrelated questions. These are as follows:

1. What are the differences between the students in the different faculties and schools in terms of their academic performance in first year subjects; namely, English, psychology and mathematics?
2. What are the differences between education and non-education students in first year subjects by major? For example, do education students majoring in English literature perform at the same level as non-education English majors in first year subjects?
3. How well do education students perform compared to non-education students in terms of their average standing in major field courses?

4. What differences prevail between graduates in the various faculties and schools in terms of their cumulative averages in the first two semesters?

Strict comparisons between all Faculty of Education students and the students in other faculties and schools are not possible for two reasons. First, most education students on the primary and elementary degree program do not take academic mathematics or Mathematics 1010 and 1011. Instead, they take mathematics courses specially tailored to their needs as future primary and elementary school teachers; namely, Mathematics 1150 and 1151. Second, students in the primary and elementary education degree programs do not have a major field with at least eight courses. Instead, they take a concentration of not more than six courses, often in two fields, which means that they do not specialize in a single academic area to the same extent as either students on the secondary education degree program or students in the arts or science faculties. The same applies, albeit to a lesser degree, in regard to students in the secondary education program compared to arts and science students. The arts and science students usually take more than the eight course minimum required for a major. In general, students on the more highly specialized degree programs will outperform their counterparts who are less specialized. These caveats should be borne in mind when interpreting the results presented below.

A Note on Reliability and Validity

Before presenting the findings a note is in order about the reliability and validity of the variables. First, we address the question: How valid are first year grades as predictors of university outcomes? In other words, does the variable cumulative first year average measure what it purports to measure? Second, we address what in this instance is the more difficult question: How reliable or how accurate are average grades in first year courses? If the criteria being used for making the comparisons between the academic standing of education and non-education students lack reliability and validity there is no point in conducting the study at all. Hence, answers to these questions are of some relevance.

There are several ways to approach the problem of establishing the validity of an instrument. The most commonly used is an estimate of criterion related validity. This is the type of validity used when a score on one test is used to predict standing on another test. In the present case we would argue that first year grades are valid if they can accurately predict aggregate degree standing, or final academic standing some three or four years later. The prediction coefficient or measure of criterion validity is standardized so that it ranges from zero through one; where zero refers to no predictive value and one to perfect prediction. Determinism, or perfect prediction, is an unattainable ideal. For the 1,036 1987 graduates the criterion validity was 0.75 (0.749 to be more precise). Such a coefficient only assumes meaning, however, in the context of other validity studies.

The most common validity studies have been conducted by psychometricians who have used scholastic aptitude tests (formerly called IQ tests) to predict college and university grades, performances on law school admissions tests and the like. In 1980 the Educational Testing Service (ETS) in the United States reported the average criterion validity for some 827 such studies. It was 0.41. (See the ETS report, Test Use and Validity 1980). The criterion validity found for the Memorial CUMAVE variable,

while far from being deterministic, may be interpreted to mean that there is a high probability that weak first-year students will remain weak students.

When this interpretation was checked against the data it was found that only 17 percent of the Arts' graduates who had less than a 60 percent cumulative average in first year graduated with degree averages greater than 64 percent. Similarly, only 9 percent of the weak students in first year who subsequently went into the Science faculty graduated with an average of greater than 64 percent.

In the case of reliability, the situation is problematic for a number of technical reasons which are not discussed here. In effect, the reliability of variables based on different metrics (different faculty members have different marking criteria) cannot be estimated. In first year courses, however, final examination papers of the essay variety are "gang" marked. Professors do not necessarily mark the papers belonging to their own students and, often, one professor will mark the same question on a large number of papers. First year coordinators also ensure that common criteria are invoked when marking. The problems are less acute in psychology where examinations are of the multiple choice variety. And in Mathematics, similarly, the criteria tend to be fairly objective.

Thus, although reliabilities may not be forthcoming for the first year courses, there is a good deal of evidence suggesting that efforts are made to maximize the accuracy and consistency of test evaluation. Most important, however, is the knowledge that criterion-related validity cannot exceed the square root of the product of the reliabilities of the test and its criterion. What this means is that a reliability coefficient cannot be less than the validity coefficient. If we go back to the variable of interest here (namely, cumulative average in first year), then we know that since its reliability cannot be less than its validity, its reliability must be equal to or greater than .749. The usual rule of thumb used by psychometricians in these matters is to recommend that reliability coefficients be at least 0.70. We amply meet this criterion with respect to first year average (CUMAVE).

FINDINGS

Each set of the findings which follow deals with a single research question. They are addressed in the same order as they were formulated above. The brief discussion of the findings related to each question is designed to interpret the findings in terms of the problem addressed, namely, "Is the academic standing of Faculty of Education students equal to or different than that of non-education students?"

Question # 1: What are the differences between the students in different faculties and schools in terms of their academic performance in first year subjects, namely, English, psychology and mathematics?

The standing of education students compared to students in other faculties and schools in these three basic subjects is presented in Table 2. Although education students ranked seventh out of eight in English, they were only marginally behind students in arts, commerce, and science. Similarly, in first year psychology, education students ranked sixth but their average grade was less than 0.4 of a standard deviation behind that of business and nursing students.

Arts	6	9	217	65	10	18	55	16	178
Commerce	1	.	59	69	.7	7	67	.0	59
Education	6	4	391	65	8.	54	61	12	226**
Music	1	7	9	73	5	37	61	.1	2
Nursing	5	.	65	68	9.	1	63	13	54
Physical Ed.	9	6	11	63	8	5	59	.3	11
Science	6	7	237	71	7.	73	68	19	242
Social Work	4	.	28	73	4	11	58	.4	21
Total Population	6	5	101	67	7.	17	62	11	793
	2	6	7		0	5		.4	
	5	.			11	28		11	
	4	4			.8	90		.5	
	6	6			10	4		14	
	1	.			.1			.2	
	6	2			7.			9.	
	5	7			6			6	
	6	.			10			14	
	0	4			.1			.7	
		8							
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- * ENGAGE: Average of first year marks in English 1000 and 1001
 PSYAVE: Average of first year marks in Psychology 1000 and 1001
 MATAVE: Average of first marks in Mathematics 1010 and 1011

- ** Note that Faculty of Education students in primary education and elementary education programs do not take Math 1010 and IOU. Instead, these students take Mathematics for teachers -- Math 1150 and 1151. This accounts for the smaller number of Education students in the MATAVE column compared to the ENGAGE and PSYAVE columns.

Education graduates, in addition to taking professional courses, complete majors in a content area of teaching. Thus, students who majored in a particular discipline can be compared to see whether those entering education performed as well as those who did not enter education. Here, in Tables 3 through 5, we compare education students with non-education students in nine "major" groups in terms of first year marks in English, Psychology and Mathematics. In accordance with the findings related to question #1 where it was shown that in Mathematics the aggregate performance of education students may be higher when primary and elementary program students are excluded, the comparisons are also made between education graduates on the secondary program and non-education students.

In row one of Table 3 education students majoring in biology are compared to non-education students majoring in biology in terms of their first year marks in English. The assumption is that if education students taking the same majors as non-education

students are consistently outperformed, then one could infer that the academic standards achieved by education students would be inferior to those achieved by non-education students. But such claims can rarely be supported without reservation. Overall, in so far as first year English and psychology marks are concerned, the non-education students majoring in English, French and History outperform the education students majoring in the same fields. Some weak students in these major fields end up graduating in education. But, in major fields such as biology, geography, mathematics, physical education, psychology and religious studies, the differences between education students and non-education students are either negligible or in favour of education students. One should note that when primary and elementary education graduates are removed from consideration in all but history and French the secondary program education students hold their own or outperform non-education graduates major for major.

In the special case of first year mathematics which most primary and elementary program graduates do not take, education students were only outperformed by those majoring in biology and religious studies. In fact, the education students majoring in mathematics performed as well as non-education mathematics majors in first year mathematics, and they significantly outperformed non-education students majoring in French, geography and history.

Question #3: How well do education students perform compared to noneducation students in terms of their average standing in major field courses?

Non-education mathematics graduates average 65.8 percent in their combined mathematics courses while education students majoring in mathematics average 68.0 percent. The advantage goes to education students majoring in mathematics. But, is this difference statistically significant? In Table 6 an F-test is conducted showing that there is no statistically significant difference between the two groups. F-tests are also conducted for differences between education and non-education students on average marks for biology, English, French, geography and history majors, as well as for Math majors. The results show no significant differences in biology, geography, history and Mathematics. But in English and

TABLE 3

Comparisons between Education Students and Non-Education Students in First Year English by Major'

Students	English Averages					
	Education Students**			Non-Education		
Major	X	SD	N	X	SD	N
Biology	63 (63)	4.8 (4.8)	11 (11)	63	8.1	51
English	60 (64)	7.3 (7.5)	133 (37)	66	7.9	43
French	60 (63)	7.7 (5.7)	38 (18)	67	8.8	26
Geography	58 (59)	7.6 (7.7)	25 (16)	55	7.1	40
History	55 (56)	5.0 (5.9)	23 (16)	63	9.3	25
Mathematics	60 (59)	7.9 (6.9)	29 (22)	58	9.3	40
Physical Education	59 (59)	6.9 (7.0)	43 (42)	54	7.4	11
Psychology	61 (61)	10.1 (10.5)	12 (11)	63	8.9	56
Religious Studies	58 (61)	7.3 (6.7)	44 (15)	57	9.9	12
Entire Population	59	7.5	391 (188)	61	8.6	626

* Either there were blank cells or too few cases to ensure the anonymity of cases in the following majors: anthropology, biochemistry, business administration, chemistry, computer science, earth science, economics, German/Russian, linguistics, nursing, philosophy, physics, political science, social work, sociology, sociology/anthropology, music.

** The results presented in parentheses for education graduates are for the education sub-sample after subtracting the primary and elementary graduates.

TABLE 4

Comparisons between Education Students and Non-Education Students in First Year Psychology by Major*

Students	Psychology Averages 1000/1001					
	Education Students			Non-Education		
Major	X	SD	N	X	SD	N
Biology	73 (73)	9.2 (9.2)	10 (10)	72	10	43
English	63 (66)	9.0 (10.9)	130 (34)	67	10.2	40
French	67 (67)	9.8 (9.9)	36 (16)	71	14.9	19
Geography	65 (68)	10.0 (10.4)	24 (15)	66	8	30
History	58 (59)	9.9 (10.0)	21 (14)	65	9.1	19
Mathematics	70 (70)	10.9 (11.2)	25 (18)	68	10.6	32
Physical Education	65 (65)	8.9 (9.0)	43 (42)	63	11.8	11
Psychology	70 (70)	9.9 (10.3)	12 (11)	71	8.8	56
Religious Studies	63 (66)	8.1 (7.4)	42 (13)	62	9.7	9
Entire Population	65	9.8	371 (173)	68	10	533

* Either there were blank cells or too few cases to ensure the anonymity of cases in the Wowing majors: anthropology, biochemistry, business administration, chemistry, computer science, earth science, economics, German/Russian, linguistics, nursing, philosophy, physics, political science, social work, sociology, sociology/anthropology, music.

** The results presented in parentheses for education graduates are for the education sub-sample after subtracting the primary and elementary graduates.

TABLE 5

Comparisons between Education Students and Non-Education Students in First Year Mathematics by Major*

Students	Math Averages 1000/1001					
	Education Students			Non-Education		
Major	X	SD	N	X	SD	N
Biology	62 (62)	11.5 (11.5)	11 (11)	68	13.7	51
English	60 (59)	14.7 (16.1)	55 (33)	56	14	34
French	64 (66)	12.5 (12.3)	19 (14)	63	19.4	23
Geography	58 (60)	13.7 (11.6)	18 (14)	54	13	41
History	57 (56)	10.9 (10.6)	11 (10)	51	17.8	22
Mathematics	71 (72)	12.2 (10.3)	28 (22)	72	12	42
Physical Education	61 (61)	10.8 (10.8)	40 (40)	59	11.5	11
Psychology	59 (60)	11.0 (11.6)	8 (7)	60	13.4	56
Religious Studies	47 (47)	9.7 (9.9)	132 (10)	62	9	9
Entire Population	61	13.3	226 (161)	62	15.3	567

* Either there were blank cells or too few cases to ensure the anonymity of cases in the following majors: anthropology, biochemistry, business administration, chemistry, computer science, earth science, economics, German/Russian, linguistics, nursing, philosophy, physics, political science, social work, sociology, sociology/anthropology, music.

** The results presented in parentheses for education graduates are for the education subsample after subtracting the primary and elementary graduates.

TABLE 6

Comparisons between Education Graduates and Non-Education Graduates on Average Marks in Major

Major	X	SD	F-ratio	Sig	N
1.0 Biology Majors					
Total Biology Majors	70.5	6.4	1.49	0.22	62
Non-Education Biology Majors	71.0	6.6			51
Education Biology Majors	68.4	4.7			11
2.0 English Majors					
Total English Majors	62.7	6.7	31.33	0	176
Non-Education English Majors	67.2	6.3			43
Education English Majors	61.2	6.1			133
3.0 French Majors					
Total French Majors	66.8	8.7	15.23	0	64
Non-Education French Majors	71.5	8.3			26
Education French Majors	63.7	7.5			38
4.0 Geography Majors					
Total Geography Majors	66.2	4.8	0.53	0.474	66
Non-Education Geography Majors	65.9	3.8			25
Education Geography Majors	66.7	6.2			1
5.0 History Majors					
Total History Majors	65.8	7.8	1.08	0.3	49
Non-Education History Majors	68.7	8.6			26
Education History Majors	62.6	5.1			23
6.0 Math Majors					

Total Math Majors	66.7	8.7			71
Non-Education Math Majors	65.8	8.8	1.08	0.3	42
Education Math Majors	68.0	8.5			29

French the differences were significant in favour of non-education students. Nevertheless, the overall findings confirm those generated by answers to questions one and two. Education students are rarely weaker than non-education students no matter which criterion one wishes to use.

Question #4: What differences prevail between graduates in the various faculties and schools in terms of their cumulative averages in the first two semesters?

So far in this discussion of the findings we have addressed three questions. They have dealt with how education graduates compare to non-education graduates in terms of first year academic performance; how education students who took the same major as non-education students compare on first year academic performance, and how education students taking a particular major compare in terms of major course average.

We have found that differences do indeed exist but that there is little support for the position held by the Royal Commission on Employment and Unemployment which reported in 1986 suggesting that Faculty of Education graduates fall behind graduates in other programs in terms of their academic performance. In fact, we have been able to show that education students who have graduated from the secondary program in education generally outperform their non-education counterparts. Except in English and French the average academic standing of education students in a range of majors is as high as or higher than the academic standing of non-education students on the same majors. But, in fact, we have been including primary and elementary students in our education student data base and these students take six course concentrations rather than eight (or more) course majors. Obviously one would expect the more specialized students to perform better than the less specialized.

While the Faculty of Education graduates cannot be said to be different in any major academic respect from non-education students in terms of specific first year courses and academic majors, the same cannot be said for cumulative averages in the first two semesters. As the data in Table 7 show, education students fall a third of a standard deviation or more behind students in commerce, music, science and social work. This is confirmed by the data in Table 8. Only 105 education students out of 391, or 27 percent, had cumulative averages in first year greater than or equal to 65 percent. In other words, only a minority of students entered the faculty of Education with a "B" standing. In commerce and science on the other hand, a majority of the students were "B" students.

These findings seem paradoxical. On the one hand, major for major, education graduates perform as well as or better than non-education graduates; on the other hand, students entering the Faculty of Education have lower first year cumulative averages than non-education graduates. One explanation is probably grounded in the fact that education students are predominantly from rural areas of the Province. Their initial academic standing historically has tended to be lower than that of urban students. By the time of graduation, rural students in education usually manage to bridge most of the gap, but this explanation cannot be developed here. Another study is called for.

TABLE 7

**Differences between Faculties and Schools in Terms of the
Cumulative Averages of Students in their First Two Terms**

Faculty/School	Cumulative Average		
	X	SD	N
Arts	62	9	220
Commerce	66	7.4	59
Education	61	7.9	391
Music	65	4	10
Nursing	64	7.2	73
Physical Education	57	8.7	11
Science	66	9	242
Social Work	67	8.6	29
Total Population	63	8.6	1035

TABLE 8

**Comparisons Between Faculties and Schools in Terms of
Cumulative Average in First Two Semesters**

Cumulative Averages, First Two Semesters	Faculties and Schools											
	Arts		Commerce		E ducation		Nursing		Science		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Less Than 55	47	21. 3	3	5.1	81	20.7	4	5.5	26	10.7	161	16.3
55-59	46	20. 8	10	16.9	110	28.1	15	20. 5	28	11.6	209	21.3
60-64	54	24. 4	13	22.0	95	24.3	20	27. 4	61	25.2	243	24.6
65-69	34	15. 4	16	27.1	52	13.3	19	26. 0	45	18.6	166	16.8
70-99	40	18. 1	17	28.8	53	13.6	15	20. 5	82	33.9	207	21.0
TOTAL	221	100. .1	59	100. 0	391	100. 0	73	100. .0	242	100. 0	986	100.0

CONCLUSION

What can be said about the performance of education students in selected first year courses? In general primary and elementary students performed less well than other education students. Students on the high school program majoring in science performed as well as and often better than their non-education counterparts on corresponding majors, while students in the high school program majoring in arts performed a little worse than their non-education counterparts. The academic differences in terms of first year courses between education and non-education students were not found to be substantial and, further, they contradict the myth that, in general, Memorial University education students are weak.

Even though academic standing differences were not substantial with respect to courses, three general trends are noted. First, education students have low cumulative averages at the end of their first two university terms - almost 50 percent have averages less than 60 which are low relative to most other faculties and schools. Second, the high school program graduates achieved at or above the level of non-education graduates. Third, the primary and elementary program graduates perform below the level attained by non-education students. In sum, there is little support for the global claim in the Royal Commission on Employment and Unemployment that students in the Faculty of Education fail to meet the standards of non-education students.

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