society and education in newfoundland

volume I

edited by

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Preface

This is a second anthology consisting of articles which have been published in the *Morning Watch* over a period of five years (1977-1982). The first anthology was published 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* covering the period from 1973 to 1977.

It is worthwhile to say a few words about the origin of the *Morning Watch.* Dr. W.J. Gushue, a former Head of the Department of Educational Foundations, was instrumental in helping with the launching of the *Morning Watch*. Publication commenced in 1973 and has continued through the Committee on Publication, 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 – 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 nine years faculty members from various departments in the Faculty of Education and from other faculties of the university have written articles for the *Morning Watch.*

The orientation of this journal remains the same. 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 forgoing 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 analysing 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 his/her 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 mankind in today's interdependent world and the

relationship of such problems to the individual's everyday life-style wherever he/she might live. This larger perspective on education and society makes sense to us because Newfoundland society and culture are going through rapid transformation under the impact of economic and technological forces such as the discovery of off-shore oil, re-organization of fisheries in the province and renegotiation of "hydro" power agreements. It is hoped that many articles written in the future for the *Morning Watch will* analyse the role of these new forces in the educational and social concerns.

A.S.
I.J.B.

St. John's
March, 1982

Introduction

There are **two Volumes** to this anthology: Volume One contains Parts I and II, and **Volume Two** consists of Parts III to VI. Altogether there are six parts to the anthology.

Part I includes articles dealing with larger issues pertaining to *Society and Education.*

Part II focuses on *Social Organization of The School.* This part is divided into three sections: (A) The Teachers in the School, (B) The Student in the School and (C) The School as a Complex Organization.

Part III discusses the *Content of Education.* This part is divided into four sections: (A) The Language Arts, (B) Values in the Curriculum, (C) Science Education and (D) Social Studies.

Part IV analyses the *Organization of Learning and Socialization.*

Part V deals *Early Childhood Issues.* Articles in this part are written from the perspectives of educational psychology. The article by Dr. N. Garlie was originally published in Vol. 2, No. 3, 1975, pp. 8-10, *The Morning Watch.* Similarly, the article by Dr. W. Nesbit, "Light or Heat?..... was first published in Vol. 3, No. 3, 1976, pp. 11-16.

Part VI includes articles dealing with *Continuing Education* and with emerging issues such as *Social and Educational Gerontology.*

A.S.
I.J.B.

Acknowledgment

We wish to thank all the authors who have contributed to the *Morning Watch* since its inception as well as those who have written for it more recently. We sincerely hope that in future others will also decide to write for the *Morning Watch* as our society and culture encounter the coming of oil-related and other is part is divided into changes. It is also obvious that the *Morning Watch* cannot exist without the ant in the School and support of the Committee on Publication, Faculty of Education, Memorial University. We are very grateful to the Committee.

Finally, as we have said earlier, any work of this kind requires collaboration, co-operation, commitment in terms of time, energy and morale and, above all, the understanding of various people. We wish to thank Dean Brose Paddock for his generous support. Special thanks are due to staff members at the Duplicating Centre and to Maureen, Brenda, Sharon, Phil and Marina who as a team helped us in preparing the manuscript for this anthology.

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

A.S.
I.J.B.

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PART I

Society and Education (1-48)

EDUCATION IN NEWFOUNDLAND: PROJECTIONS AND PROSPECTS TO 2001

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In 1976, Newfoundland had the highest fertility rate of any province in Canada, although surpassed by a comfortable margin by the Northwest Territories. In terms of potential population growth, only Newfoundland, Saskatchewan, Yukon, and the Northwest Territories were on the positive side of the line: all the others had fertility rates which would lead to negative population growth in the long run, i.e., the position where the number of deaths exceeded the number of births, and of course Canada as a whole was well below the line, since the fertility rates in the two giants of Ontario and Quebec were far down the list (sharing the bottom position with British Columbia). This demographic feature of potential negative population growth (NOT zero population growth) prevails throughout the industrialized world, and indeed actual population losses (i.e., more deaths than births) are now being recorded in Austria, East Germany, West Germany, Luxembourg and, for the first time in her recorded history - except for the period of the Great Plague - by England and Wales in 1976. Since by 1991, or even earlier, the demographers at Statistics Canada project that only the Northwest Territories will be (slightly) above the simple replacement level, our future seems assured, i.e., inevitable losses in total population in time.

Of the two factors in the "Natural Increase" equation of "Births minus Deaths", it is only the number of births that has been and still is changing rapidly - and downwards. Mortality at all ages has been lowered steadily over the years and, although still improving, has more or less levelled out for most ages. With expectation of life now nudging 80 years at birth, substantial progress in further lowering of the death rates will occur only if medical science can defeat the few remaining great "killers" such as heart disease and cancer (in which case expectation of 120 years at birth would be a not unreasonable level). But births and birth rates are of a different pattern, in that both the actual number of births and the rates seem to steadily follow the path downward to even lower levels, with little evidence of relief in sight. Indeed, even for Newfoundland, the Task Force on Declining School Enrolments forecast a drop in the size of the average family from the 1976 level of 2.4 to 1.5 children before the 1990's, the low level likely to be reached by the rest of Canada (except for the Northwest Territories) long before that date - probably by the long awaited science-fiction date of the Brave New World in 1984.

Obviously, with births being the fact affected immediately and most strongly, the schools are going to be the second organized public structure in our society to bear the brunt of the losses of children, i.e., the absence of the babies who were NOT born (certain branches of medicine, and the maternity wards and hospitals have already adjusted to the loss of "customers", as indeed have the manufacturers of food, clothing, and toys for infants). As a matter of fact, in all provinces the effects have been noticeable in the early grades of school ever since about 1971, since the 1966 census showed the first actual decrease in number of children under 5 years of age in Canada. Actually, by 1977 the decreases were noticeable in Newfoundland itself in all grades below Grade 8 (but excluding the Kindergartens which were still being developed). The pattern for Grade 2, normally one of the most stable, was as follows in recent years (I added the 3 Task Force 1977-78 projections, as a foretaste of what is to come).

Year (Fall)	1968–	1969–	1970–	1971–	1972–	1973–	1974–	1975–	1976–	1977–	1997 (Task Force)		
											A	B	C
Grade 2 Fall Enrolment	15169	14904	14523	14645	14179	13804	13825	12593	12598	12314	9104	11386	8539

Better to understand what happened, and to show clearly the pattern for at least the immediate future, I have shown in Table 1 the actual number of births from 1959 to 1976, and the Task Force and Statistics Canada Projections to 1991, and Statistics Canada on to 1995.

It is convenient to record, and to comment upon, the set of assumptions as to family size made by the Task Force.

> "Projections A, B and C are based on age specified fertility rates for women 15-49 years of age. Projection A assumes a family size of 2.5 in 1981, 2.0 in 1986, and 1.5 in 1991. Projection B assumes a family size of 2.0 in 1981, and 2.0 in 1991. Projection C assumes a family size of 2.0 in 1981, 1.5 in 1986, and 1.5 in 1991."

(They did not refer to net migration, but Statistics Canada forecasts this at -2,900 per year during 1978 to 1981, -3,900 during 1981 to 1986, and -3,800 per year during 1986 to 1991. Family Allowances statistics of interprovincial transfers of children, to be referred to later, show a fairly steady pattern of losses, so the net migration is probably mainly of young couples and their children and of other young persons.) I believe that Projection A is too optimistic at the beginning, but too pessimistic by 1991; Projection B is somewhat unrealistic, since the family size shows no evidence of remaining constant; Projection C seems to me to be more reasonable, but possibly too pessimistic towards the end. For Newfoundland, I have worked with family sizes of 2.4 in 1976, 2.0 in 1981, 1.8 in 1986, and 1.6 in 1991 with 1.5 being a possibility by 2001, but probably too low. However, these differences are not that great, and certainly there is general agreement on the patterns of fertility for the rest of the century.

It should be noted that, despite the decreases in births, the total population of the province will increase (at lower rates, it is true) to the end of the century, but the school-age group 5-17 years will be greatly and negatively affected. The figures given by Statistics Canada, with percentage increases, are shown in Table 2, but for the 5-17 year olds only from 1976 onwards since we are more interested in the future school

Table 1

Actual and Projected Live Births in Newfoundland

Actual Births			Projected Births			
Year	Number	Year	Task Force			Statistics Canada
			A	B	C	
1959	14,826	1977	11,690	11,163	11,163	11,000
1960	15,173	1978	12,060	11,006	11,006	11,100
1961	15,591	1979	12,430	10,849	10,849	11,100
1962	15,064	1980	12,800	10,692	10,692	11,100
1963	15,443	1981	13,169	10,537	10,537	11,100
1964	14,680	1982	12,823	10,717	10,145	11,100
1965	14,740	1983	12,477	10,897	9,753	11,100
1966	14,084	1984	12,131	11,077	9,361	11,100
1967	12,844	1985	11,785	11,257	8,969	11,100
1968	12,820	1986	11,437	11,437	8,578	11,000
1969	13,000	1987	10,879	11,457	8,592	11,000
1970	12,539	1988	10,321	11,475	8,606	10,900
1971	12,767	1989	9,763	11,494	8,620	10,800
1972	12,898	1990	9,205	11,513	8,634	10,700
1973	11,906	1991	8,649	11,534	8,649	10,500
1974	10,236	1992	N/A	N/A	N/A	10,400
1975	11,213	1993	N/A	N/A	N/A	10,200
1976	11,320	1994	N/A	N/A	N/A	10,100
		1995	N/A	N/A	N/A	9,900

Table 2

Population Growth to 2,001; Total and 5-17 Years (Newfoundland)

Year	Total Population		5-17 Years Population	
	Number	Change	Number	Change
1951	361,416	%		%
1956	415,074	+14.85		
1961	457,853	+10.31		
1966	193,396	+7,76		
1971	522,104	+5.82		
1976	557,700	+6.82	169,200	–
1981	580,700	+4.12	155,000	-8.39
1986	597,900	+2.96	138,000	-10.97
1991	613,200	+2.56	130,500	-5.43
1996	624,100	+1.78	129,800	-0.54
2001	630,500	+1.03	126,300	-2.70

enrolments than in the past. Note that this basic age group will decrease in size by 8.39% between 1976 and 1981, by 19.36% between 1976 and 1986, and 24.79% from 1976 to 1991, i.e., by nearly 25% in the next 15 years - after which we get a bit of a "breather" -before further declines begin around 2001. To round out this picture, based on age, for the rest of this century, I have shown in Table 3 (again using Statistics Canada's most recent projections) the changes in the five-year age groups between 1976 and 2001, in actual numbers and as a percentage of the corresponding 1976 age cohort. The differences at various levels of the age scale are somewhat startling, varying from a decrease of about 27% to an increase of 107% (i.e., slightly more than doubling for the 40-44 years group).

Looking at the various segments, a number of conclusions can be drawn (assuming that fertility and net migration rates do not change, or are not changed, during the rest of the century).

(1) The school system will be considerably smaller than it is now, of the order of 25%, even if participation rates at the senior high school and university levels do increase.

(2) The number in the middle-age group 35 to 54 .years will increase enormously (sort of the "middle-aged spread" arising from the earlier Baby Boom).

(3) The potential labour force will be much larger in number, e.g., those from age 30 to 59, which must mean either more jobs or more unemployed, and hopefully not too many will be in the ranks of the unemployed throughout most of their working years.

(4) The number of old age pensioners will increase by 69%, and will of course continue to increase until those of middle age in 2001 pass into and through the ranks of the pensioners (the maximum should be reached somewhere around 2031).

(5) The total population will have aged, on the average, by nearly 11 years by 2001, the medium age being 33.5 years by then, and will get even older on the average until the Old Age Boom is over. In terms of demands for goods and services, and political and social attitudes and actions, it may be noted that by 2001, about 24% will be over 50 years, 39% over 40 years, 55% over 30 years, and about 70% over 20 years (i.e., only 30% of the population under 20 years of age, as compared with 45% in 1976).

But now it is time to look at the projections of total school enrolment, to 1996, as given by the Task Force and as calculated by myself two years earlier (my estimate for 1977 was too low by 2,800 students, or 1.79%), as given in Table 4. Actually, the agreement is remarkable good, but I would now probably use the Task Force B values to 1989 and my own minimum values from 1990 to 1996, as a sort of a "second-thought" compromise. That the decreases in enrolment, and in the teaching force unless

Table 3

Changes in Population, 1976 to 2001 by Age-Group

Age Group	Number in Age Group		Change in Numbers	Percentage Change
	1976	2001		
0-4	57,800	45,700	-12,100	-20.931
5-9	62,900	47,700	-15,200	-24.17
10-14	67,000	49,l00	-17,900	-26.72
15-19	62,700	48,700	-14,000	-22.33
20-24	52,200	45,900	-6,300	-12.07
25-29	46,400	45,300	-1,100	-2.37
30-34	35,700	48,100	+12,400	+34.73
35-39	27,300	52,800	+25,500	+93.41
40-44	24,700	51,100	+26,400	+106.88
45-49	23,300	43,800	+20,500	+87.98
50-54	22,100	39,000	+16,900	+76.47
55-59	20,800	29,600	+8,800	+42.31
60-64	18,200	21,900	+3,700	+20.33
65 & Over	36,500	61,800	+25,300	+69.32
Total	557,600	630,500	+72,900	+13.07
Median Age	22.7 years	33.3 years	–	–

Table 4

Projections of School Enrolment in Newfoundland
(1977 to 1996)

Year	Task Force			Jackson	
	A	B	C	Minimum	Maximum
1977	156,200•	156,200•	156,200•	153,400	153,400
1978	153,500	153,500	153,500	150,800	150,800
1979	148,700	148,700	148,700	147,500	147,500
1980	145,000	145,000	145,000	144,300	144,300
1981	141,000	141,000	141,000	141,100	141,200
1982	139,500	139,000	139,000	138,400	138,500
1983	137,900	137,300	136,300	136,200	136,300
1984	137,300	134,100	134,100	134,300	134,700
1985	137,200	131,900	138,900	132,800	133,500
1986	137,500	129,700	129,700	131,100	132,500
1987	138,000	128,100	127,500	127,600	131,700
1988	137,000	126,600	124,900	128,000	131,100
1989	137,900	125,500	122,100	126,200	130,500
1990	137,900	125,200	119,500	124,700	130,400
1991	138,600	126,l00	117,500	123,600	130,800
1992	137,000	126,400	115,000	122,500	131,200
1993	136,700	126,600	112,500	120.100	131,800
1994	134,500	127,100	110,200	118,700	131,800
1995	131,400	127,700	108,100	117,300	131,600
1996	129,600	127,400	106,200	115,900	128,900

*Actual

the pupil-teacher ratios are adjusted, will be quite substantial over the years, hardly needs pointing out. An alternative native approach which would offer relief for the system and at the same time raise the general education level of the population in time, would be to attempt to increase the retention of the students in schools past the age of compulsory attendance. For instance, if we consider only the Grade 2 to Grade 11 survival ratios as proxies of the age-group participation rates in Newfoundland and Ontario, one finds as shown in the last two columns of Table 5 that at the Ontario rates (and they are not ideal by any means) the Grade 11 enrolment in Newfoundland would be encouraged by about 30% to 32% annually. If one also used the Ontario survival rates from Grade 11 to university, which essentially gives a double boost (higher for Grade 11 and for university) to participation rates, one would have had the full-time enrolments at Memorial University shown in Table 6, which would have meant a doubling, and some years more than doubling, of the university enrolments. Whether anything of the sort could be achieved is a moot point, but since I did not include First Year at Memorial, the target is probably not all that unreasonable. That some efforts will need to be made to avoid very drastic declines in university enrolments is evident from Chart 1, which is based on present and projected Grade 11 enrolments (Task Force values for Grade 11) and various participation rates. Since there was a quite unanticipated decline in 1978-79, although the final October enrolments have not yet been released, some serious consideration must be given to the problem.

One of the groups directly and seriously affected is the teaching and other staff, not only of the schools but of the university. For the present, I'll restrict comments to the school system, but the conditions apply mutatis mutandis equally to the post-secondary level. The teaching force will be reduced in number, but not necessarily in exact proportion to the enrolment declines, nor at the same time, and especially not equally across all ages. Generally, at the local level, the student losses are scattered across schools - and grades within schools - so some unpopular shifts and adjustments in attendance boundaries have to be made, but eventually on a provincial level the decrease in staff will approximate the proportion of the decrease in enrolment. Where provincial grants are paid on a per student basis, of course, the provincial financial contribution decreases in proportion, and the provincial treasurer reaps the "windfall profits", with easily predictable effects in the long run on the operations of the schools. Thus, staff will be reduced in number over time, but for most areas of the province attrition will provide the solution (cities are almost invariably an exception to this, in all provinces).

But with emphasis on seniority in consideration of attrition as well as of redundancy, the inevitable result is an aging teaching force and relatively few (if any) young teachers being employed each year. There are two implications of this effect which are something in the nature of hidden time-bombs. In the first place, the remaining teachers form a "block" which steadily shrinks in range of ages, and all of this "lump" will hit the pension fund like a huge iceberg within a 10 to 15 year period, which is guaranteed to strain the financial resources of even the soundest and strongest pension fund. The other effect is associated with this, but strangely enough is often

Table 5

Newfoundland Survival Ratios:
Grade 2 to Grade 11 Survival Ratios

School Year (September)	Grade 11 Enrolment	Grade 2 Enrolment		Grade 11 Survival Ratio	Grade 11 Enrolment at Ontario Ratios	
		School Year	Enrolment		Ratio	Enrolment
1977	9,377	1968	15,169	0.6182	0.8157	12,373
1976	9,303	1967	14,986	0.6208	0.8228	12,330
1975	9,143	1966	14,835	0.6163	0.8159	12,104
1974	8,661	1965	14,516	0.5967	0.8164	11,851
1973	9,250	1964	15,195	0.6088	0.8252	12,539
1972	9,481	1963	14,908	0.6360	0.8376	12,487
1971	9,610	1962	14,763	0.6510	0.8299	12,252
1970	9,124	1961	14,648	0.6229	0.8037	11,773
1969	8,698	1960	14,226	0.6114	0.7554	10,746
1968	7,274	1959	14,401	0.5051	0.7260	10,455
1967	6,404	1958	13,884	0.4613	0.6953	9,654
1966	6,088	1957	13,629	0.4467	0.6787	9,250
1965	5,750	1956	13,364	0.4303	0.6749	9,019
1964	5,329	1955	12,935	0.4120	0.6639	8,588
1963	5,210	1954	12,554	0.4150	–	–
1962	4,770	1953	11,866	0.4020	–	–
1961	4,266	1952	10,449	0.4083	–	–
1960	3,772	1951	10,218	0.3695	–	–

Table 6

Memorial University of Newfoundland
(Full-Time Enrolment at Ontario Grade 11 Participation Rates)

University Year	Corresponding Newfoundland 4-Year Total of Grade 11 Enrolment		Memorial University Enrolment	
	Actual	At Ontario Rate	Actual Numbers	At Ontario Rates of Double Survival
1966-67	21,059	N/A	3,922	N/A
1967-68	22,377	N/A	4,485	N/A
1968-69	23,571	36,511	4,782	11,629
1969-70	25,516	38,378	5,249	13,348
1970-71	28,414	40,105	6,557	14,650
1971-72	31,500	42,628	7,369	16,267
1972-73	34,706	45,226	7,668	16,204
1973-74	36,913	47,258	6,801	16,337
1974-75	37,465	49,051	6,449	16,658
1975-76	37,002	49,129	6,642	16,684
1976-77	36,535	48,981	7,056	16,345
1977-78	36,357	48,824	7,269	15,955

Chart 1

(Insert Chart)

completely overlooked. When this "block" is melted through retirements, we'll suddenly face a serious teacher shortage of dimensions even greater than the last one! Two things have to be planned to avoid, or help to avoid, the most serious consequences (there is a limit to what we can do to avoid the effects of this Teacher Bust which must follow the earlier Baby, Pupil, and Teacher Booms). First, we must attempt to alter the shape of the "block" by chipping away the front edge through early retirements and building up the rear edge through employment of as many young teachers as possible, which will also add to the soundness of the pension fund, (e.g., encouraging older teachers to take leaves of absence, study leaves, exchanges, part-time work, and sharing work). Second, we must retain a teacher education structure or facility which can be adjusted quickly and easily as needed to meet the emergency conditions. The problem is a tough one to solve, but if we ignore it chaos is guaranteed.

One other aspect of the general population picture needs to be looked at carefully, namely the loss each year of young men and women, and their children, in substantial numbers, and this is continuing and projected to last without much change throughout the rest of the century. I must admit that it disturbs me to note, for instance, that from July 1, 1964 to June 30, 1978, Newfoundland suffered a net loss through interprovincial migration of 17,143 children under 16 (now 18, subject to condition) years of age, which works out at an average loss of children at the rate of 101 per month - and in the last 3 months for which I have records (July to September, 1978), they lost a further 251 children. Besides, Newfoundland loses around 35 more children under 18 years of age each month through net international migration, so it is small wonder that the age distribution for the 1976 census showed large drops from the number of live births recorded the appropriate number of years earlier! Presumably the causes here are economic in origin, but there is no doubt that the effects have social implications, especially for the educational system from Kindergarten to Graduate School.

In summary, then, the future holds further declines in school enrolment, drastic changes in the age composition of the population, and continued net losses through international and interprovincial migration. Eventually, as far as I can tell, even Newfoundland will face an actual negative population growth after the turn of the century, with deaths plus out-migration exceeding births. I can only hope that present trends and conditions can and will be changed.

DEMOGRAPHY AND EDUCATION: IMPLICATIONS FOR NEWFOUNDLAND AND LABRADOR*

Rodney A. Clifton
Jeffrey W. Bulcock
Educational Foundations

INTRODUCTION

The Newfoundland and Labrador educational system is now feeling the effects of the decline in birth rates which began in the late 1950s. The last of the children born at the height of the postwar baby boom are now completing high school, and the immediate future promises contained declines in student numbers. Reduced enrolments are not a new phenomenon in Newfoundland and Labrador. At the elementary level, provincial enrolments began to fall in 1971-72 though not all school districts were affected, and the decline in secondary level has now begun. It is now apparent that the educational system in this province, as a whole, has entered a period of overall decrease in enrolment, that this decrease will be one of its characteristics for the near future, and that problems associated with declining numbers will place new demands upon those engaged at all levels of its operation.

In general, the school system of Newfoundland has been relatively unprepared for the decline in enrolment and the effects such a decline will have in all sectors of the system. This, in itself, may indicate inadequacies in planning on the part of the Ministry of Education and the Faculty of Education, at Memorial University, which have the expertise to prepare forecasts. It may be particularly a failing in the districts and the University where resources are linked, to some extent, with enrolments.

The importance of providing adequate plans is indicated by the fact that the useful life of a school building may extend over 50 years; the period required for retirement of its construction debt may be 25 years; and the professional careers in education may span 30 years. This only goes to illustrate the importance of planning, well in advance, for both capital expenditures and expenditures in teacher training programs.

Where planning extends to include distribution of skills required in future populations and the role of the school system in providing such skills, similar considerations apply, since those who will be entering the workforce in the 1990s are beginning school at the present time. More to the point, if the Government expects Newfoundland youth to be employed in future industrial development it must develop the educational programs to train these people at the present time. There does not seem to be much use insisting that foreign oil companies, for example, hire its technical staff from this province unless the province is willing to fill its obligations by training the people so that they can adequately fill the positions.

From this perspective, the objects of this paper are to provide some basic estimates of demographic trends for education in Newfoundland and Labrador until 1985 and draw out some of the implications for the educational system which may stem from changing demographic conditions.

DEMOGRAPHIC TRENDS

In this respect, we consider trends and implications of declining birth rates, the migration of children, student enrolments, teacher acquisitions, and finally, teacher acquisitions from Memorial University.

Declining Birth Rates

Perhaps the most serious demographic trend for education in Newfoundland and Labrador is the declining birth rates. In Table 1 we present the birth, marriage, and death rates for the province, from 1950 to 1975. The most telling feature of this table is that while the population has been steadily growing the number of births has either remained relatively stable or has been declining. This is even more interesting when we compare the birth rates with the marriage rates. In recent years, it seems that as marriages increase births decrease. When the rate of live births per 1000 population is computed we see that there has been a dramatic decrease in the rate at which children have been born. In fact, in 1975 the number of children born per 1000 people in the population was 16.7 which is less than half the number born in 1950 which was 37.8.

Migration of Children

A second factor of interest is the migration of school children into and out of the province. These data are presented in Table 2. As these data are collected from Statistics Canada on families and not simply on children it is important that the reader note the number of children shown in this table are calculated by multiplying the number of families migrating by the average number of children per family, in the province, during that year. It is recognized that there are problems with this technique in that younger parents, who have less than the average number of children, may be the people who are migrating rather than older parents, who have more than the average number of children.

Nevertheless, this table suggests that since 1963-64 over 800 children have been leaving the province annually, except for 1971-72 where only 257 children left. This may not seem like many children when we compare it with the population of the province. But, when we think of it in terms of the number of teaching positions which may be lost it may become more important, especially if we happen to be an education student at Memorial University or one of the unemployed teachers. At the current student-teacher ratio during the 1972-73 year, the 886 children that left the province in that year may have represented the loss of about 40 teaching positions.

From the evidence presented in Tables 1 and 2 it is suggested that fertility rates and migration patterns are crucial variables in projecting future school enrolments. However, we would be naive not to realize that birth rates and migration patterns are the product of other factors such as productivity of the province and the country. Additional evidence suggests that while Newfoundland and Labrador has been losing children through migration, provinces such as Alberta and British Columbia have been gaining children.

TABLE 1

Birth, Marriage, and Death Rates: 1950-1975

Year	Population (000's)	Live Births	Rate (000's)	Marriages	Deaths
1950	351	13,283	37.8	2,515	3,168
1951	361	13,136	36.4	2,517	5,004
1952	374	13,063	34.3	2,730	2,773
1953	383	13,336	34.8	2,771	2,733
1954	395	13,757	34.8	2,552	2,916
1955	406	13,757	33.4	3,211	3,206
1956	415	13,819	33.3	3,073	3,058
1957	424	13,770	32.5	3,041	3,198
1958	432	13,704	31.7	3,047	3,122
1959	441	14,462	32.8	2,893	3,179
1960	448	14,514	32.4	3,104	3,015
1961	458	14,244	31.1	3,306	3,038
1962	468	14,350	30.7	3,274	3,198
1963	476	14,764	31.0	3,280	3,183
1964	483	14,328	29.7	3,385	3,063
1965	488	14,697	30.1	3,412	3,230
1966	493	13,580	27.5	3,728	2,072
1967	499	13,066	26.2	4,821	2,117
1968	506	12,635	25.0	4,242	3,123
1969	514	13,751	26.8	4,279	3,005
1970	517	14,121	27.3	4,466	3,294
1971	522	13,280	25.4	4,685	3,199
1972	532	14,535	27.3	5,106	3,349
1973	541	12,659	23.4	5,048	3,405
1974	542	10,581	19.5	4,276	2,286
1975	550	8,193	16.7	4,686	3,150

TABLE 2

Net Migration of Children From Newfoundland and Labrador: 1949-50 to1973-74

Year	Net Number of Children	Year	Net Number of Children
1949-50	-507	1962-63	-256
1950-51	-743	1963-64	-965
1951-52	-490	1964-65	-1346
1952-53	-9	1965-66	-2465
1953-54	-09	1966-67	-2052
1954-55	+54	1967-68	-1435
1955-56	-99	1968-69	-049
1956-57	-385	1969-70	-3445
1957-58	-548	1970-71	-1795
1958-59	-374	1971-72	-257
1959-60	-415	1972-73	-886
1960-61	-77	1973-74	-871
1961-62	-18		

Source: Statistics Canada 81 - 216

From 1949-50 to 1958-59 inclusive, the data are calculated on the basis of the census year, which covers June 1 to Mav 31. Thereafter, the data are calculated on the basis of the school year, July 1 to June 30.

Student Enrolments

In order to project enrolments a decision was made to choose the Statistics Canada information on birth rates within this province. This decision was made for three reasons: 1) we lacked the time necessary to construct reasonable birth rates; 2) we did not feel that we had the necessary expertise; and 3) in this province women do not report their ages when their children are born and therefore it is difficult to calculate reliable birth rates. Thus, it is important to realize that we are assuming that the projections provided by Statistics Canada, based upon evidence from other Atlantic provinces, are accurate. In this respect, it must be noted that one of the assumptions of these projections is that there will be an echo to the baby boom. However, recent research by Dr. R.W.B. Jackson, of the Atlantic Institute of Education, suggests that the echo to the baby boom is not happening and may never happen.

Nevertheless, student enrolment projections were based on the relationships of the different age cohorts to the size of the six-year old school cohort which had been obtained from Statistics Canada. Shown in Table 3 is the actual six-year old enrolment from 1967-68 to 1975-76 and the projected enrolment from 1976-77 to 1985-86. These projected enrolments were calculated by multiplying the Statistics Canada projections of six-year olds in the population by an enrolment ratio of .97034 which was the average of three known enrolment ratios for the three census years of 1961, 1966, and 1971. Also, in order to construct these projections the known data were examined to see which

of several mathematical equations or curves would best describe the trends. When the best fitting equations were determined, these were assumed to remain constant, within certain margins of error, from 1975-76 to 1985-86.

From this table it is noted that the lowest figure is 10,189 children in the year 1979-80. Since the children who will be six years old in 1979-80 were born in 1973, and since the number of live births has declined rather dramatically since that time (See Table 1), the Statistics Canada assumption that the number of six-year olds will increase from 1979-80 onward must be treated with a great deal of skepticism. Recent trends suggest that the number of six-year olds will decline rather than increase. Nevertheless, this table shows that there will be a general decline in the number of six-year old children entering school from approximately 1975-76 to 1985-86.

It is evident that Table 3 illustrates projections of the basic numbers of children who will be entering the school system during the years from 1975-76 to 1985-86. We cannot expect that all of these children will pass through the educational system. Some children will drop out before they complete grade 11. In order to project the enrolments of the students in the future we calculated enrolment ratios for each age cohort. That is, we calculated the past trends in terms of the holding power of the school. These trends were projected into the future using mathematical curve fitting techniques. The trends are reported in Table 4.

TABLE 3

Actual and Projected Enrolments of Six-Year Old Cohort; 1967-68 to 1985-86

Year	Actual Enrolment[a]	Year	Projected Enrolment[ß]
1967-68	13,132	1976-77	11,159
1968-69	13,444	1977-78	11,450
1969-70	13,501	1978-79	10,383
1970-71	13,719	1979-80	10,189
1971-72	13,473	1980-81	10,383
1972-73	12,993	1981-82	10,577
1973-74	12,522	1982-83	10,969
1974-75	12,387	1983-84	11,159
1975-76	12,568	1984-85	11,450
		1985-86	11,741

Source: a - Department of Education, Province of Newfoundland and Labrador.
ß - Statistics Canada, Projected Population Bar Sex and Age for Newfoundland, 1972.

TABLE 4

Actual and Projected School Enrolments: 1958-59 to 1985-86

Year	Actual Enrolment[a]	Year	Projected Enrolments
1958-59	119,279	1976-77	155,623 ± 4704
1959-60	124,867	1977-78	152,573 ± 4536
1960-61	128,217	1978–79	150,031 ± 4527
1961-62	133,747	1979-80	147,525 ± 4524
1962-63	137,700	1980-81	145,180 ± 4527
1963-64	140,735	1981-82	143,485 ± 4488
1964-65	144,129	1982-83	141,987 ± 4414
1965-66	146,503	1983-84	141,322 ± 4366
1966-67	148,352	1984-85	141,495 ± 4364
1967-68	151,876	1985-86	142,238 ± 4361
1968-69	156,757		
1969-70	168,897		
1970-71	168,815		
1971-72	162,818		
1972-73	161,723		
1973-74	160,352		
1974-75	158,014		
1975-76	157,754		

Source: [a]Department of Education, Province of Newfoundland and Labrador

Three important features may be noted from this table: 1) there has been a very dramatic increase in the number of students registered in the school system of Newfoundland and Labrador from 1958-59 to 1971-72;. 2) from 1971-72 there has been a general decline which is expected to continue until 1984-85 (Between these two dates the decline is expected to be approximately 16,250 students.); 3) finally, it is noted that there is a degree of error in each of the projections which may be over 9,000 students. In any event, this table gives a general indication of what may be in store for the school system in the future and, as we have said before, it may provide an optimistic interpretation. Nevertheless, if the economic conditions do not improve we may see more and more secondary students staying in school. At least, classrooms are warm and dry and it may be slightly better than standing in the unemployment lines.

Teacher Projections

As we noted earlier, the school enrolment has declined from 162,818 in 1971-72 to 157,754 in 1975-76. At the same time, the number of teachers has continued to increase. This information is presented in Table 5. The increase has been a result of the conscious effort, on the part of the Department of Education, to decrease the student teacher ratio. Counting all those within schools, who are classified as teachers, the ratio

has decreased from approximately 26 to 1 to 21 to 1 from 1965 to 1975. It may be important to note that this is not the "official student teacher ratio" but a ratio computed by dividing the total number of students by the total number of teachers.

In any event, we can see that the number of teachers employed in the schools has increased dramatically from 1965-66 to 1975-76. At the same time, we expect that the student teacher ratio will not become lower. (The student teacher ratio is higher in Newfoundland than in most of the other provinces). As such, there will be a general decrease in the number of teachers in the system from 1975-76 to 1985-86. We expect this decrease to be approximately 740 teachers or 10 percent of the 1975-76 teaching force. More recent evidence suggests that our projections for 1976-77 and 1977-78 are very close to the actual number of teachers in the system.

Teacher Acquisitions from Memorial

Even though fewer teachers will probably be required by the Newfoundland and Labrador system in the future this does not mean that no teachers will be hired. In fact, when we look at the withdrawals of teachers from the system we see that, in the past, substantial numbers of teachers withdrew. In 1967-68, for example, approximately 1300 teachers withdrew and in 1974-75 approximately 790 withdrew. It is expected that the number withdrawing from the system wilt decrease as a result of three factors: 1) at the present time fewer teachers must complete university courses in order to obtain their degrees; 2) the economic recession may mean that those who have positions will hold them because they may not be able to regain a position if they resigned; and 3) the general decline in birth rates may mean that fewer women teachers may withdraw in order to have children.

Taking all of these factors into consideration we expect that the percentage of teachers withdrawing from the system will decrease from approximately 10 percent in 1975-76 to approximately 4 percent in 1985-86. This is quite speculative but in order to determine the possible acquisitions from Memorial University we must take possible trends, such as these, into consideration.

Table 6 presents the actual acquisitions of teachers, from all sources, from 1968-69 to 1975-76 and the projected acquisitions from 1976-77 to 1985-86., Here we observe, as expected, a general decline in the number of acquisitions from a high of 1651 in 1968-69 to a low of 953 in 1975-76. Also, we expect the acquisitions to decline further to approximately 290 in 1985-86. That is, the number of acquisitions in 1985-86 will be approximately 18 percent of the acquisitions in 1968-69. To say the least, this represents a dramatic drop in job opportunities for young people in this province.

TABLE 5

Actual and Projected Number of Teachers
1965-66 to 1985-86

Year	Actual Teachers[a]	Year	Projected Teachers
1965-66	5545	1976-77	7432 ± 225
1966-67	5644	1977-78	7286± 216
1967-68	5855	1978-79	7165 ± 217
1968-69	6206	1979-80	7045 ± 216
1969-70	6315	1980-81	6933 ± 216
1970-71	6437	1981-82	6852 ± 214
1971-72	6648	1982-83	6781 ± 211
1972-73	6893	1983-84	6749 ± 209
1973-74	7095	1984-85	6757 ± 208
1974-75	7370	1985-86	6793 ± 210
1975-76	7532		

Source: [a]Province of Newfoundland and Labrador, Department of Education.

TABLE 6

Actual and Projected Teacher Acquisitions
1968-69 to 1985-86

Year	Teacher Acquisitions	Year	Projected Acquisitions
1968-69	1651	1976-77	623 ± 25
1969-70	1447	1977-78	497 ± 11
1970-71	1410	1978-79	447 ± 18
1971-72	1444	1979-80	383 ± 14
1972-73	1431	1980-81	334 ± 14
1973-74	1270	1981-82	314 ± 10
1974-75	1156	1982-83	281 ± 8
1975-76	953	1983-84	282 ± 8
		1984-85	290 ± 8
		1985-86	290 ± 10

TABLE 7

Projected Teacher Acquisitions From Memorial 1977-78 to 1984-85

Year	Projected Acquisitions
1977-78	373
1978-79	335
1979-80	287
1980-81	251
1981-82	236
1982-83	211
1983-84	212
1984-85	217

Finally, we can begin to consider the number. of teachers which will be required from Memorial University. Given the trends in the past, that the number of teachers hired from outside the province has declined from approximately 10 percent in 1970-71 to approximately 5 percent in 1974-75 and the percentages entering the profession from other occupations (including house managers) has remained constant we can calculate projections for the number of teachers who will be hired from Memorial in the future. These projections are presented in Table 7.

The projections for the year 1977-78 proved to be very accurate since approximately 350 teachers from Memorial were hired. Assuming that these trends are accurate we calculate that from 1977-78 to 1984-85 there will be a general decrease in the numbers of teachers hired from Memorial University. This decline will be approximately 156 teachers or 42 percent of the number of acquisitions obtained from Memorial in 1977-78.

Given all this information, and the assumptions which the projections are based upon, will the enrolment in the teacher training program at Memorial produce too many graduates to meet this diminished demand? It is difficult to provide a decisive answer to this question because we do not know the relationship between enrolment in the faculty, graduation, and whether a specific education student is searching for a position. But, with this severe limitation what do the prospects for student teachers look like?

Considering that the enrolment in the faculty of education has declined (as it has in other faculties) by approximately 50 percent between 1971-72 and 1975-76 and that the holding power of the faculty has increased dramatically it is probable that the education system is adjusting to some degree. That is, the number of teaching positions available in the province is declining but so are the number of graduates from the faculty of education.

Recently, we have heard a lot about the fact that student teachers who are training at the present time will be unable to obtain positions in the future. This whole discussion may in fact convince a number of students that they should not enter the Faculty of Education, or the University, because they cannot be assured of a position

when they graduate. It is probably true that there is a reserve pool of people, trained as teachers, who are not now engaged in the profession. Some of these may be unable to obtain employment for any number of reasons, such as unwillingness to move to another school district, or being underqualified. The outcome, as far as we can see, is that the competition for positions will become much more rigorous. And, this may simply mean that, if universalistic criteria are used, for the first time in their history all school districts will be able to select the best candidates.

CONCLUSION

It may be particularly important to consider these trends and some of their implications at this time. The future of education is in the balance and it is time for those who are knowledgeable and those who are in authority to make their concerns known so that the best decisions can be made for the future.

As we said at the beginning of this paper, it takes a considerable amount of lead time to pay off construction debts, train teachers, and have them consider a normal career in education. Given this, it seems that decisions which affect education cannot really be made from year to year but that general policies need to be established and resources set aside so that these policies form the guiding principles of day-to-day decisions. Only through proper planning and management of the human resources, as well as the natural resources, will the economic tide, which has subsided, be regained.

TOWARDS A MODEL FOR EDUCATION: A WORKING PAPER

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Preface

As a parent, educator, member of numerous committees and associations all focusing on education and children; and as someone concerned about the future directions of education on our island, I have prepared this brief paper in an effort to collect together both my own thoughts and my understandings of the views of many children, students and adults that have educated me. These are my current views. It is my hope that, at this time of concern about both early childhood education and kindergarten/primary education as well as about Grade XII, these thoughts might be of use to others with similar concerns.

In presenting an outline of a philosophy or set of goals for education, it is necessary to consider both the relative place of different levels of education within the overall school system and also the place of the school within society. The school, as an integral part of society, inevitably and rightfully reflects society's aims and goals; thus any philosophy or set of educational goals must be compatible with those of the society as a whole.

General Educational Goals

Three of the more general and overriding goals of both our society and the education system are listed below. The school system must: (a) seek that each individual be encouraged to develop to the maximum of his potential and to learn information and skills which will facilitate this development, (b) educate and prepare the individual for a life which is both personally satisfying and productive and also of positive value to the community and (c) evaluate and categorize the individual as to his or her competencies so as to ease society's absorption of that person upon his or her leaving the system. These goals must be met in ways which are both humanitarian and socially acceptable and which respect the economics of the state and the nature of the developing person. The education system must also seek to attain these goals by methods which meet the edict of best possible product for the affordable price. These goals reflect the fundamental belief that the education system has a responsibility to both the individual and society.

Although these goals relate to the overall education system, within different levels of the system (i.e., primary, elementary, junior high school, etc.), differing degrees of emphasis upon these goals as well as additional and more specific goals are appropriate. It is thus proposed, as a somewhat obvious principle, that as a person moves through the education system, the emphasis placed on the goals and aims of the system must change relative to the person's developmental level. At the primary level, the emphasis, relative to the three proposed principles must be largely on the first goal, less on the second and very little, if any on the third. By the termination of schooling, one would expect the emphasis upon the second and third goals to have increased quite

markedly. It is thus proposed that the kindergarten-primary program focuses principally upon the development of potential and upon the orientation of the person towards desirable and useful personality attributes and not upon formal evaluation and categorization. In the primary grades an emphasis should also be placed upon the acquisition of foundational experiences and knowledge. At this level, less emphasis should be placed upon the acquisition of specific competencies; however such subject matter can be offered. One might, perhaps over simplistically, view what is being proposed as a gradual shift of emphasis from a focus largely on the potentialities and foundational skills of the individual in early schooling to one which, while still somewhat focused on the individual, is much more focused on the acquisition of intellectually and socially useful and relevant knowledge and competencies. This model is schematically outlined in the following diagram (see Diagram 1 below).

(Insert Diagram)

Diagram 1. Proposed Pattern of Curriculum Emphasis

As can be readily appreciated, the formal evaluative function of the school follows a pattern closely related to the social competencies emphasis.

When considering major goals for primary education, it is important to consider the evaluative and categorizing (i.e., more generally the grading) functions of the school relative to the young child. It is felt that comparative (i.e., nomethetic or interindividual) grading is not appropriate or useful at the primary level and that more individualized (or ideographic) assessment focusing on the child's own sequential acquisition of knowledge and skills is more useful particularly at this level.

Such a belief has as an implication the removal of the grade level boundaries between each of the grades from kindergarten to grade three thereby creating a single four year block. Such a major change in the structure of the school would permit a much greater flexibility to exist allowing for the differing rates of readiness found in children upon school entry and also the differing times of the frequently observed growth spurt in young children. It is further felt that such a change would allow more time for the child to make the adjustment necessary to move from a home atmosphere to that of the typically more competitive world of the school and thereby reduce the large numbers of children who are unnecessarily casualties of and often permanently damaged by early failure. While it is typically useful to the prospective employer to know the academic level and training of his prospective employee, the information value of knowing whether a person has a kindergarten, or primary education is of little real value. For these reasons it is believed that there is no developmental, educational or social justification for the maintenance of early grade boundaries. Similarly, while it might be argued that a knowledge of grade level is necessary for the primary classroom teacher, this too is questionable especially given the increasing use of sequential or multi-step curricula and the generally "continuous" education approaches widely used at this level. It is interesting to note that what is being proposed has many parallels with the British Infant School system which is used with similar aged children. It is believed that what is being

proposed herein is a logical step in the already occurring evolution in curriculum and education.

If such a system is accepted, one might envision the first formal interindividual evaluation of children to occur on the average, at the end of their fourth year of schooling'. Children might be tested at this point as to their readiness to carry out what would be the equivalent of Grade IV work. It should be apparent that this proposal does not necessarily require a major modification of current primary level programs but rather encourages greater flexibility in the rates at which students complete perhaps existing programs.

TABLE 1

An Outline of Selected Specific Educational Goals

a)	Personal Attributes - self-confidence - responsibility for actions - sensitivity to the rights of others - willingness to have involvement in decision making - honesty - willingness to exert effort to attain goals - a social conscience
b)	Intellectual and Foundational Attributes - creativity - curiosity - flexibility - willingness to criticize - capacity for logical thinking - desirous of understanding or the integration of knowledge - sensitivity to esthetics - well-developed language and communication skills
c)	Physical Fitness and Health - awareness of health and nutrition needs - willingness to exercise and be active - eagerness to attain good physical fitness
d)	Academic and Social Competencies - competency in foundational skill areas (spelling, writing, grammar, mathematics, etc.) - informed in content areas (science, literature, history, geography, etc.) - ability to publically speak and present information - a knowledge of the world of work and (depending upon level) the competency to perform work - a knowledge of and the ability to perform responsibly in the family, social, political and religious community.

More Specific Educational Goals

A number of more specific educational goals are listed in Table 1. These goals have been grouped in terms of four, not mutually exclusive categories namely: (a) Personal Attributes, (b) Intellectual and Foundational Attributes, (c) Physical Fitness & Health and (d) Specific Academic and Social Competencies. It is not intended that these goals be emphasized equally at all levels of schooling. Upon school entry (i.e., at the kindergarten/primary) levels, one would expect that the major emphasis be placed upon the first three categories with the emphasis upon Specific Competencies (category D) being increased with successive years of schooling and the increasing abilities of the student. As the person develops and as the Personal and Intellectual attributes become more and more firmly established and the person becomes less malleable, the relative emphasis on these categories can be decreased. By the final years of schooling one would expect the program to be largely concentrating on Specific Academic and Social Competencies. It is proposed that Physical and Health Goals might be given an equal and continuous emphasis throughout the whole of one's formal schooling. (See Diagram 2 for a schematic representation of the proposed model).[2]

Final Comments

As has been suggested, it is believed that the overall set of goals being proposed is compatible both with current educational trends and the current views of the place and function of the school in society. It is also believed that the framework being proposed is compatible with the nature and needs of the developing person. Contemporary education, like human development, is being appreciated as a necessarily continuous process and one which, particularly in young children, does not always lend itself to discrete, sometimes arbitrarily set boundaries such as can be the case with grade boundaries for some children.

This proposed program is not intended as a panacea to educational ills but rather is intended to offer an overall framework or set of goals within which future educational decisions can be made and against which prospective curriculum and educational decisions can be tested. It is fully appreciated that considerable effort needs to be expended in both further testing this model and also in exploring the many changes in curriculum and school organization which could be necessitated by its adoption.

One must always be aware in the development and implementation of any set of educational goals that he is not teaching to the parts but rather to the whole child. Operationally the curriculum and lessons offered a child must reflect contributions from all those previously proposed categories and be compatible with both the individual's and society's needs. What must be sought is a highly integrated curriculum reflecting these proposed needs.

It is also important to appreciate that when attempting both to develop and implement a philosophy that one not fall into the unacceptable trap of demanding a homogeneous product, i.e., all children being as nearly alike as possible. This is not at all a viable social or individual goal. While there are fundamental beliefs, knowledge and skills which one hopes most society members will adopt, these beliefs must be continuously tested and allowed to evolve. Such is the case with any philosophy of education.

(INSERT DIAGRAM 2)

Diagram 2: Changes in the Relative Emphasis on Specific Educational Goals during the Period of Formal Schooling.

Closely related to the risk of seeking a homogeneous product is the risk or the tendency towards seeking excessive expediency in attaining one's educational goals. One must be continuously vigilant of the needs and abilities of the learner. Education takes time. While one must always seek to find the best possible match between the individual's abilities and needs and the experiences offered, one also must always be sensitive to individual differences.

As a final comment, it must be appreciated that to at least some degree the education and development of a civilized individual at times represents a compromise between the individual's personal needs and skills and societal needs expectancies. In any civilized society, as in any education system, the delicate balance between the individual and the system must always be monitored and the inevitability of compromise must always be appreciated.

FOOTNOTES

1. Provision must obviously exist for more able children to have such evaluation at an earlier point.

2. It must be pointed out that this model is intended to represent general trends of emphasis rather than to propose specific degrees or relative percentages of emphases. The model also assumes normal rates of development and learning. While it is potentially applicable to children who are less able to cope with normal schooling, it has not been explored as to its usefulness with these groups.

EDUCATION: THE DAWNING OF A NEW DAY

Pat Duignan
Art Ponder

The Time Has Come, The Walrus Said
To Speak of Many Things
Of Shoes, and Ships, and Sealing Wax
Of Cabbages - and Kings
Lewis Carroll

Introduction

After a period of unprecedented growth in the fifties and sixties education in Canada, generally, and in Newfoundland particularly, is anything but a thriving institution. Burgeoning costs, fanned by double-digit inflation, have produced a widespread call for accountability, and greater efficiency. To compound the problem, the very financial base upon which revenues for education are calculated and allocated (i.e., enrolment figures) is dwindling at an alarming rate. In a recent survey of staffing practices in Canada, over 60 percent of responding superintendents indicated that they were expecting declines in student populations over the next five to eight years (Duignan and Ponder, 1978). In Newfoundland, half of the 24 respondents expected student declines in the ensuing five-year period. Although student population figures appear slightly more optimistic for this Province, we should not be lulled into any false sense of security.

Two conditions are apparent which mitigate against any undue optimism. First, the amount of money raised locally for the support of education is proportionately less than in the rest of Canada. Thus, support for education appears more vulnerable and many educational decisions could be made on political rather than pedagogical grounds.

Secondly, a pervasive pessimism is about in the land, not just among educators but in almost all other areas as well. Stapleton (1975a, in Singh and Baksh, 19771 in an analysis of the politics of education in Newfoundland, identified "insiders" and "outsiders" in the educational system. It is among the insiders such as administrators, faculty of education members and department of education officials that this pessimism seems most evident. With few exceptions, education has not put forward articulate spokesmen to argue the case for education in the public arena. If education must increasingly compete for a slice of the financial pie with other institutions, then, this becomes ever more necessary. However, it could well be argued that the insiders' perceptions of the public's attitude are incorrect. Warren (1979) in a study of public attitudes towards education in Newfoundland and Labrador states:

Some of the more important findings of this survey may be summarized as follows:

1. The public generally have a continuing confidence in their educational system and widespread support for it. When respondents viewed the system from a broad, overall perspective, two out of every three (67 per cent) stated that the quality of education had improved over the past decade. The same proportion gave the educational system an "A" or a "B" rating on a scale of five. Only 16 per cent suggested that the quality of education had declined,

and six percent assigned it a "D" or a "Fail" on the five-letter scale. An analysis of the attitudes of the various subgroups reinforced this general assessment.

2. While the public expressed general satisfaction with their schools, they were critical of specific aspects of the system.

Thus, it became ever more important for the insiders to modify their own views and, through carefully planned strategies, reshape the opinions of both our critics and our supporters.

This paper attempts to do three things: first, to analyze the forces which have brought education to its present malaise; secondly, suggest areas where we have failed to live up to the possibly unrealistic expectations which we have created; finally, to offer strategies which will enhance both the quantity and quality of our inputs into the political decision-making process, with the hope of obtaining more favourable response to our stated needs.

How Did We Get Here?

The seeds of our present dilemma were sown throughout the 60's. As the Federal Finance Minister of Canada noted recently in his budget speech, the economy of Canada went too far too quickly in the late 60's and early 70's. The educational sector experienced no less a development and expansion. Commitment to education as an integral part of the great drive for more progress knew no bounds. The promise of education was great!

For a number of years, levels of educational achievement and levels of personal income have been regarded as being positively correlated. Individuals believed that acquiring more education led to greater earning potential and increased opportunity for promotion and advancement. Education was regarded by both individuals and society as an investment which provided a bountiful harvest for all who ventured to participate.

The tide of positive opinion in favor of more and more schooling was strengthened by research findings and by the recommendations of educational commissions. Husby (1969: 3) summarized the findings of a number of such research studies. He stated:

> The studies of Schultz (1963) and Jenison (1962) in the United States and of Bertram (1966) in Canada have suggested that changes in the educational "stocks" of each population have had positive effects on the income levies of each country. Bertram (1966) suggested that the educational upgrading of the Canadian labor force between 1929 and 1957 accounted for some twenty per cent of the productivity growth per employed person during that period.

The Economic Council of Canada in their Second Annual Review (1965) echoed these same sentiments. They suggested (1965: 71) that education was indeed the key to the enjoyment of the "good life" and they announced that the economic future of Canada was closely aligned with the educational levels of its citizens.

While admitting that educational levels of the labour force and the productivity of a nation are positively correlated, we may have overstated the case. The expectations for education were very high indeed. Consider, in retrospect, the promise of the Ontario Royal Commission (1968: 9) for education in the 60's. They stated

> Education is the instrument which will break the shackles of ignorance, of doubt, and of frustration; that will take all who respond to its call out of their poverty, their slums, and their despair; that will give mobility to the crippled; that will illuminate the dark world of the blind; that will carry solace to the disordered of mind; imagery to the slow of wit, and peace to the emotionally disturbed.

A pretty tall order for education? Perhaps we oversold its potential. We became entangled in our own rhetoric. It was too much to expect that education was the panacea that could correct all our social and economic ills. John Goodland (1970, in Mitchell and Hawley, 1972: 7) referred to this over expectation for education when he suggested:

> If you want really to eliminate unemployment, you create jobs. If you want to really eliminate slums, you clear up slums, but you don't hold education responsible for getting it done.

Where Are We Now?

If education isn't winning any popularity contests at the present time, the problem is one of our own making. The first thing we must do is recognize the limits of our responsibility and "re-educate" the public with regard to what our educational institutions can be reasonably expected to accomplish in our society. Social expectations tend to adapt to social beliefs about the capabilities of institutions; so we must be careful to cultivate expectations we can fulfill. While we may not be faced with an environment of open hostility - as we were on occasion in the late 60's - a context of indifference and apathy by the public can have just as devastating an effect on our morale.

Undoubtedly, we are going through a difficult period in our development as an institution of society. March (1974: 22) identified three natural stages in the development of a social institution and his description of these stages seems to be quite applicable to our historical development in education. He stated:

> The first stage is a period of dynamic growth. Social expectations rise; the institution is able to meet those expectations, there is excitement, expansion, and self-confidence. The second stage is a period of conflict. Social expectations outrun the capabilities of the institution; there is frustration, anger and recrimination. The third stage is a period of neglect. Social expectations decline; the institution is able to meet many of the reduced expectations; there is indifference, passivity, and stagnation.

Many within and outside of education today are suggesting that we have experienced March's first two stages and are presently at the threshold of stage three - a period characterized by feelings of frustration, anger, and recrimination eventually leading to public apathy and indifference and educational stagnation. Perhaps our perceptual lenses have become somewhat clouded by recent events in our society at large. How can we in education hold our heads high and speak of our great

accomplishments and our hopes for better things to come when all around us self-styled experts paint bleak scenarios of economic and social ruin? Headlines on the imminent breakup of our country, on the pitiful plight of the Canadian dollar, on record unemployment rates are the order of the day.

The authors believe that we are too easily persuaded of our educational disabilities and weaknesses. Let us in education avoid collaborating with our critics in planting these seeds of pessimism. Now is not the time to indulge in recrimination or to languish in self-pity. We may be in a period of uncertainty, but questioning and dissatisfaction must not be equated with despair. To face this time of "perceived decline" with apathy, and let it happen through default, is irresponsible. To seize it as an opportunity to point out "what is right" about education and to propose strategies to correct what is wrong would seem to be a much more responsible approach. True, we may lose our balance for a time, we may even stumble somewhat, but it is only through intelligent and constructive discussion and planning that we can hope to avoid the doldrums of disillusionment, apathy, and indifference referred to in March's third stage in the development of an institution.

Where Are We Going?

We live in a complex technological society with insatiable demands for knowledgeable and skilled people to keep it functioning. As long as we continue to demand a standard of living like we have today, we are committing ourselves to the perpetuation of technological development and progress. We will continue to need a large well educated pool of experts from which we can draw the talent and energy necessary for the further refinement of our technological world. Our educational institutions, far from stagnating and/or collapsing, will need to be more dynamic and creative than ever to meet the challenges ahead.

So, instead of languishing in despair and crying over the proverbial "spilled milk" of things that might have been, let us in education marshall our talents and channel our energies in constructive directions. Instead of reacting in panic and calling for wholesale innovation and change, or responding with generalized remedies that apply across our whole range of problems and schools, we must become increasingly detailed in our recommendations and specifications. What are the needs of a specific school? What are the desires of a specific group of children? What are the expectations of a specific community for its school(s)? These are the questions we must be prepared to answer.

We must also broaden the horizons of our thinking and bury, once and for all, the naive notion that schools are the only instrument that society possesses to achieve its aims for education. We would be well advised to broaden the scope of our operations to include community and governmental agencies that exist to further our children's development (intellectually, emotionally, physically, and spiritually). Through interagency co-operation we can strive to co-ordinate our various activities to achieve a more harmonious development of the manifold aspects of the child's life, such as recreational, intellectual, spiritual, etc.

Two factors serve to strengthen these convictions. First, the imminent discovery of off-shore oil and gas and continued development in the fisheries serve to underline the increasing need for technical personnel, as well as properly schooled planners and administrators. Secondly, even within education itself, teachers and those engaged in

the preparation of teachers have come to realize that the changing demands of society require more diverse and sophisticated teacher preparation programs. For example, possible foci for our efforts could be further development of the emphasis on early childhood education, education of children with special needs; education of native peoples and adult education. (For a fuller discussion of these and other needs, see Warren, 1978).

However, tp perceive needs is only one aspect of the problem. The securing of resources to meet these needs is quite another. Thus, unless those who make resource allocation decisions in Newfoundland and Labrador can be convinced of both the legitimacy and the urgency of these needs, all will be lost (Kitchen, 1974).

How Do We Get There?

Who then are these decision makers? It would appear that in Newfoundland some of the most critical decisions regarding education are made in the political arena. Will educators, then, be forced to play "the political game"? The answer would seem to be Yes. How then do we do it?

Almond and Powell (1966: 73) in discussing this same problem suggested that:

> Every political system has someway of processing demands .... Some sorts of demands ... must be brought to the attention of the decision makers to form the basis for political choice. The process by which individuals and groups make demands upon the political decision makers we call interest articulation.

The first step, for the consideration of the various educational-interest groups in Newfoundland (groups such as the N.T.A., the Federation of School Boards, and Memorial University), is to state clearly and accurately what their needs and desires really are. The second step of the process is aggregation (Almond and Powell, 1966: 99):

> Interest aggregation can occur at many points in the political system ... an interest group continually aggregates the demands of its subgroups.

Once the various educational groups have articulated their needs, what next? Certainly these groups may have divergent views and/or different priorities with regard to these perceived needs. Recognizing the necessity for negotiation and compromise among the groups proposed by Stapleton (1975b, in Singh and Baksh, 1977) it should be possible to form some permanent structure whose terms of reference would be to articulate needs common to education across Newfoundland. While the Task Force on Education is at present providing a somewhat similar service, the authors are advocating the need for a continuing effort in this area. Another structure presently in existence that might perform this function is The Joint Committee. However, if this committee was to be saddled with this added responsibility it would require a substantial commitment of funds for its operation from the various groups it represents. Perhaps it would need one or two full-time officers to do this job adequately. The fact that The Joint Committee has Department of Education representation might constrain it somewhat in pursuing this new mandate, but without creating an entirely new structure - a step which should not be ruled out - it would seem to be an acceptable instrument for the performance of this task.

When we are agreed as to the crucial issues in education, how do we get the attention of the decision makers? It must be remembered that mere achievement of articulation and of access is no guarantee of successful influence, but to fail to gain articulation is to forego any chance of shaping political decisions. We must impress upon the decision makers the likely consequences of their rejection of our demands as well as the benefits to be derived from a favourable response. Thus, what the authors are suggesting is effective communication. What channels of communication should we use in gaining this access to the decision process? Naturally, our interests and desires should be articulated through those channels which are most available and which seem most likely to bring the demands to the attention of the relevant decision makers. In communicating our demands we must be concerned with doing more than merely transmitting information. We must convince the decision makers that our interests and demands are deserving of attention and response. We must show them that we are representative of a large number of their constituents. A group's ability to mobilize the support, energy, and resources of its membership will, to a large degree, influence its effectiveness; hence, we must present a united front from within our own institutions and put forward articulate spokesmen for our cause.

Outside of education, we should use a number of societal structures to communicate our messages. These would include:

1. the encouragement of the direct representation of our demands by existing members of the decision-making structure, or the support of potential members of that structure. This may require the articulation of our demands through the political parties themselves or through the election process; and

2. the use of the mass media to convey our concerns and demands. We must "educate" the media representatives to consider our point of view; we should take every opportunity to state our case in,.print and on the air waves.

These are but two of many existing communication structures through which we can "make our points" to the decision makers.

A word of caution, however, is in order. The degree of specificity of our demands is important. The demands must be couched in clear and unambiguous terms so that the decision makers can more easily translate need into public policy. Making effective decisions requires accurate and relevant information. Cannot we, as educators, take upon ourselves the task of helping to provide this information?

Summary

The authors have attempted to place education's current difficulties in proper perspective. First, the present problems are part of an evolutionary phase in the continuing development of social institutions. Secondly, it is important for both educators and the ,public at large to accept the limitations of just what can be accomplished by education. Additionally, nothing can be gained by undue pessimism which, in many instances, maybe unwarranted. Finally, we as educators must articulate our needs with greater specificity. Having done this, it may be necessary to utilize the political process to ensure more positive responses from the political decision-makers.

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EDUCATION: INTO THE 80's - COUNSELLOR ROLE AND RESPONSIBILITY

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This paper provides a brief look into our views on education and the place of the counsellor in it.

The focus of education is personal development. In the broadest sense education is the whole process of the child's formation as an individual in relationships with other people, as a member of a particular culture. Schooling is apart of education and in our highly technical, rapidly changing society, it is a most important part (Schmidt, 1973). In education there must be concern for what is taught - for the validity of knowledge and its transferability - and for how it is taught - the process of education.

In 1902, John Dewey described the educative process as the interaction of an immature, undeveloped being with certain social aims, meanings and values incarnate in the matured experience of the adult. Similarly, in 1973 W.H.O. Schmidt described the educational relationship as being a unique form of a general human relationship in which a more mature person - parent, teacher, etc. - has a less mature person in his charge (and hopefully cares for the one in his charge) and cannot escape his role as an educator in that the less mature one will always be learning something from him, for better or for worse.

Education will be most effective when the learning relationship is open and reciprocal so that educator and learner indeed learn from each other. This is critical in our times of increasingly rapid social change when the young are not so bound to perceptions and values based on a world that was, and thus are more open to an unbiased perception and understanding of the way things are now and may be in the future. Marshall McLuhan cited the tale of "The Emperor's New Clothes' as an age old illustration of the inability of the "well adjusted" established members of society to fully perceive societal change and its ramifications. In the tale, the well trained courtiers continued to treat the naked Emperor as though he were regally dressed. The young boy, however, "...unaccustomed to the old environment, clearly saw that the Emperor 'ain't got nothin' on.' The new environment was clearly visible to him" (McLuhan and Fione 1967, p. 88). Acceptance of the fact that the young may have equal or greater insight into the realities of the present makes great demands on the teacher - for openness, self-understanding and personal confidence, and for empathy and respect for his pupils.

The rapid changes and uncertainties of society make it essential that curriculum must enhance personal development, equipping students not only with valid, transferable knowledge and intellectual skills, but also personal self-knowledge, skills and confidence. People must have great personal resources to cope, for example, with the high possibility of periods of unemployment and instability of work. Unemployment in Canada is highest for people aged 17 to 24 (50% of the unemployed fall in this group). Fully 30% of the work force change jobs every 4 to 5 years (Conger, 1978). Indications are that these

trends will continue and intensify. The fact that many young people do not find their lives tenable, let alone meaningful, is evidenced in suicide rates among teenagers which have increased by 35 percent in the last 7 years. In Ontario for example, at last 5 teenagers kill themselves every week and it is estimated that there are 30 to 40 attempts for every suicide ("Suicide", 1979).

The personal knowledge and skills that are necessary may be thought of in terms of four broad areas:

1. Self Knowledge
   - obtained through the exploration of personal competencies, values beliefs and attitudes.
   - enhanced through one's ability to communicate and relate with others respectfully and sincerely.

2. Life Role Awareness
   - facilitated by self knowledge in allowing exploration of where one best sees himself:
     in what settings and doing what.
   - understanding of the personal implications of life roles.

3. Planning and Decision Making Skills
   - problem solving skills to enable the resolution of conflicts and the setting of clearly defined goals.
   - planning and program development skills to help design and implement programs to reach goals.
   - synthesizing strategies to assist in the integration of decisions and life roles.

4. World of Work Knowledge -knowledge about career patterns and career families, knowledge about factors that affect constancy and change in careers.
   - information about labour markets, changing work ethic, job creation possibilities, implications of unemployment, job mobility, necessity of periodic retraining and the personal responsibility involved in work.
   - awareness of the part leisure plays in a person's life.

In the context of life role and career exploration, it is interesting to note that the word "career" had the meaning of one's course or progress through life before it acquired the meaning of advancement or achievement in a particular job or occupation. McLuhan noted that "'jobs' represent a relatively recent pattern of work. From the 15th century to the 20th century, there is a steady progress of fragmentation of the stages of work that constitute 'mechanization' and 'specialism'" (1964, 1967, p. 20). In the world in which we find ourselves today and from what we can foresee of the future, it is important that we return to this broader conception of what a career is. Because of rapid technological change and the interrelated nature of so many industries, we must prepare people for a lifetime of continuous learning and a variety of work in related fields or career families. Today, many people - including highly trained people - not only discover that there is no employment in the particular field for which they have trained, but also find no employment of any kind for substantial periods of time.

This returns us to the necessity for self-knowledge, personal exploration and delineation of alternatives in life roles and the possession of competence in planning, decision making and implementation. The KEYS are validity of knowledge - technical and

personal - and individual flexibility and resilience. The need is evidenced not just in career development but in any number of ways in daily life. Consider, for example, the current high cost of energy and the variety of ways in which people have reacted to it. The problem, simply stated, is one of escalating costs and uncertainty of supply. In Newfoundland the cost of electricity, for example, has increased approximately 100 percent since 1973 and is due to increase substantially in the future.

Many people have responded by paying out a greater percentage of their income for heating because of a feeling of helplessness, lack of knowledge, or through a conscious decision not to change. Many others have reacted by turning down their thermostat (accepting some discomfort or wearing more clothes) or by reinsulating and weather-stripping their homes, thus reducing their energy consumption to some extent but not avoiding high costs completely. These decisions involve some exploration and knowledge of the present, the ability to project alternatives and some planning, decision-making and implementation skills.

Some are able to find more satisfying and enduring solutions by learning and adopting from the past (for example, wood heat, wind generation) or by innovating for the future (for example, solar heat, new methods of house construction). These represent deeper exploration of values and life-styles, broader plans and implementations. These more fundamental processes are surely what are required in conceptualizing life roles and career development, and indeed, in conceptualizing the whole educational process, just as surely as they are needed in responding to the energy situation.

And so, what is the counsellor's role and responsibility in education? The counsellor has expertise in:

- interpersonal relationships
- whole life development and learning
- planning
- evaluation competencies

and operates in a helping model that enhances a person's exploration, understanding and action. This makes a counsellor a valuable and necessary member of the school team in terms of the process of education. The role of the counsellor may be conceptualized in terms of:

1. Contributions to teacher-pupil communication in terms of
   - genuineness, congruence in behavior and communication
   - good listening skills and habits
   - responsive classroom communication

We believe that the degree of understanding, genuineness and respect shown to students will determine the kind of interaction students will evolve with the teacher and with each other.

2. Contributions as an integral member of school curriculum team as envisaged by Joseph Schwab (1973), composed of specialists in:

   - subject matter
   - the milieu, i.e., the social, cultural context

- learners - general characteristics - knowledge of individuals -teachers - instructional expertise
- general curriculum specialist for balance and integration

The counsellor is viewed as one person who has knowledge of learners, as well as the school and community milieus; in many cases, he also has instructional expertise.

3. Contributions to teaching strategies utilized in the classroom through

- relating the methods of presentation of the curriculum to the intellectual functioning of the individual
- the promotion of ways to personalize the curriculum to the students
- the promotion of the attitude that the classroom is a place where people learn to be responsible by being treated with RESPECT and TRUST
- helping children develop their own competencies
- clarifying children's and teacher's attitudes and beliefs about themselves and others

Bruner (1966) noted that theories of learning and development are descriptive of learning while theories of instruction are prescriptive and are concerned with improving learning. For education to be effective, it is of course necessary that prescriptive theories of instruction, which are a specialty of the teacher, be congruent with descriptive theories of development, which are a specialty of the counsellor.

These three broad areas represent important functions for counsellors, functions which fall within the bounds of their training and expertise. Too often now we have a deficit model for counselling - in which the counsellor is called upon only when something is wrong and not when developmental plans for the educational system are worked on. We advocate renewed emphasis of counselling for development - an emphasis on working with individuals and groups of students and teachers for the promotion of the knowledge and skills discussed. This does not mean the abandonment of young people in crisis situations, but does mean that priority must be given to ongoing development of competencies to cope with changing times and the broader developmental role of the counsellor in teacher-pupil communication, teaching strategies and curriculum development.

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HUMAN RIGHTS AND DENOMINATIONALISM': HARD DECISIONS AHEAD IN NEWFOUNDLAND EDUCATION

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I. Introduction

Not too long ago, CBC's Fifth Estate gave its viewers the chilling impression that Newfoundland is one benighted Canadian province where rights of teachers can be trampled upon in the name of religion.[2] Attempting at fairness, however, the programme host interviewed a denominational spokesman who ably insisted that perhaps no other Canadian set-up is as democratic as ours which provides parents freedom of choice in education.

The host of Fifth Estate and the denominational spokesman seem to offer us two contrasting portraits. One is a portrait of gloom, darkened by the brooding shadows of the various provincial denominations. The other is a portrait of determined optimism, showing parents and children ministered to by the denominations protective of their rights and beliefs. Which portrait reflects more faithfully the realities in Newfoundland education?

The answer is likely to be straightforward for people who are familiar with the development of Newfoundland education. No matter what problems have arisen due to the active participation of the religious denominations in the field of education in this province, their tremendous contributions cannot be denied. And, despite recent unfortunate cases, it is true that the denominational school boards have been most responsible in the discharge of power of dismissal granted to them by law.[3] Thus the first portrait seems too blurred, too indiscriminating to the critical eye.

Nevertheless, because the denominations have continuing and future contributions to offer, some serious problems that could hinder them as a positive force in Newfoundland education should be recognized and eliminated. Thus, rather than catalogue the denominational achievements, I shall blow up some dark spots that mark, 1 believe, a more faithful portrayal of the educational scene in this province. Also, I shall present certain alternative policy decisions that might be considered to clear these undesirable spots away.

II. What Human Rights for Teachers?

The spectre, if not the reality, of a "morals clause" was alarming enough for teachers to vote, during the 1977 meeting of the Newfoundland Teachers Association, in support of a resolution demanding that provincial human rights legislation be amended to include teachers as teachers .[4]

The resolution, as some NTA officers and members noted, was a futile one. And surely so, in a way. For while a constitutional expert may say it more authoritatively, it seems safe to suggest that the constitutional status of the 1948 Terms of Union, which protects the denominational educational arrangements in Newfoundland, will over-ride any contradictory provincial or federal human rights legislation. Predictably, we could

expect the rights of a provincial denominational system to prevail over human rights claims by, or on behalf of, teachers.

This point is clearly seen in the June 17, 1977 decision of a three-member panel of Ontario Supreme Court judges, which confirmed that denominational school boards have the right to dismiss teachers instantly "for cause "[5]. The case decided upon involved Susan Porter and Patricia Podgorski, two teachers who were dismissed by the Catholic Essex County Separate School Board for marrying in civil ceremonies. The ruling agreed that it was within the denominational competence to determine what constitutes the interest of the denomination which it may protect.

The cases of Porter and Podgorski are complicated by the fact that the school board fired them before the termination of their contracts. 'Given this factor, the decision might still be overturned by the Court of Appeal or by the Supreme Court of Canada. Butt here seems no doubt that, provided proper procedures are followed, the substantive powers of the denominations are fully established.

Yet the NTA resolution was not futile because it brought to public attention a valid and serious moral claim concerning their rights. Teachers within our denominational systems have human rights, the violation of which should occasion intelligent rethinking and remedial action. Obviously, however, the first questions to answer are these: what are these "human rights" claimed for teachers?; and do teachers have them even when they are not legally provided for?

(I) What is a "human right"? The expression "human right" is a fairly recent one, but the idea behind it has had a long tradition. In its earlier form, philosophers, activists and ideologists spoke of "natural rights". As rights conceived during the medieval ages, natural rights were presumed to have been revealed and given sanction by a Divine Legislators. In more recent versions of the natural law theory, the appeal to a Divine Legislator has been dropped, and greater attention has been placed on the nature of man as the basis by which the rights are claimed. On this view, individuals as human beings are assumed to possess common capacities and needs that ought to be developed and satisfied.

The problem associated with determining what concretely and specifically constitute the distinctive human capacities and needs has plagued human rights theorists. Their cause is not helped much by the wide variations found in numerous declarations of human rights.' The differing circumstances in different societies, giving rise to varying needs, and the variations in human abilities have cast doubt on the notion of commonly-shared, distinctive human rights. Nevertheless, at least in Western societies, it is no longer possible to deny a few general human rights from which more concrete, specific instances can be extensively drawn. Feinberg attempts to enumerate them as follows:

1. Positive rights to goods needed for one's welfare in interacting, intertwined life in society, such as the right to equal protection of the law, the right to equal consideration, and the right to a fair trial;

2. The right not to be treated inhumanely or cruelly; not to be tortured or treated barbarously;

> The right not to be subjected to exploitation or degradation even when such subjection is utterly painless This right would include a higher kind of respect, an inviolate dignity, which enjoins that a person should not be brainwashed, made into a docile instrument for the purpose of others, and converted into domesticated beings like animals."

There are competing theories that explain why every individual deserves human rights. Whatever the definitive theory is, however, there are good grounds for agreeing with Crittenden that an adequate justification of man's entitlement to human rights must trace back to assumptions that the development of certain human capacities and the satisfaction of certain human needs are valuable, and that these capacities and needs are the same, potentially at least, for all men.[10]

Sometimes it is claimed that, precisely on this point, a conflict arises between the religious and the secular humanist. The religious, presumably, eventually interprets human capacities and needs in terms of revealed knowledge which has its source in a Supernatural Being. In contrast, the secular humanist is seen to discover them through man's unaided reason that stops short of revelation.

This is not the time to resolve which of the two positions is the right one. Not implying that the secular humanist has a stronger case, one might note that the humanist has a simpler case. This is because he can more easily appeal to verifiable facts of human existence, without having to justify the existence of a Creator who has Divine purposes behind His creation.

But the difference in their justifications notwithstanding, there is a similarity in how the religious and the secular humanist view human beings. Not only do they both agree that certain human needs have to be provided for by social, legal, political, and economic institutions. They also agree that because human beings have the capacity to reason and to exercise their will, they are entitled to freedom of choice and conscience. The religious is, I think, more realistic in stressing the limitations that characterize man's exercise of his will and reason. But both uphold an inviolate dignity of man to think and decide for himself rather than to be made a docile instrument for the purposes of others. The position of Vatican 11 is explicit on this matter when it declared:

> "It is one of the major tenets of Catholic doctrine that man's response to God in faith must be free: no one therefore is to be forced to embrace the Christian faith against his own will.[11]

This tenet must be foremost in Janssens' mind when he wrote that, in proclaiming the freedom of conscience as a fundamental principle, the Catholic Church must "allow that the person is acting in conformity with his judgment of conscience, even if the latter is erroneous. . .[12]

(ii) No rights without legal sanction? About two centuries ago, in his Anarchical Fallacies, Jeremy Bentham tried to demolish the idea of one's having rights that are not recognized or provided for in a legal system. His words were uncompromising:

> "Right... is the child of law: from real laws come real rights; but from imaginary laws, from laws of nature, fancied and invented by poets, rhetoricians, and dealers in moral and intellectual poisons, come imaginary rights. . . Natural rights is simple nonsense - nonsense upon stilts.[13]

In light of the Porter and Podgorski cases in Ontario and of the John Bonia and Gregg Stack cases in Newfoundland,[14] might we say that freedom of conscience and the freedom to personally determine one's own marital commitments are simple nonsense? In other words, are they not real rights at all?

At least two points may be suggested in response to this query. First, not all rights are legal rights. Some rights are moral rights[15] and while they may not be institutionalized in legal terms, human rights are no less deserving of respect, as legal ones for people who profess to honor moral rules. Moreover, it is a feature of human rights that they are regarded frequently as demands against the existing, established order. When human rights claims are made, there is an insistence that although the claimed rights are not legal, they are nevertheless deserved, and that therefore governmental institutions or leaders ought to provide for, or protect them. This last point is implied by Vatican II when it called upon the social order to work unceasingly for the benefit of the human person.[16]

Second, the established social, political, economic, and legal order may be defective. In particular it has been observed that a legal system may be in need of reform. As Paul Weiss of Yale University wrote:

> "Not everything that a Constitution enjoins or permits ought to be. It does not always decree what is good for men, the society or state. There are limits to what it ought to demand. A just man will look beyond the letter of the Constitution and beyond the most explicit constitutional decisions when he finds that they literally require the denial to a man of what, on other grounds, is known to be that man's right."[17]

Shall we agree with and paraphrase Weiss, therefore, that the Schools Act of 1969, which explicitly enumerates the powers of denominational school boards, and Article 17 of the 1948 Terms of Union, which entrenched the denominational principle in this province, are, as a matter of fact, "bad, immoral, mistaken, unjust"?[18]

It would be going a little too far, I believe, to accept Smiley's observation that some constitutionally entrenched provisions, such as the educational rights of religious denominations, would now be regarded by many as an "unfortunate inheritance".[19] But the import of Smiley's comment, as well as those of Weiss, should prove disturbing for the defenders of the educational status quo in this province. They should also touch the moral sensitivity of those who appeal to the law in their use of sanctions or penalties needed to exact obedience from, or to impose punishment upon, erring church members.

111. A Dilemma for the Church

It is surely more than just a curiosity to see a denominational system departing from the spirit of its fundamental principles. It would be extremely difficult to reconcile the firing of Catholic teachers on the ground that they have married outside the Church, or have divorced and subsequently married, with the professed commitment of the Church to freedom of religion and conscience. The firing becomes even more draconian when we realize that Vatican 11 has enumerated certain rights "necessary for leading a life truly human", such as the right to "food, clothing, and shelter; the right to choose a state of life freely, and to found a family, the right to education, to employment, to a good reputation, to respect, appropriate information, to activity in accord with the upright norm

of one's conscience, to protection of privacy, and to rightful freedom in matters religious too."

But we must understand the unenviable position occupied by the Church in the present time. Its Divine mandate enjoins it to teach men and to show them the way to salvation. But how could the Church do so effectively if its teachers do not exemplify the way of Christ or the teachings of the Church? As Fr. McKenna insists,

> "The teacher is a powerful model to his charges. 'Do as I say, not as I do' is very bad pedagogy. The teacher who indulges in it destroys his own credibility in the eyes of his class, and undermines his effectiveness as a teacher."[21]

This emphasis on the teacher as a significant factor in Catholic education is, in fact, not a local concern in this province. A recent statement, entitled "The Catholic School", issued by the Vatican Congregation for Catholic Education, similarly stresses that the witness and behaviour of teachers are of first importance to impart a distinctive character to Catholic schools.[22] There should be no surprise, therefore, that Dr. Tracey could write as follows:

> "There would be little point in having Catholic school boards or a Catholic school system if there were teachers in the schools who did not share our goals, or even worse, who actively worked to undermine them."[23]

In the Catholic system in this province, it seems that the human rights which the Church itself espouses are stripped off individuals who are hired as teachers. This is presumably because, in the words of Fr. McKenna, "Anyone who bears the title of Catholic Teacher publicly professes his commitment to Jesus Christ and to his vicar on earth .... "[24] In this regard, we might allude to the U.S. Supreme Court which ruled, not too long ago, that school children do not shed their constitutional rights at the school house door. The question to ask is: Is the Catholic school board justified in divesting the teacher of his rights at the door of the Catholic school?

From the perspective of the religious who believes that God has given all, it would make sense to say that it is to a person's glory for God to take all when he becomes a teacher. In this sense, the teacher voluntarily gives up his human rights in favor of his commitment. But unfortunately, teaching is not simply a luxury that one gets into only because of commitment to denominational convictions or to love of Christ. Teaching is a job, a source of livelihood and self-respect, an expression of one's talents for skillful performance. Particularly in a job market saturated with teachers, and in a web of systems that hire largely according to denominational affiliations, it is totally unrealistic to suppose that applicants for teaching posit•ons approach school boards with hearts committed to piety. It is also assuming too much to say that teachers who remain in their school boards do so because of their commitment to school board philosophy. Thus, while Fr. McKenna could say with conviction that "Teachers who are not comfortable with their Catholicism should not undertake to serve as Catholic teachers in a Catholic School", someone who signed his name "A Christian" could charge that the Catholic spokesman "displays a very unchristian attitude".[25] If the uncomfortable one resigns, where is he to go? Is a grudging acceptance of creed, enforced against one's human rights, much better than picking up one's regular UIC cheques?

The Church dilemma is a painful one: To be compassionate on erring Catholic teachers, and thus fail in its Divine mission; or to be militant against erratic Catholic teachers, and thus make a mockery of human rights that it commends for all.

IV. Escaping the Dilemma: Some Possibilities

The temptation to blame the Catholic Church for human rights violations and to imagine the abrogation of denominational educational rights as solution tot he problem should be resisted, or at least tempered with understanding. It is true that, under the present circumstances, the human rights exercised by the denominational school boards on behalf of parents clash with those of teachers. But to protect the human rights of teachers by eliminating the human rights of school boards or parents is no less an unjustified violation. Needless to say, one violation does not remedy another violation.

It must be realized that the problem under consideration has ultimately a structural basis. That is, the conflict arises because the legally protected educational structures systematically provide for the rights of the faithful, without allowing provisions for the secularly-inclined or the unorthodox (such as Christians who see no real differences between denominations). The solution therefore is not to withdraw provisions or protection from one and to transfer it to the other. What is needed is the modification of the educational structures such that the rights of both parties are met satisfactorily.

If the last point is admitted, the popular suggestion involving complete secularization of Newfoundland schools should be rejected. Such a move must be seen for what it is - an unjust step that would destroy the human rights of a substantial majority of Newfoundland parents to a religious education of their choice for their children. With this in mind, it is difficult to understand why the secularized American educational model appears so attractive to so many.

But there are other real possibilities for structural changes which Newfoundland educators could profitably explore.

I. A recent proposal contained in the Report of the Task Force on Education presented to the May 1977 Newfoundland Conference of the United Church in Canada is one possibility. The proposal, if implemented, would result in the denominations relinquishing their administrative control of education, and exercising their influence in matters "much more crucial to the development of children", such as the "academic and professional qualifications of the teachers, the range of subjects included in the school programme, and the level of student achievement as measured by valid, reliable examinations.„[26]

If administrative authority were transferred to the Provincial Government, it is very likely that religious and moral considerations related to teacher selection and retention will be eliminated. This would eminently satisfy secularists and the unorthodox. But not the Catholic Church and other similarly-minded denominations. The suggestion that they could always use their influence to bear on educational policies and practices would mean little to them. As Archbishop Seaborn noted, it is hard to see how a Church could exert a greater influence on education by handing administrative power to the provincial government.[27]

2. If the danger of secularization of schools, which may well emerge as a result of transfer of control to a secular power, is to be averted, the denominations will need more than influence. But while the Report falls short on this point, its general proposal to relinquish administrative control and to direct denominational energies towards certain designated areas of concern merit serious attention rather than outright rejection. A dialogue among the denominations, which the Report recommends, could consider a more appropriate allocation of power and responsibility than presently exists between the government and the denominations. For a start, such a dialogue might study the burdensome areas enumerated in the Report.[28] Nothing less seems called for if the Report's concern is true:

> "The Task Force submits that the Church is wasting its energy, its talents and potential influence in pursuit of a false goal - administrative control, rather than a more vigorous promotion of Christian principles and a Christian atmosphere in the schools."[29]

In principle at least, there is no reason why the denominations may not reserve for themselves certain areas of authority while surrendering specified areas of administrative control. In the reserved areas, such as moral and religious education, arrangements could be made so that denominational authorities are fully enabled, with financial and other forms of support, to carry on instruction by teachers of their choice, and to provide religious services and guidance for the children of their faithful.

3. Given good faith between the government and denominations; given administrative imagination, flexibility and willingness to experiment, a system of government control with certain reserved areas of authority for the denominations can be made to work. But two major problems could be encountered. First, the denominations may fail to agree on which areas are to be reserved for themselves, and how such areas may be provided for. In fact, some differences are detectable between the Catholic Church's ideas on religious/moral education and teacher qualifications and those of the United Church as indicated in the Report. Such differences are bound to create disagreement on the actual arrangements between the government and the denominations. For a second problem, it may turn out that the structures or arrangements required to safeguard denominational interests are quite complicated and demanding. It may then be perceived that leaving the structures as they are is the best alternative. In this light, the proposal for the development of a secular school board(s) makes sense.

The formation of a secular school board has been all-too-quickly dismissed by some who fear waste of scarce provincial resources. But economical sharing of facilities, plants and other resources can be, and has been, done. Moreover, the excessive faith some have in big, amply-provided schools has been shown to be a misplaced one. Now we know that physical resources are a minor factor in the educational process. Suddenly, we are brought to realize that being "small and simple" may not be so bad after all. Not that some minimal standards in school provisions have to be given up. Rather, this is to say that the supposed insurmountable financial problem may be overcome. Hopefully, with a genuine desire to cooperate in harmony, toleration, and goodwill, and with administrative insight, religious and secular school boards can work things out.

V. What May be Expected of the Churches?

A philosopher of education may have taken a risky plunge outside his professional sphere in sketching and assessing some suggested structural changes needed in this province to satisfy the demands of human rights. I should then follow protocol by leaving further discussion to others more qualified on the matter than I am.

But my own convictions should be made explicit at this point. I am convinced that religion has a tremendous and indispensable role in human life. To make it difficult for the religious to touch the hearts and minds of the children of the faithful in the schools is to impoverish the quality of the educational experiences of the young.[30] It is to promote a degeneration of human existence. Moreover, it is a denial of the human right to religious freedom.

I also believe, however, that no justification can be given for committing injustice against secularly inclined or unorthodox parents and teachers. Something is wrong in an established order when the exercise of one human right has to conflict with the exercise of another. I do not think that any Church should be content to exercise "discretion, wisdom and compassion" within a system where conflict of human rights is inevitable.

If we are serious about our profession of respect for human rights, whether our motivations are religious or secular and humanistic, we are obligated to bring about needed changes in our institutions. The denominations may be expected to attempt no less than an examination of the possibilities by which human rights conflicts may be eliminated. Indeed, possibilities are there to explore; positive actions are there to undertake. 1 would like to believe that the Churches have the wisdom, the generosity, and the will to act in the right direction.

To return to the question raised at the beginning of this article, we must concede that dark spots mar an otherwise attractive portrait of our educational system in Newfoundland. However, educators with good faith and courageous imagination can paint an unblemished one.

FOOTNOTES

1. In this article, focus will be on the Catholic school board or denomination. I believe, however, that the general issues raised in this article will apply to nearly all school boards or denominations no less. Also, the human right to be taken up extensively is the teacher's right to freedom of religion and conscience, although what will be said here will apply to many other human rights belonging to teachers and parents.

2. The same stark impression is given in Earle McCurdy's "The Inquisition Is Alive and Well and Living in Newfoundland", in McClean's, December 29, 1976, p. 46.

3. See Fr. Kevin Tracey's letter to Catholic Teachers, dated November 19, 1976, p. 2.

4. "Teachers Express Concern over Lack of Human Rights", The Evening Telegram, April 15, 1977, p. 3.

5. Patrick O'Neill, "Why Porter and Podgorski Matter to Every Teacher," in The Reporter 3 (October 1977): 4243. See also Cy Jamison, "Marriage Cases Appealed" (p. 3), and Editorial, "Civil Marriages" (p. 4), in The Reporter 2 (June 1977).

6. This view, expounded by St. Thomas Aquinas, is still alive in contemporary times. It was argued persuasively by Jacques Maritain in The Rights of Man and Natural Law (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1943). For a good discussion of the historical development of human rights and an exploration of many significant issues related to human rights claims, see D.D. Raphael, Political Theory and The Rights of Man (London: Macmillan, 1967).

7. For a most comprehensive compilation of such declarations, see Ian Brownlie's Basic Documents on Human Rights (Oxford University Press, 1971). A more accessible, but much less extensive coverage is provided in Pierre Elliott Trudeau's A Canadian Charter of Human Rights (Ottawa: Information Canada, 1968).

8. It is difficult to agree with Feinberg that these are rights to goods "that cannot ever, in the very nature of the case, be in scarce supply", One wonders whether "cannot ever ...be..." should have read "ought never ...be...". See Joel Feinberg, Social Philosophy (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey? Prentice Hall, Inc., 1973), pp. 96-97.

9. Ibid.

10. Brian Crittenden, Education and Social Ideals (Don Mills, Ontario: Longman Canada Ltd., 1973), p. 42.

11. The Documents of Vatican 11. Edited by Walter M. Abbot, S.J. (New York: The American Press, 1966), p. 689. There is no reason why we may not extrapolate "denominational affiliation" for "Christian faith" in this context.

12. Louis Janssens, Freedom of Conscience and Religious Freedom (Staten Island, N.Y.: Society of St. Paul, 1966), p.81.

13. Quoted in S.I. Benn and R.S. Peters, The Principles of Political Thought (N.Y.: The Free Press, 1965 ed.), p. 446. Italics mine.

14. The cases were cited and elaborated on in CBCs Fifth Estate shown on November 15, 1977.

15. Benn and Peters, see footnote 13, pp. 107-109.

16. The Documents of Vatican 11, p. 225.

17. Paul Weiss, Our Public Life (Carbondale, III.: Southern Illinois University Press, 1959), p. 52. Italics mine. The book's chapters 2 and 3 very ably argue this point.

18. Ibid.

19. Donald Smiley, "Courts, Legislatures, and the Protection of Human Rights". In Courts and Trials. Edited by M.L. Friedland (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1975), p. 94.

20. The Documents of Vatican 11, p. 225. Italics mine.

21. Fr. James McKenna, S.J., "The Church and Education". The Evening Telegram, November 19, 1977, p. 16.

22. Frank Ruetz, C.R., "Catholic Schools: Open, Just, Diverse." The Reporter 3 (November 1977): 34.

23. Dr. Kevin Tracey, quoted in "Record Set Straight for Catholic Teachers", The Evening Telegram, November 22, 1976, p. 2.

24. Fr. James McKenna, S.J., The Church and Education, p. 16.

25. A Christian, "Unchristian Attitude" in Letters to the Editor, The Evening Telegram, December 28, 1977, p. 6.

26. Report of the Task Force on Education presented to the Newfoundland Conference, United Church of Canada, May 1977, p. 40.

27. "Anglicans Not In Favor of UC Move", The Evening Telegram, June 4, 1977, p. 4. See also, "Other Denominations Are In Favor Of Maintaining Control of Schools", The Evening Telegram, June 2, 1977, p. 3.

28. Report of the Task Force on Education, p. 35.

29. Ibid.

30. It has been claimed frequently that religion contributes to irrationality inhuman life. Some books that sufficiently refute this claim are: James Kellenberger, Religious Discovery, Faith, and Knowledge (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1972); Thomas McPherson, Philosophy and Religious Belief (London: Hutchenson and Company, 1974); and Basil Mitchell, The Justification of Religious Belief (London: The Macmillan Press, 1973).

PART II

Social Organization of the School (49-276)

A. The Teacher in the School (50-159).

B. The Student in the School (160-203).

C. The School as Complex Organization (204-276).

SELF-CONCEPT OF TEACHERS IN NEWFOUNDLAND

Dr. Amarjit Singh
Dr. Ishmael J. Baksh

Introduction

This paper is a part of a longer study entitled "Teachers' Experiences and Perceptions of Teaching in Newfoundland". Aspects of this longer study have been reported in previous issues of The Morning Watch[1], and in two monographs[2] prepared by the authors.

The focus in this article is on the teacher's self-concept. The relevance of self-concept theory to the organization of learning and teaching in the school situation has also been discussed in previous issues of The Morning Watch[3].

The basic points in self-concept theory that are pertinent to the discussion in this article are worth repeating. These are that (1) "A person's assessment of his own ability to perform certain tasks in a given situation is his self-concept of ability. People talk to themselves in defining how good or bad they are in comparison to others with whom they live and communicate in their communities"; (2)'"...definition of the self (self-concept) plays a crucial role in a person's behaviour in a given situation"; (3) "...the social norms and expectations of others define the appropriate behaviour for persons in various social situations"; (4) "Each person learns the definitions of appropriate behaviour through interaction with others who are important or significant to him'"; (5) "The individual learns to behave in the ways that he perceives are appropriate or proper for him"; (6) "The individual also acquires conceptions of his ability to learn various types of behaviour through interactions with others whose evaluations are important to him'"; (7)"...a person holds not one but many self-concepts"; (8) "...self-concept is not a fixed trait but changes in the process of experiencing new demands and expectations which society makes on its members'"; (9) "...the development of an individual's self-concepts depends upon the social conditions and the commitment a society makes for bettering the lives of its people"; and (10) "...one tends to have positive self-concepts when one gets the opportunities to 'succeed' in society."

It is important to note that, within the interactionist perspective referred to above, teachers' definitions of their roles (e.g., that they should be innovative and try to introduce novel ideas and practices) are learned by teachers in their interaction with others (e.g., Education faculty, colleagues, etc.). They are expected to act in appropriate ways and such notions are built into their training and professional roles.

Since a person's self-concept of his/her ability is associated with his/her behavior, and since the development of one's self-concept takes place through interaction with '"significant others" (i.e., persons who are important in the life of individuals), we thought it worthwhile to know (1) what teachers think about themselves as teachers and (2) what factors might be related to teacher's self-concept in this province.

Looking from the interactionist perspective (i.e., symbolic interactionism), from which the self-concept theory discussed in this paper is derived, we were specifically interested in focusing on (a) teachers' interaction with people in the communities and schools in which they worked; and (b) the relationship between such interaction and teachers' self-concept.

On theoretical grounds, we hypothesized that besides standard socio-economic and demographic factors that might have some association with teachers' self-concept, indicators of teachers' interaction with others would have a positive relationship with teachers' self-concepts as teachers.

Methodology, Findings and Discussion

The data for the present study were obtained from a questionnaire survey of a random sample of 704 primary-elementary school teachers. Further details regarding the sample are available elsewhere.[4]

The demographic and socioeconomic 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, years of teaching experience, number of years of post-secondary education, number of students in the school, number of teachers in the school, parents' occupation, and parents' educational level.

Our analysis of the data shows no association between teacher's self-concept and the above-mentioned demographic and socioeconomic variables.

Teacher self-concept was measured by a single item (How do you view yourself as a teacher when you compare yourself with other teachers?), with seven possible responses ranging from "one of the most able" to "one of the least able".

We found four items to be associated with teachers' interaction with others. Specifically, we focused on (1) teachers' involvement in social and recreational activities with colleagues from their school; (2) encouragement or discouragement by their administration with regard to the introduction of new ideas or practices in school; (3) evaluation by colleagues of the usefulness of education courses taken at the university, and (4) attempts made by the teachers to introduce new ideas or practices in school.

The above were in general measured by single items, each with six possible responses. The one exception was the fourth, which was measured by an item with only five possible responses. The exact wording of these items was as follows:

1. How often do you engage in social and recreational activities with colleagues from your school (very often - I am the only teacher in my school)?

2. If you have tried to introduce new ideas or practices how encouraged or discouraged were you in general by the reactions of school administration (highly encouraged -- I am the only teacher in my school)?

3. In your interaction with colleagues in your school, what have you gathered is their feeling in general about the usefulness of the kinds of ideas you got from Education courses at university (highly favourable - I am the only teacher in my school)?

4. How often have you attempted to introduce ideas or practices that to your knowledge were never tried out before in the school in which you work (very often -- never)?

Table 1 shows teachers' responses to the item designed to measure their self-concept.

It is clear from Table 1 that approximately 32 percent had highly positive self-concepts (above average), 68 percent perceived themselves as having average self-concepts, and only 2 percent had low self-concept.

Following our theoretical perspective, we hypothesized that teachers- self-concept would be associated with variables concerned with the interaction of teachers with others. The relevant Pearson correlation coefficients appear in Table 2. The coefficients were all moderate in magnitude, generally ranging from .22 to .40, indicating the existence of a relationship between teachers' self-concept and each of the four other variables. The strong relationships were those between teachers' self-concept, on the one hand, and teachers' out-of-school interaction with their colleagues (peers) from school (.41) and teachers' interaction with their administration regarding school related ideas and practices (.31) on the other. In a way, these findings reinforce our theoretical assumption that the self-concept is a product of interaction with "significant others", since in this situation colleagues and administrators are likely to be among teachers' significant others. Also, it is clear from Table 2 that colleagues' assessment of educational ideas and teachers' own initiatives to introduce in school what they considered new ideas were relevant to their definition of how good they were as teachers.

In view of the relatively strong impact which social and recreational activities with colleagues and the reaction of the administration to the introduction of new ideas or practices in school apparently had on teachers' self-concepts, we thought it might be interesting to examine further the distributions associated with these variables. These distributions are presented in Tables 3, 4, 5 and 6.

First of all, Table 3 presents teachers' estimate of their social and recreational activities with colleagues from their school. It appears from the table that approximately 72 percent of teachers (if we combine three categories of attitudes, i.e., occasionally, infrequently, and very infrequently) had relatively limited social and recreational interaction with their colleague. Only 24 percent of the teachers reported having more frequent interaction. Clearly there was wide variation among teachers regarding such interaction. Similar variations are evident among teachers with regard to the indicators of interaction mentioned in Tables 4, 5 and 6.

Table 1

Self-Concept of Teachers in Newfoundland
(How do you view yourself as a teacher when you compare yourself with other teachers?)

Category of Attitude	Percentage
One of the most able	6.7 (47)
Above average	7.8 (55)
A bit above average	17.3 (122)
Average	67.9 (478)
A bit below average	1 (1)
Clearly below average	1 (1)

Table 2

Relationship Between Selected Variables and Teachers' Self-concept

Variables	Correlation with Teachers' Self-concept (Pearson Correlation Coefficient)
Teachers' involvement in social and recreational activities with their colleagues from school.	.40
Encouragement or discouragement by administration to introduce new ideas or practices in school.	.31
Evaluation of colleagues about the usefulness of education courses taken at the university.	.23
Attempts made to introduce new ideas or practices in school.	.22

Table 3

Teachers' Responses Regarding How Often They Engage in Social and Recreational Activities with Colleagues from their Schools

Category of Attitudes	Percentage
Very often	8.7 (61)
Often	15.7 (110)
Occasionally	42.8 (301)
Infrequently	13.5 (95)
Very infrequently	15.5 (109)
Does not apply	4.0 (28)

Table 4

Teachers' Response Regarding Administrators' Reaction to Teachers' Attempt to Introduce New Ideas or Practices in Schools

Categories of Attitudes	Percentage
Highly encouraged	23 (162)
Somewhat encouraged	40.5 (283)
Not affected one way or the other	31.5 (22)
Somewhat discouraged	2.6 (18)
Highly discouraged	.7 (5)
Question does not arise	2 (14)

Table 5

Evaluation of Colleagues' About the Usefulness of Education Courses Taken at the University

Categories of Attitudes	Percentage
Highly favourable	1.7 (12)
Favourable	30.4 (214)
Neutral	26.0 (183)
Unfavourable	32.1 (226)
Highly unfavourable	7.0 (49)
Does not apply	2.8 (20)

Table 6

Attempts Made By Teachers to Introduce New Ideas or Practices in school

Category of Ideas	Percentage
Very often	5.1 (36)
Often	19.5 (137)
Occasionally	57.7 (405)
Almost never	13.0 (91)
Never	4.7 (33)
Missing data	.3 (2)

Conclusions

The relationships found in the present study, though based on single items, enable us tentatively to draw conclusions favourable to the interactionist perspective informing this paper. As we have mentioned elsewhere, the leap from statistical measures of association to conclusions regarding causality is fraught with danger. However, on the basis of the foregoing evidence we propose that, in Newfoundland, teachers' self-

concept tends to be affected by teachers' involvement in social and recreational activities with colleagues from their school, the encouragement they receive from administrators in introducing new ideas or practices in school, how their colleagues evaluate the usefulness of education courses taken at the university, and how often teachers attempt to introduce new ideas or practices in school.

Since a high percentage (68%) of the teachers reported average self-concepts, we suggest that an attempt be made to boost the self-concept of teachers in Newfoundland. It appears that colleagues in schools, school administrators, and education faculty at Memorial can playa crucial role in this process. For example, colleagues at school can interact more frequently socially, set up a positive support structure, and reinforce "good" aspects of teaching and learning in the Newfoundland school systems. School administrators can work out ways to encourage teachers to try out new ideas or practices in schools. Flexibility and the willingness on the part of administrators to accommodate inventiveness seem highly important to teachers. Of course, each of them has to take into account the unique situation of his/her school and environment. At the university, it seems that we have to make an extra effort to show prospective teachers the usefulness of theoretical concepts to everyday organization of learning and teaching, so that they do not get caught in a negative feedback and self-fulfilling prophecy that encourage defeatist attitudes and inappropriate support structures.

Bibliography

1. For example, see articles by I.J. Baksh and A. Singh, and by Baksh, Singh and W.B.W. Martin, in these issues of the **Morning Watch**: Vol. 8, No. 2, 1981; Vol. 8, Nos. 34,1981; Vol. 7, No. 2,1980; Vol. 7, Nos. 34, 1980; Vol. 6, No. 2, 1979.

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

3. See several articles by A. Singh on self-concept of ability and achievement in A. Singh and I.J. Baksh. **Society, Culture, and Schooling: Issues and Analysis**, Department of Educational Foundations, Memorial University, 1977.

4. See Baksh and Singh, 1979, 1980, **op. cit.**

TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF PROBLEMS IN TEACHING: THREE SITUATIONS IN NEWFOUNDLAND

Amarjit Singh
Ishmael J. Baksh

Introduction

This paper is a result of ongoing research which we initiated in 1975. At that time, we conducted in-depth interviews with teachers in small schools in isolated communities in Newfoundland. The impressions of beginning teachers in small isolated communities in Newfoundland were analyzed and reported in the Morning Watch, Vol. 2, No. 2, 1975. Several insights that were gained into situations in which teachers taught in small schools in isolated communities provided the basis for raising a number of questions pertinent to the area of the sociology of education in different teaching situations. Data were needed to find answers to various questions raised, and for this purpose we designed a questionnaire (containing ninety items) which was mailed to 1400 teachers belonging to three different categories.' From this mailing, 703 questionnaires were completed and returned to us. In this article, we present a preliminary analysis of only one free-response item in the questionnaire. The item read as follows:

> Please indicate the recurring problems, obstacles, or difficulties you have encountered, in your present teaching position, with regard to teaching the children in your class(es).

The following paragraphs, which appeared on the front page of the questionnaire and were addressed to the teachers, will provide some idea about the nature of the questions included in it and also about our purpose in initiating this kind of study:

> "We are interested in looking at the experiences of teachers working in small communities and those of teachers employed in larger communities. It is possible that these two groups of teachers differ with respect to such matters as the nature of the problems encountered in their work, the kinds of experiences they have, and the nature of their relationship with the community. We wish to determine how far such differences actually occur...
>
> We sincerely believe that our study will be a contribution to education in a number of ways. For instance, it will provide information regarding the special kinds of problems encountered by teachers in schools and communities of differing size. It will provide background information for prospective teachers (e.g., students at the university) regarding the sensitivities and capabilities necessary for working in schools and communities of differing size. It will suggest ways in which the university teacher preparation program might be made more relevant to the requirements of teaching in schools and communities of varying size...
>
> The items in the questionnaire are straightforward in nature. We assure you there are no secret purposes behind them. Most of the items deal with teachers' experiences in living and working in their respective communities. In the questionnaires, we also present some statements and ask you to state how far you agree or disagree with each. Our purpose here is simply

> to obtain some knowledge of the kinds of ideas you consider important, given especially the kind of situation in which you work. Finally, we request some standard biographical data standard in the sense that they are requested in innumerable questionnaires) since we would like to have these for future references."

A word about our theoretical perspective.' In sociology of education there are several well established traditions of enquiry.[2] Our approach can loosely be described as interactionist.[3] It is interactionist in the sense that we have attempted to elicit from different categories of teachers their perceptions of teaching in Newfoundland. The results of our study are presented below.

Results

It appears that the teachers' responses may conveniently be divided into seven broad categories. These are as follows:

1. Responses relating to physical resources
2. Responses relating to school organization
3. Responses relating to curriculum
4. Responses relating to students
5. Responses relating to parents
6. Responses relating to teachers
7. Responses relating to the community and to other concerns

The frequency of responses in each category by teachers in the three groups of schools is presented in Table 1. In this table the categories are ranked according to the total number of responses in each.

Among teachers in small schools in small communities, the sources of difficulty most frequently mentioned pertain to physical resources whereas among teachers in the two other groups of schools, problem arising in connection with students receive the most frequent mention. In all three sets of teachers, there is frequent reference to problems relating to students and to organization. In terms of frequency of mention, problems concerning parents rank higher among teachers in large schools situated in large communities than among their counterparts in the two other groups of schools. Difficulties relating to curriculum, to teachers, and to community and general concerns tend to be named somewhat less often than others in all three groups.

The nature of the various categories will become evident from the results presented below. It is highly possible, of course, that other researchers will classify the teachers' responses differently. The categories are dealt with sequentially to facilitate comparisons among the three groups of teachers.

The subgroups of responses in the category of Physical Resources have the same rank in all three types of school. The most frequently. named problems concern teaching materials, supplies, equipment and facilities. Teachers often thought that they did not have enough materials to provide a broader education, to give special assistance to pupils who needed it, and to enrich the experiences of children. The absence or inadequacy of library, gymnasium or science facilities was repeatedly noted, especially by teachers of small schools in small communities. The insufficiency of space was also seen as a handicap. One small school-small community teacher, for example, made the following observations:

> There is very little space to have such things as physical education or to set up displays and things of that sort in the classroom. The pupils have to remain in their seats; once out, they are usually disturbing others. There is no place to sit and read quietly. The situation is bad.

Poor physical conditions, reported most often by small school-small community teachers, included lack of proper sanitation, lack of or poor supply of running water, heating problems and the general deteriorating of the school building.

With regard to organization, it may be seen from Table 3 that among teachers from small schools in small communities difficulty associated with having to manage two or more grades at the same time is chosen most often as a problem. The corresponding choice among the other teachers is the pupil-teacher ratio. A number of teachers in each set of schools, but especially in schools located in small communities, reported inadequate access to professional help (e.g., in order to deal effectively with learning and behavioural difficulties) as a problem. In the larger schools, there was some concern about the effectiveness of grouping practices and about teachers' ability to cope with groups. Teachers in large schools in large communities were often dissatisfied with provisions for maintaining discipline and saw this "weakness" in their schools as an impediment to success in teaching. Such a concern was less apparent among teachers working in small communities. Unsatisfactory teacher-principal relationship was specified fairly often as a problem, ranking third or fourth in terms of frequency of mention. Other perceived obstacles or sources of difficulty are indicated in the table.

Managing two or more grades simultaneously was seen as an obstacle to effective teaching because of such factors as heavy work load, difficulty in doing anything creative, insufficient time for going outside the basic subjects, lack of time to provide individual attention and help, and problems as regards keeping all pupils occupied in valuable learning activities. Teachers from small schools in small communities often expressed disappointment - and even bitterness - at the failure of Education courses to prepare them for dealing with a multi-grade classroom. Having large classes - the problem of pupil-teacher ratio - was perceived by teachers in large schools as undesirable because it restricted the amount of individual attention pupils could receive, reduced likelihood of getting to know pupils well, made the execution of projects more difficult, and required expenditure of an excessive amount of time and effort in correcting work, coping with subgroups, preparing supplementary materials and other such activities.

TABLE 1

Response Categories

Small School/Small Community		Large School/Small Community		Large School/Large Community	
Response Category	**No. of Responses**	**Response Category**	**No. of Responses**	**Response Category**	**No. of Responses**
Physical Resources	130	Students	98	Students	223
Students	127	Organization	81	Organization	147
Organization	115	Physical Resources	70	Parents	109
Parents	80	Parents	68	Physical Resources	73
Curriculum	23	Curriculum	22	Curriculum	46
Community and General	20	Teachers	10	Teachers	8
Teachers	6	Community and General	2	Community and General	1
Totals	501		351		607

TABLE 2

Problems Regarding Physical Resources

Small School/Small Community		Large School/Small Community		Large School/Large Community	
Responses	**No. of Responses**	**Responses**	**No. of Responses**	**Responses**	**No. of Responses**
Materials, Facilities, etc.	75	Materials, Facilities, etc.	36	Materials, Facilities, etc.	41
Space	38	Space	30	Space	31
Physical Conditions	17	Physical Conditions	4	Physical Conditions	1
Totals	130		70		73

TABLE 3

Problems Regarding Organization

Small School/Small Community		Large School/Small Community		Large School/Large Community	
Responses	**No. of Responses**	**Responses**	**No. of Responses**	**Responses**	**No. of Responses**
Multi-Grade Classroom	79	Pupil-Teacher Ratio	23	Pupil-Teacher Ratio	60
Professional Help	14	Grouping of Pupils	15	Provision for Discipline	19
Pupil-Teacher Ratio	9	Teacher-Principal Relationship	9	Grouping	14
Teacher-Principle Relationship	8	Professional Help	9	Teacher-Principal Relationship	13
Provision for Discipline	3	Extra Duties	7	Introduction of Change	7
Suitability of Teaching Assignment	1	Introduction of Change	4	Communicating with Parents	7
Teacher Turnover	1	Time for Planning/ Preparation	4	Professional Help	7
		Provision for Discipline	3	Quality of Administrators	5
		Promotion Policies	2	Rigid Timetable	4
		Multi-Grade Classroom	2	Bussing of Students	4
		Bussing of Students	1	Extra Duties	4
		Senseless Rules	1	Miscellaneous	1
		Communicating with Parents	1		
Totals	115		81		147

As Table 4 reveals, the two most prominent sets of problems relating to curriculum concerned the appropriateness of the curriculum and the quantity of work to be covered. Limitation on choice of subject content, also, was named as a problem area by teachers in large schools, particularly those situated in large communities.

"Appropriateness" of the curriculum refers to the quality, level of difficulty and relevance of the subject matter. Among teachers in small communities, regardless of whether the schools are large or small, the "problem" most frequently specified was that the subject matter was too difficult for the students. Relevance was sometimes observed by the teachers to be a matter for concern. Among teachers in large schools situated in large communities, the relevance and the level of difficulty of the subject matter to be taught were seen as being equally deserving of concern.

Based on the number of times relevant problems were mentioned, intellectual competency had the highest rank among problems relating to pupils as a perceived obstacle to teaching, regardless of school and community size (see Table 5). Motivation ranked second in small communities but fourth in large ones. Discipline while ranking third among teachers in small schools in small communities, is mentioned less frequently by teachers of large schools in such communities,' but achieves second place among teachers of large schools in large communities. Handicaps arising from home background enjoy some prominence as a perceived problem within each group of teachers. One might observe that the passivity of students was mentioned several times by the small school-small community teachers but not by the others. Also, the physical state of students - though attracting the attention of several teachers in large schools situated in small communities - elicited relatively infrequent mention among small school-small community and large school-large community teachers. It might also be pointed out that attentiveness and attitude toward homework ranked higher among teachers in the large communities than they did in the two groups of teachers in the small communities. The ranks of other subgroups of responses are indicated in Table 5.

"Intellectual competency" referred to such perceived phenomena as variation in ability, limited ability, inability to read, lack of basic skills, and very little retention. Of these, inability to read and deficiencies in basic skills (with regard to calculating, spelling, use of language, etc.) were mentioned the most often. Problems with motivation included apathy and lack of interest. Discipline "problems" often took the form of unruliness, stubbornness, disobedience, ignoring of the teacher, lack of respect, defiance of the teachers' authority and other such student tendencies. "Physical state" sometimes reflected a concern with the untidy appearance of students but often with the result of inadequate nutrition or with fatigue (arising, for example, out of inadequate sleep, insufficient supervision by parents, or the watching of too much television). Miscellaneous individual traits perceived as problems included such characteristics as carelessness, dishonesty, jealousy regarding other children, unpleasantness of attitude, and unwillingness to try new things.

In Table 6, problems relating to parents are ranked according to frequency of mention. Deficiencies pertaining to parental interest in pupils or the school and to parental cooperation rank highest in all three groups of teachers. Parental understanding and acceptance of school goals and/or practices rank third among teachers in small communities but sixth among those in large communities. The educational achievement of parents - that is, the extent to which parents served as desirable models - was sometimes perceived as a problem by teachers in small communities but was not

TABLE 4

Problems Regarding Curriculum

Small School/Small Community		Large School/Small Community		Large School/Large Community	
Responses	**No. of Responses**	**Responses**	**No. of Responses**	**Responses**	**No. of Responses**
Appropriateness Quantity of Material	18 5	Appropriateness Quantity of Material Inflexibility	16 51	Appropriateness Quantity of Material Inflexibility	21 15 10
Totals	23		22		46

TABLE 5

Problems Regarding Students

Small School/Small Community		Large School/Small Community		Large School/Large Community	
Responses	**No. of Responses**	**Responses**	**No. of Responses**	**Responses**	**No. of Responses**
Intellectual Competency	33	Intellectual Competency	25	Intellectual Compentency	64
Motivation	26	Motivation	20	Discipline	39
Discipline	23	Handicaps from Home	17	Handicaps from Home	26
Handicaps from Home	16	Background		Background	
Background		Physical State	12	Motivation	24
Passivity	11	Discipline	8	Attentiveness	16
Miscellaneous Individual Traits	8	Miscellaneous Individual Traits	7	Attitude Toward Homework	15
Physical State	5	Attitude Toward Homework	5	Poor Work Habits	15
Attitude Toward Homework	3	Attentiveness	3	Miscellaneous Individual Traits	10
Attentiveness	2	Poor Work Habits	1	Attendance	9
				Physical State	5
Totals	127		98		223

TABLE 6

Problems Relating to Parents

Small School/Small Community		Large School/Small Community		Large School/Large Community	
Responses	**No. of Responses**	**Responses**	**No. of Responses**	**Responses**	**No. of Responses**
Parental Interest in Pupils/School	35	Parental Interest in Pupils/School	27	Parental Interest in Pupils/School	51
Cooperation	22	Cooperation	15	Cooperation	31
Understanding and Acceptance of School Goals and/or Practices	10	Understanding and Acceptance of School Goals and/or Practices	9	Broken Homes	8
Educational Achievement	6	Educational Achievement	7	Overdemanding Parents	7
Permissiveness	3	Permissiveness	5	Attitude Toward Teacher	5
Attitude Toward Teacher	3	Large Facilities	3	Understanding and Acceptance of School Goals and/or Practices	3
Communication with Parents	1	Broken Homes	1	Permissiveness	3
		Attitude Toward Teacher	1	Both Parents at Work	1
Totals	80		68		100

referred to at all by teachers in large communities. On the other hand, broken homes and overdemanding parents - though perceived as problems by teachers in large communities - did not attract much attention among teachers in small communities. Attitude towards the teacher was also sometimes cited as a problem, though one ranking higher among teachers in large communities than among their counterparts in small ones. The rank of other responses may be ascertained from Table 6.

Parents were often seen as lacking sufficient interest in pupils or the school. They were said, for example, to show "apathy", to be unwilling to assist children with school work, and to show inadequate interest in the work their children were doing at school. Parents were also sometimes perceived as being uncooperative - for example, when they failed to supply materials with which children might work, when they showed children insufficient enthusiasm for school, or when they took their children fishing instead of sending the latter to school. With regard to parents' understanding and acceptance of school goals and/or practices, teachers sometimes reported problems in such matters as getting parents used to new practices (e.g., having field trips, employing films as teaching aids, and using "levels" in reading), convincing parents to accept a broader notion of education, and developing parental understanding of school practices. While "broken homes" was sometimes considered an obstacle to effective teaching, there were no indications in the responses of exactly why this factor was thought important. "Attitude toward the teacher" referred to such phenomena as parental criticism of teachers (e.g., for teachers' unwillingness to assume "non-professional" duties), lack of respect for teachers on the part of parents (an example followed by some children), and parental aggressiveness or hostility toward the teacher.

Other teachers were not mentioned very often as a source of difficulties relating to teaching. When they were, no one type of problem stood out as dominant. Among small school-small community teachers, inadequacy of other teachers attained the highest rank (see Table 7). Among large school-small community teachers, support from colleagues was the perceived obstacle most frequently thought to exist. Among large school-large community teachers, resistance of teachers to change received the most attention in terms of frequency of mention. The frequency with which other kinds of responses occurred is indicated in Table 7.

Inadequacy of other teachers took the form of failure of previous teachers to prepare students properly for the work of the grade level the respondent was teaching. It also took the form of low educational qualifications and lack of teacher interest in the subject matter being taught. With regard to support from colleagues, respondents sometimes felt that they did not receive much backing or encouragement from other teachers on trying out new ideas or implementing change. Sometimes, it seems, colleagues actually opposed change.

As may be seen from Table 8, a variety of other problems were perceived as occurring. Most of these related to the School Board or the community and were believed to exist mainly by teachers from small schools in small communities. Teachers in this category sometimes appeared to think that their schools were neglected by their School Board - at least as compared with other schools (especially larger ones) under the Board's jurisdiction. Another "obstacle" to effective teaching sometimes mentioned by the same group of teachers - and not by the others - is referred to in Table 8 as "Community Traditions in Education." This category of response refers to the belief by some teachers that traditional concepts of education were so deeply entrenched in the community that little innovation was possible. Other "miscellaneous" problems are named in Table 8.

Some Tasks Ahead

It would be premature to attempt at this stage an interpretation of the results presented above. It is tempting to speculate about some of the results (e.g., the frequency with which discipline problems are mentioned by teachers from large schools in large communities). However, we probably need to take into consideration characteristics of communities, schools, students and teachers in seeking to interpret the results. The data yielded by the free-response item in the questionnaire are not yet in a form which would permit the examination of the various characteristics in relation to perceived problems in teaching.

The results presented above do make it possible to take a step toward ascertaining how widespread the problems or types of problems are perceived to be. This would require the administration of another questionnaire asking teachers to indicate the extent to which they experience each problem or type of problem.

We also need information on how teachers actually cope with the various problems and what they feel the solutions to such problems might be. The authors would be delighted to receive comments from teachers along such lines.

Hopefully, this paper will stimulate discussion of how the perceived problems might be solved. One aspect of the discussion will relate to the issue of how far such sources of difficulty actually exist (i.e., the extent to which teachers' perceptions are accurate representations of the reality). To what degree, for instance, do students lack intellectual competency? Assuming, however, that the problems are real, there is need for a discussion of possible solutions. It is in this context that the following observations by a teacher from a small school in a small community are presented:

> As a follow-up to the questionnaire, I thought I would like to provide you with some other things I would like to see done for smaller isolated communities. These are as follows:

1. A course at university taught by someone who has had experience teaching in isolated communities for other persons interested in taking up a position such as mine.

2. I would like to see some more applicable ideas taught at university for communities such as these. For example, I think such things as registers, report cards, obligatory duties of teachers, monthly and annual reports, school records and school fee reports should be dealt with in such a course so that teachers who have to take up a position in isolation from other teachers will know what to do with these things. It may seem silly but these are not things which everybody knows just because he or she plans to be a teacher, and they are things which I have not met in my three years of university training but which I had to pick up from other teachers after I began teaching.

3. Priority should be given to such schools as these when it comes to visits from specialists and to special programs for students, since students here generally have to do high school in a larger community.

TABLE 7

Problems Relating To Teachers

Small School/Small Community		Large School/Small Community		Large School/Large Community	
Responses	**No. of Responses**	**Responses**	**No. of Responses**	**Responses**	**No. of Responses**
Inadequacy of other Teachers	3	Support from Colleagues	5	Resistance to Change	3
Support from Colleagues	2	Resistance to Change	2	Communication among Teachers	2
Teacher Apathy	1	Labelling Students	1	Teacher Apathy	2
		Colleagues' Unwillingness to Supervise Extracurricular Activities	1	Inadequacy of other Teachers	1
		Being Treated as an Outsider	1		
Totals	6		10		8

TABLE 8

Miscellaneous Problems

Small School/Small Community		Large School/Small Community		Large School/Large Community	
Responses	**No. of Responses**	**Responses**	**No. of Responses**	**Responses**	**No. of Responses**
Insufficient Interest by School Board	7	Community Acceptance of Low Levels of Achievement	1	No Board Support for Music	1
Community Traditions in Education	5	Apathy by School Board	1		
Low Community Evaluation of Education	2				
No Interaction with other Schools	2				
Relationships Among Groups in Community	2				
Obtaining Time and Help of Community	1				
Problems (Unspecified) Arising from Closeness of School to Community	1				
Totals	20		2		1

4. I would also like to see a limit placed on the number of grades a teacher shall be obliged to teach, regardless of how many students are involved. For example, a cut to three grades from five would be very helpful to me.

5. A person cannot at present do his internship or student teaching in a community such as this no matter how interested he is. I think this should change as it would be an advantage both to the school and the teacher.

6. Teachers taking up such a position as this should be given time with pay to meet with the previous teachers before taking up the position, since they would be able to give new teachers an insight into problems to be expected.

7. If the number of grades cannot be reduced, a school helper - a person from the community, say, with about Grade 9-10 education and a way with children - would be a help to elementary school teachers in isolated communities.

8. More leeway in choosing textbooks to suit the students would also be helpful.

9. Some schools also do not have very much (not applicable here) in the way of duplicating equipment, projectors, etc., though they need them as much as or more than do some larger schools with one grade per class.

I hope you will give these things some consideration as 1 would like to see some work done to improve the lot of teachers in isolated communities. 1 have seen many improvements since I first came here, but there are still many changes I want and am willing to work for but seldom see any opportunity to express my feelings. I would like to see how other teachers in similar positions feel and would like to see a meeting for teachers in isolated communities held at some appropriate time during the year so that we could meet and discuss problems and solutions.

Some other articles in the present issue of **The Morning Watch** are of relevance to the discussion which apparently needs to be initiated. Warren indicates feasible lines of action with regard to small rural schools. Ambasht describes an attempt made in another society to come to grips with the problem of curriculum relevancy. Baksh examines the practice of individualizing instruction ind mentions some strategies (e.g., peer tutoring, use of contracts, and the introduction of enrichment activities) which might be helpful to the teacher in a multi-grade classroom. The authors of the present article would welcome papers, letters or even brief comments regarding possible solutions for the perceived problems from all those interested in education in Newfoundland.

FOOTNOTES

1. The three categories were 1) teachers in small schools in small communities (fewer than one hundred pupils enrolled in school; fewer than one thousand as total population of the community); 2) teachers in large schools in small communities (over two hundred and fifty pupils enrolled; fewer than one thousand as total population of the community); and 3) large schools in large communities (over two hundred and fifty pupils; over one thousand as total population of the community). In the second category, a few schools were included as being large although they had an enrollment of less than two hundred and fifty. However, such schools had over two hundred and forty pupils.

2. B.R. Cosin at al point out that "the development of the sociology of education in Britain and America in the period up to the early 1970's was devoted to two main kinds of enquiry - analysis of educational achievement in terms of the stratification pattern which prevails in a society, and an approach to educational organizations as social systems" (p. 1). "The social stratification studies have established that there are class-based differences in educational achievement and the obvious next step is to try to find out the reasons for these differences. Similarly, the social system approach has produced a model of the school as a formal organization and now needs to consider the substantive content of school life" (p. 2). The interactionist approach provides a framework that is being used as a corrective to the previous approaches in sociology of education and in this way complements previous works. See, School and Society: A Sociological Reader, 1971, pp. 2-3. In Canada, sociology of education as a field in the study of Canadian education was recognized only in 1975. B.Y. Card's observation that "basic sociological concepts are explained, using American and European sociologists as sources. . .", which he makes in connection with a review of a particular book on sociology of education in Canada, seems also to apply to other works in this field in Canada. See Canadian Journal of Education, Vol. 1, No. 4, 1976, p. 21.

3. Briefly, interactionists focus on process, experience, the frameworks of meaning constructed by actors and specific situations in which individuals work. As pointed out by Martyn Hammersley, et al interactionists "argue that what occurs in any process of interaction is never fully determined by social structural or cultural forces, even though we recognize that such forces do operate to constrain considerably the possibilities of thought and action. Actors always possess some degree of autonomy, however limited, both in relation to how they see and evaluate the world and in the lines of action that can be taken in the situations facing them. Social structures and cultures emerge out of and are sustained and changed by social interaction, though this is by no means to say that there are no structural and cultural constraints on the process and outcomes of interaction between particular occasions." See The Process of Schooling: A Sociological Reader, 1976, p. 3.

THE PROBLEMS OF BEGINNING TEACHERS - MYTH OR REALITY?

Elizabeth Parrell

Literature on the topic of beginning teachers indicates that new teachers are plagued with problems, with many of which they are inadequately prepared to cope (Ryan, 1970, Lacey, 1977, Redl and Wattenberg, 1972, and others). School Boards and Universities have attempted to combat some of the problematic areas through preemployment visits and longer practical-orientated training periods, e.g., internship programmes. However, one of the most fundamental questions appears to have been given inadequate attention. Are new teachers encountering more difficulties than experienced teachers? it may be that those problems related to discipline, teaching style, and so on, are also problematic for the seasoned teacher. In other words, the problems referred to as "the problems of the beginning teacher", maybe related to the role rather than the length of time one has been in the profession.

Methodology

Social Learning Theory as put forth by Bloom (1964) and others (Williams, 1976, Bijou, 1971)formed the theoretical framework for analyzing the school environment of new as welt as experienced teachers. Basically this provided a means for overcoming the problem of arbitratiness in operationalizing the "problems of new teachers".

The total school environment was subdivided into three environments, namely, (1) the formal, teacher dominated environment; (2) the informal, peer dominated environment; and (3) the teacher socialization environment. These subdivisions can be seen in the illustration below.

Thirty beginning teachers who were matched with twenty-five experienced teachers formed the sample. All were drawn from twenty-three Newfoundland schools, and all were classroom teachers in the primary or elementary grades. A questionnaire type of instrument was administered.

Results

Three independent variables were used to explain the variability among teachers in their perceptions of the environmental dimensions named above. These variables are: (1) experience, (2) training, (3) methods.

There were three important findings in the study. Firstly, new teachers experienced no more problems per dimension than experienced teachers. In fact, new teachers experienced fewer problems, in general. Also, while an accepted level of significance (i.e., .05) was not reached in each dimension, it was attained in two cases: (1) the "student opportunity to learn" dimension (p. .01) and (2) the "student academic involvement" dimension (p. 005).

Secondly, when 'teacher-training time' was controlled for, it was found that internship students experienced significantly fewer problems than non-internship students in the "student authority dimension" only (p. .05).

Thirdly, regarding teaching style, overall the 'active' teacher experienced fewer problems in the "student socialization environments" when compared to the more 'passive' type teacher. Very briefly, teaching style was dichotomized based on student-teacher involvement. 'Active' teachers were more physically involved with their students than were 'passive' teachers and the latter exercised more control over their students. Significant levels were reached in three dimensions, namely: (1) student reinforcement dimension, (2) student identification dimension, and (3) student academic involvement dimension (p .01 in each case). Therefore it is probable that a true relationship exists in the population at large between teaching style and particular student dimensions. Based on the present research there is only a one percent chance or less that the relationship is zero. Interestingly, however, the same relationships did not hold true for the "teacher socialization environment". Generally speaking the 'active' teachers experienced more problems than their 'passive' counterparts!

Discussion

Two explanations can be entertained to account for the general finding that "new teachers experienced fewer problems than the experienced teachers; one pertains to 'education', the other to 'naivete'.

Education: In the immediate sample, beginning teachers were more formally educated than were experienced teachers. Ninety percent of the new teachers had at least one degree, as compared to only forty-eight percent of the experienced teachers. The longer time in university preparation may be counteracting or compensating for their lack of experience. Consequently, new teachers may be more aware of the recent developments, both in education and with children in general, and in turn may be incorporating this knowledge at the outset of their careers.

Naivete: The present research was conducted following a period of six weeks in the profession for the new teachers. This may not have been sufficient time for them to realistically assess their situations. Not having completed the curriculum for the children's entire school year, they may not have fully realized what is expected. The experienced teachers, on the other hand, may have been in a better position to know what is expected and to recognize problematic areas immediately.

Regarding training, internship students when compared to noninternship students may experience fewer problems in the 'student authority dimension' because they have spent more time in the classroom prior to beginning their job. The more traditionally trained teacher nlav require more time to develop effective strategies to handle the attempts of the children to gain control.

The present findings indicate :hat, upon looking at the total school environment, 'passive' teachers experience more problems in the classroom and among students, but have fewer problems with their peers and superiors than do 'active' teachers. Does this mean that 'passive' teachers are happier than 'active' teachers in their careers? Do active teachers change and become more 'passive' with time? At present there seems to be no answers to these questions. However, previous research has indicated that a major source of teacher dissatisfaction and dropout lies in poor faculty relationships (Redl and Wattenberg; Lacey, 1977).

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A STUDY OF TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF EDUCATION IN AN AREA OF RURAL NEWFOUNDLAND

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This investigation is exploratory in nature, and should be viewed as hypothesis generating rather than hypothesis confirming. The context of the study is the recent upsurge in interest in education in the Province, and the ensuing debate over the goals of education at the school, district, and provincial levels. The authors take the perspective that teachers, who are ultimately responsible for the delivery of education to students, are as much influenced by personal perceptions of the aims of education as they are by statements of purpose, philosophy, and objectives from those who exert formal control over the curriculum. Thus, a full understanding of the nature of the educational service being offered to students requires investigation of teachers' priorities with respect to the various aims of education. Secondarily, the authors believe that debate among teachers on the fundamental purposes of education should be encouraged as a vehicle for the clarification and improvement of educational policy.

In the spring of 1979, one of the authors conducted a professional development day on educational objectives for a large (250 teachers) Branch of the Newfoundland Teachers' Association. The Branch was centred around a community of about 3,000 people, and thus should be considered largely rural. The workshop format consisted of opening and closing plenary sessions, with a series of activities in between conducted in smaller groups by group leaders chosen from the Branch membership. An information session was held with the group leaders prior to the workshop. The fourteen groups were divided as nearly as possible by grade taught, for the primary and elementary teachers, and by subject taught, for the high school teachers. In this report, the results of one of the group activities are discussed.

Purpose

The purpose of the study was to:

1. develop an instrument for the assessment of teachers' perceptions of the aims of education;

2. gather preliminary data on teachers' perceptions;

3. examine the perceptions, and to search for patterns of differences in perceptions as a function of subject and/or grade taught, and number of years experience in teaching.

Procedure

The first step was the establishment of a comprehensive but manageable set of general goals of education. A panel of educators from the Faculty of Education, Memorial University, representing a cross section of interests and backgrounds, were asked to reduce, by examination and combination, a very thorough list of 132 general goals to about 40. The original list was obtained from a similar study conducted by the Vancouver

School Board. The adequacy of this original list delimits the study, although provision was made (and used) for the addition of goals as a result of pilot information.

Members of the panel worked independently, with instructions to produce a list with about equal numbers of subject matter goals and goals of a more general nature. Using the judgments of the panel as a basis, the investigators produced a set of 40 goals. After piloting the list for clarity and completeness on a senior education class at Memorial, time factors required that the set of goals be reduced to 30.

The presentation of the task to the teachers was preceded by a plenary session of the workshop, in which one of the investigators discussed the advantages of stating educational objectives, the variety of expected educational outcomes, and techniques for writing objectives. Following this, teachers moved into their smaller groups.

Each teacher was given the set of 30 educational goals, one to a card. Each card contained a title (e.g., "Moral Development") followed by a brief description ("Distinguishes right from wrong. Understands and applies the principles of moral behaviour"). Teachers were asked to select the ten most important, and then, from these ten, the three most important. They were instructed that their perspective should be the entire educational program, rather than the particular grade or subject matter they taught. After the individual sorting was done, the group as a whole was asked to produce, by discussion, consensus, and, if necessary, vote, a composite list of the group's top ten choices.

The exercise produced, then, Individual Top Ten data, Individual Top Three data, and Group Top Ten data. Within the ten or three choices, no rank ordering was implied for the choices of an individual or group, although the frequency of selection by individuals and groups was used to produce a rank ordering within the summary data. As well as the teacher choices, information was obtained on grade and/or subject taught, and length of teaching experience.

Results and Discussion

The reader is cautioned that the results reported are, at most, suggestive of trends. Due to the small sample size, especially when the subdivisions of the sample are discussed, no definitive conclusions can be reached on the nature of teachers' perceptions of educational priorities. Also, as revealed in comments received on evaluation sheets and in discussion with the group leaders, the meanings of some of the statements on the cards were not interpreted in the same manner by all respondents. Thus, if this report promotes discussion of the relative importance of various objectives among the education community, and the ensuing debate contributes to the clarification of personal purpose in teaching, our objectives will have been fulfilled.

To accomplish data reduction, and avoid the problem of suggesting hypotheses based on the opinions of only one or two isolated individuals,

TABLE 1

INDIVIDUAL JUDGMENTS BY GRADE TAUGHT (PERCENTAGE OF CHOICES)

	TOP TEN[2]						TOP THREE[2]					
GRADES TAUGHT = N=	ALL 215	K-3 48	4-6 31	K-6 20	7-11 63	SE 18	ALL 215	K-3 48	4-6 31	K-6 20	7-11 63	SE 18
Independent Thinking	8.2	8.5	8.4	8.5	8.3	9.4	13.0	12.5	14.0	15.0	13.2	13.0
Self Esteem	7.8	7.9	7.7	8.5	7.3	8.9	15.2	17.4	12.9	16.7	11.6	27.8
Moral Development	7.7	7.7	7.7	8.5	7.0	7.8	14.1	14.6	13.1	8.3	12.7	20.4
Learning Orientation	6.0	7.3	7.1	7.0	6.3	7.8	9.9	16.0	9.7	13.3	3.7	14.3
Good Citizenship	5.9	5.3	6.5	7.0	6.2	7.8	6.2	4.9	6.5	5.0	6.3	7.4
English Language	5.6	5.6	6.1	5.5	6.0		7.1	3.5	9.7	8.3	9.0	0.0
Curiosity	5.6	5.0	5.2	4.5	5.1	5.6	5.9	8.3	2.2	8.3	7.4	1.9
Critical Analysis	5.4	4.8	5.2	4.5	4.3	5.0	5.1	1.4	5.4	5.0	9.5	1.9
Use of Leisure Time	4.3	4.8	4.8	4.5	4.1	5.0	3.4	3.5	4.3	4.2		3.7
Creativity	3.8	4.6	4.8	4.5	4.1	5.0				5.0		0.0
Social Poise	3.8	4.2	4.5	3.5	4.0	4.4				3.7		
Speaking Ability	3.7	4.0	4.5	3.5	4.0	4.4						
Attitude to Reading	3.7	4.0	3.5	3.5	3.7	3.9		4.2	3.3			
Health and Safety	3.5	3.8			3.7	3.9						
Socialization	3.5	3.3			3.3	3.3						3.7
Preparation for Further Educ.										3.7		

[1] All blanks are judgments of less than mean popularity (43.3). A few values below 3.3 are given to make a specific point.

[2] The following objectives received less than 3.3% of the "votes" for all groups, and have been omitted from the table Abbreviated, they are basic math; knowledge of society and social issues; reasoning; ability; Canadianism; use of resources; meaningful memory; a balance between introversion and extra version; application of math; knowledge of society, government and history; scientific method; scientific facts; literary skills; knowledge of French; communication in French.

TABLE 2

INDIVIDUAL JUDGMENTS BY YEARS OF[1] EXPERIENCE (PERCENTAGE OF CHOICES)

	TOP TEN[2]					TOP THREE[2]				
Years Experience = N =	**ALL 215**	**1-3 47**	**4-9 67**	**10-14 46**	**15-37 33**	**ALL 215**	**1-3 47**	**4-9 67**	**10-14 46**	**15-37 53**
Independent Thinking	8.2	7.9	8.1	8.7	8.3	13.0	12.1	12.4	15.9	11.3
Self Esteem	7.8	7.7	8.1	7.8	7.7	15.2	15.6	16.9	14.5	13.8
Moral Development	7.7	7.2	8.1	7.2	8.1	14.1	10.6	14.9	13.8	17.0
Learning Orientation	6.0	6.0	5.8	5.9	6.6	9.9	8.5	10.4	8.7	11.3
Good Citizenship	5.9	3.8	6.3	6.1	7.2	6.2	2.8	4.5	9.4	8.9
English Language	5.6	7.0	6.3	5.4	4.0	7.1	12.1	8.5	5.1	33.1
Curiosity	5.6	6.4	4.6	4.6	770	5.9	9.2	4.5	3.6	6.9
Critical Analysis	5.4	5.5	6.0	4.8		5.1	5.0	5.0	6.5	4.4
Use of Leisure Time	4.3	3.0	4.6	4.8	4.3	3.4	1.4	4.0	3.6	4.4
Creativity	3.8	-5.3		4.1		3.1	6.4	2.0	2.2	1.9
Social Poise	3.8	4.0		4.3	3.6				3.6	
Speaking Ability	3.7	4.0	3.7	3.3	3.8					
Attitude to Reading	3.7	4.5	4.0		3.6					
Health and Safety	3.5	2.3	3.3	3.9	4.5					
Socialization	3.5	3.8	4.3	3.5	2.5			4.0		
Reasoning Ability				3.3	3.4					
Basic Math							3.5			

[1] All blanks are judgments of less than mean popularity (< 3.3). A few values below 3.3 are given to make a specific point.

[2] The following objectives received less that 3.3% of the "votes" for all groups, and have been omitted from the table Abbreviated, they are: preparation for further education; knowledge of society and social issues; reasoning abilities; Canadianism; use of resources; meaningful memory; a balance between introversion and extra version; application of math; knowledge of society, government and history; scientific method; scientific facts; literary skills; knowledge of French; communication in French.

arbitrary steps were taken to reduce the size of the data tables. With 30 objectives in the list, each should be chosen, given equally split priorities, 3.3% of the time. Any objectives chosen less than 3.3% of the time were not reported; except for individual cases where we wish to discuss a specific trend. All popularities are reported as percentages of the total number of choices, which even though it is not the most natural way to discuss the choices, allows for reasonably direct comparisons between the Top Ten and Top Three situations. As a general preliminary comment, Top Three data, in most situations, reflected Top Ten data, except that trends barely noticeable in the latter became more emphasized in the former. Also, the group judgment data contributed a minimum of new knowledge.

In Table 1, the results are broken down by grade taught. Although we began with the high school group divided by subject, these groups were combined due to small numbers. The first and seventh columns give the results for the entire group of 215 respondents who produced useable results. The table should be interpreted to mean that, for example, 8.2% of the choices made by the sample for the top ten were for "Independent Thinking", 7.8% for "Self Esteem", etc. Since each individual made ten choices, this means that 82% of the sample chose "Independent Thinking" as an important goal of education. Footnote 2 gives a list of the objectives which were not rated as highly as those in the body of the table.

What is noticeable about the overall results is that, with few exceptions, the objectives chosen most frequently are not subject specific and cognitive. Goals of personal and social development and attitudes, dominate the list. Comments received from teachers after the exercise indicated that many chose in the manner they did because they considered the academic objectives to be means, and the non-academic ones ends toward which the means work. This seems a rational perspective, and a reasonable explanation as o why the results turned out as they did. However, it is instructive to consider whether this view of the priorities translates into classroom reality for the majority of teachers. How many classrooms do we have where independent thinking is encouraged, where self esteem is enhanced, and where curioity rewarded? Do teachers really act as if they consider creativity, social poise, and speaking ability to be more important than basic mathematical skills?

Turning to the rest of the table, some interesting features can be noticed in the breakdown by grade taught. First, an explanation is in order. The NTA Branch in question contains an unusual number of very small schools, and thus a very high proportion of teachers teaching a large variety of both grades and subject areas. Thus, only 180 of the 215 teachers could be easily classified on the basis of their own brief description. Most of the 35 omitted from the breakdown columns fit into more than one of our categories (for example, a teacher of grades 5 through 8). since the purpose of the breakdown was to look for trends as a function of teaching situation, we considered it more advisable to eliminate some of the sample rather than force everybody into one of our preconceived boxes. The missing 35 people would account for such odd situations as the Top Ten data for "Learning Orientation", where the percentage of every sub-group who included this objective in their top ten was greater than the corresponding percentage for the group as a whole.

For the sample size involved, all of the differences in proportions across sub-groups would fail any test of statistical significance. Given this caution, we have underlined interesting cases which seem worthy of comment. Looking first at the Top Ten data, high school teachers seem quite a bit less interested in Moral Development than

teachers of younger children, while special education teachers placed more emphasis on Learning Orientation and Good Citizenship than others did. When teachers were forced to choose the three most important, two of these trends disappeared. High school teachers no longer look less interested than others in Moral Development, but it becomes, along with Self Esteem, a major priority for special education teachers. The relative lack of importance attributed to English Language, Curiosity, and Critical Analysis by special education teachers is interesting, as is the difference in point of view of primary and high school teachers on Critical Analysis. The primary-high school disagreement on Critical Analysis is reversed for Learning Orientation.

Table 2 gives the breakdown as a function of number of years taught. This table reveals more definite trends than does Table 1. Moral Development and Good Citizenship are rated considerably more important by more experienced teachers, while a weaker trend in the same direction is noticed for Use of Leisure Time, and to some extent, Health and Safety. The opposite trend is seen for the importance of English Language, which is interesting in view of the fact that one tends to associate the "back to the basics" movement with a wish to return to the "good old days". While the evidence is not compelling, this would seem not to be the case. The results for Curiosity suggest that it is a priority for teachers early in their careers, and again later, but not in the middle years of teaching. This is curious.

We have not reported in detail the results of the group consensus decisions. In general, they confirm the trends seen in the individual data. Comments from the group leaders indicated that the meanings of some of the objectives were not the same for all teachers, and the discussion helped to clarify the issues. Also, discussions revealed the relationships among the objectives, which seems to be the benefit of the exercise most directly translatable into classroom practice.

Summary

The objects of this investigation were, first, to develop a workable set of goal statements for use with a group of educators, and second, to investigate teachers' perceptions of priorities. In the first goal, we were only partially successful, in that some confusion over meaning was evident. It is possible, however, that this problem was-one of disagreement rather than vagueness. Everyone brings to such a gathering his own perception of the meaning of terms such as Self Esteem, such meaning embedded in a variety of personal contexts and individually remembered incidents. Some exposure to the personal meaning systems of others, in the course of the discussion, may have been the most important consequence of this exercise.

On the other goals of the study, our results suggest trends which confirm some of our preconceptions, and disconfirm others. Interpretations of any data, especially that as vague as ours, tend to be coloured by preconceived notions. It may be that some of the trends we noticed and reported are smaller in magnitude than others which we dismissed as inconsequential. Readers are invited to apply their own prejudices to our data, and to antagonize or harangue neighbours and colleagues with whichever of our numbers suits their fancy. No one can prove you wrong.

We will close with a list of argument-starting hypotheses:

1. Teachers rate Moral Development highly because they feel they are expected to. It is rarely reflected in classroom reality;

2. Most teachers would be frightened by evidence of much independent thinking in their classrooms;

3. Teachers rate non-academic goals as highly as they do in reaction to a general lack of success at achieving academic goals;

4. Less experienced teachers latch onto the English language goals because they represent something tangible, wherein progress can be measured more easily, and personal reward found. This becomes less important as personal security increases with experience;

5. Curiosity is considered important early in a teaching career through youthful idealism; it loses importance to those in mid-career as the idealism fades, and returns to older teachers because its true importance is finally recognized.

To close on a more serious note, we consider that the discussion of long term purposes has potential for improvement of classroom practice and climate. Although we have treated our data with the grain of salt they deserve, this should not detract from the message we hope is contained in this report.

WHAT TEACHERS SAY ABOUT TEACHERS

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Teachers are generally conscientious people and desire to operate as effectively as possible in the classroom. Administrators want to hire teachers with the greatest potential for success, and teachers colleges and universities want to graduate high quality candidates to fill the teaching positions.

A problem facing these groups, however, lies in the question "What makes an effective teacher?" While numerous books and articles on this topic have been published in recent years (e.g. Gage, 1972; Good et al. 1975; Soar, 1972) very little of what practitioners in the field have to say has been published, i.e., very little beyond their responses to a structured questionnaire or a self-report inventory. The purpose of this article, then, is to summarize what practising teachers conclude to be the characteristics and practices of effective teachers.

In the Fall of 1977, ten teachers with at least two years teaching experience and who had at least a Grade IV Teaching Certificate (i.e., a degree or its equivalent), were asked to write an essay describing the characteristics of effective teachers; one of the essays was deemed not useable. The following instructions were given to these teachers:

> On the pages provided I would like you to describe a teacher (or teachers) that you have known whom you consider to be particularly good or effective. Include any changes which you feel would make the individual an even better teacher. Do not use the teacher's real name. The following topics may help you organize your essay, but they need not be adhered to:
>
> (1) Teaching strategies in general.
> (2) Aspects of structure and control.
> (3) Philosophy of teaching and learning.
> (4) Other personal attributes.
>
> Feel free to use your own discretion in choosing the content and organization of your essay. If you wish to, you may describe a teacher (or teachers) who demonstrate good and effective teaching, and, by way of contrast, describe a teacher (or teachers) whom you consider weak or ineffective. Thank you for your cooperation.

Each teacher wrote for at least two hours. A content analysis of the essays yielded a list of seven clusters of teachers characteristics or behaviors. It seems more meaningful to think in terms of "clusters" of related characteristics rather than single, isolated behaviors. In each case, indicators of the characteristic, as derived from the essays, are listed:

Characteristics of Teachers		Teachers								
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
A.	Ability to understand and constructively employ his own behaviour									
	1. good teacher/parent relationship.	X	X	X		X				X
	2. tries not to teach same subject (grade) year after year.	X								
	3. punctual.				X					
	4. patient.				X	X	X	X		

Characteristics of Teachers		Teachers								
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
A.	5. good teacher/staff relationship			X						
	6. tries to be consistent and even tempered.			X		X	X			X
	7. uses class time efficiently				X					
	8. treats all students fairly (no favorites).						X			
	9. has respect of community.							X		
B.	Ability to plan and provide appropriate learning opportunities.									
	1. groups students by ability.	X								
	2. plans lessons well.		X	X	X	X	X	X		X
	3. balances students' work load according to ability.		X	X	X	X		X		X
	4. gives individual attention when required.									X
	5. provides plenty of examples (demonstrations) while teaching a lesson.									X
C.	Engages students in an open and trusting relationship.									
	1. discourages competition among students.	X								
	2. has a sense of humour, laughs with students.		X							X
	3. encourages dialogue with and among students.			X	X					
	4. listens to students; interested in students' ideas.			X	X	X				X
	5. encourages independence.			X						
	6. displays students' drawings, etc. in classroom.			X						
	7. does not physically punish students.						X			
	8. tries to get students to think critically.									X
	9. available for extra-curricular activities, including just talking to students.			X		X		X		X
D.	Maintains classroom control.									
	1. maintains strict classroom control.		X						X	
	2. rewards good behaviour.			X						
	3. punishes disorderly students.							X	X	X

Characteristics of Teachers	Teachers								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
E. Willing to experiment to discover more advantageous approaches to teaching and learning.									
1. experiments with new techniques, teaching aids, etc.; innovative and creative.	X	X	X		X			X	
2. adapts teaching material to fit needs of students.			X						
3. varies teaching method.					X				
4. has a flexible schedule of class activities.							X		
F. Career oriented.									
1. well qualified academically.		X							
2. knows subject matter.				X		X	X		X
3. has personal commitment to teaching.						X			
4. has high moral values.							X		
5. neat in personal appearance.			X						
G. Works with students and expects work from students.									
1. does not correct homework, etc., during class time.				X					
2. uses repetition and drill.							X		
3. assigns work to be done at home.							X		
4. demands high standard of work from students.									X

The image of the effective teacher that emerges from this analysis is thus a consistent, even tempered, "personable" professional who demonstrates awareness of both student needs and varied learning strategies. While this image is not entirely unlike other listings of competencies that have emerged, and while the sample size does raise the question of generalizability, it does suggest the kinds of teacher characteristics that may be important as far as teachers are concerned.

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PROBLEMS IN TEACHING MULTIGRADE CLASSROOM GROUPS IN NEWFOUNDLAND: TEACHERS' VIEWS

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Introduction

In the last issue of The Morning Watch (Vol. 5, Nos. 1-2, pp. 1-9), we provided an overview of the kinds of problems Newfoundland teachers in three different situations perceived as occurring with regard to teaching their pupils. In the present paper, we wish to elaborate on one of the problems frequently mentioned by teachers from small schools in small communities - the problem of having to cope with more than one grade level in the same classroom. Among difficulties arising with regard to organization, those relating to the multi-grade classroom were cited most frequently by this particular group of teachers. In this paper we shall attempt to indicate (1) teachers' perceptions of the difficulties they encounter because of the multigrade classroom, (2) teachers' attempts to deal with such difficulties, and (3) teachers' suggestions regarding how they might be helped to be more successful in their work.

We are not suggesting that all teachers in multigrade classrooms necessarily experience each of the difficulties or problems mentioned in this article. The present analysis, based as it is largely on only one item in a fairly extensive questionnaire, is qualitative - not quantitative - in nature: it deals with the kinds of difficulties or problems perceived by teachers and not the extent to which such difficulties or problems are seen as existing. Also, we do not wish to imply that teachers in multi-grade classrooms are a disgruntled group which has given up the drive to do a decent job. From their responses, we have formed the impression that they tend to be a zealous group highly committed to improving the quality of education. Indeed, many of them say that they have no wish to work elsewhere. From our theoretical perspective, however, we believe that the teachers on the basis of their own experiences -have developed certain interpretations of their world. We suggest, therefore, that any effort to understand and improve the process of education in the multigrade classroom should take into consideration the views of teachers in such classrooms. It is with this suggestion in mind that we undertake the present analysis.

As in our last article, we shall utilize in our discussion the responses of teachers to the following questionnaire item:

> Please indicate the recurring problems, obstacles, or difficulties you have encountered, in your present teaching position, with regard to teaching the children in your class(es).

We shall also draw upon some of the interviews we have conducted of teachers from small schools in small communities. These interviews, each lasting from one to three hours, were intended to elicit from teachers a somewhat richer, more detailed and more extensive description of their experiences than might be obtained by simply administering a questionnaire.

Teachers' Perceptions of Difficulties Encountered

Teachers often reported experiencing great difficulty in achieving desired educational objectives. They sometimes felt that they could not adequately cover the work of their grade levels. One teacher, for example, wrote:

> Children in my classes were very little prepared for any of the subjects in their grade. Reading and Writing were especially poor. I had to spend a lot of time teaching them Grade 1 and even Kindergarten work. However, I now feel the majority can go ahead to Grade 3 work.

Some teachers found difficulty in "doing anything creative". Others reported that the lack of opportunity for discussion by pupils was likely to restrict the development of oral communication skills in children. Others still observed generally that they were unable to do what they would like to (for example, to teach as they "were prepared to teach at M.U.N."). A number felt that they could accomplish "little beyond the basic subjects" and could not do all that was required of them.

Our respondents indicated several obstacles to the successful performance of their job. They often expressed the view that in a multi-grade classroom there was insufficient time to do all that was necessary. For example, one teacher said:

> One problem that we run into is what to do with so many subjects. We have three grades in each classroom, and six subjects; well, that's eighteen subjects. How are we going to spend time on all of these in one week?

Observations by other teachers included the following:

> I always find it hard to get all of the subjects done for each grade for each year.

> With the half-day program for kindergarten, it was quite an exception if they did make favourable progress quickly because they were only able to receive twenty-five percent of a half-day session.

> There never seems to be enough time to put my seemingly worthwhile ideas into practice. There just doesn't seem to be enough time to give adequate drill or repetition to the slower children. The brighter ones seem bored for while 1 should be challenging them with newer materials or projects I seldom get the time to do so.

> I have to teach Grades Four to Six, which is very demanding. In such a situation 1 find it hard to cover all the materials I set out to cover.

Teachers frequently reported having considerable difficulty in providing individual instruction or assistance, even when such help was clearly needed. Indeed, among teachers in multi-grade classrooms, this problem was mentioned more often than any other in relation to actual teaching. The general feeling of the respondents is summed up in the following selected observations:

> One of my biggest problems is the lack of opportunity to do individualized work with below average students.
>
> My greatest problem is that I have three grades in one classroom and I cannot give as much individual attention to pupils as I would like to.
>
> There are too many grades in one classroom to give enough individual attention.

Another major problem mentioned by teachers in multi-grade classrooms is that of managing the classroom in such a way as to create a desirable learning atmosphere. The following remarks give some idea of the difficulties encountered by some such teachers:

> My biggest problem is that I have to teach Grades K, 1, 2, and 3 in a one-room school and I find it very difficult to keep them all occupied in valuable activities at the same time.
>
> My main obstacle or problem is the number of grades I have to teach There is an obstacle when trying to teach one grade something The others have to wait until you are finished. Unattended children tend in some cases to cause problems.
>
> Play activities of Special Education and Grade K students interfere with other activities of Grade 3 students, whose activities are more paper oriented and less activity centred.
>
> The high noise level from other classes in the same room is a problem.

Having a Kindergarten class in the same room as others was seen as particularly worrisome by several teachers. The Kindergarten pupils are a source of problems at least partly because in the teachers' opinions they need more attention, lose interest more easily, often wander out of their seats and consequently disturb others.

Teachers in multi-grade classrooms often found their responsibilities very heavy. For example, preparing work, evaluating or correcting assignments, and providing instruction for a number of different grades were highly taxing. The following observations by some of our respondents will no doubt speak for themselves.

> I have three grades and it is difficult to be able to prepare the kinds of lessons that would keep students busy for the entire period.
>
> I feel there isn't enough of me sometimes to give all the help that is needed. There are also such problems as keeping the children interested - of course, some are more interested than others.
>
> A teacher in a multi-grade classroom doesn't get a break; it's a very long day for the teacher in a multigrade classroom. I've started in the morning and taught right through the whole day ... from 9:00 to 11:15 and then from 11:40 to 12:00 and then from 1:30 to 3:30...without sitting down for the whole period, constantly talking. Sometimes you get into a situation where everything you do you've got to explain. After explaining to students you've

> got to interact with them individually ... and you've got to do most of the talking anyway. Then it's one subject after another, and by the end of the day you are just exhausted It's rough.
>
> Sometimes, too, the board puts a lot of pressure on teachers in multi-grade classrooms. They expect the same thing from you as from a single-grade classroom. The supervisor comes to the school and expects you to be doing the same thing as the teacher in the single-grade classroom. They keep at you and you begin to ask what you look like in their eyes for not teaching everything they want you to teach. And they evaluate your ability as if you were teaching in a single-grade classroom

The difficulties faced by teachers in multi-grade classrooms were apparently often compounded by other factors, one of these being overcrowding. The observations by teachers which follow will indicate the seriousness of the overcrowding problem:

> There is very little space to have such things as physical education or to set up displays or things of that sort in the classroom. They have to remain in their seats: once out, they are usually disturbing the others. There is no place to sit and read quietly in a corner.
>
> Then there's the problem of overcrowding. It's 35 or 36 plus one for a second room and then you go right on to 72 or something like that before you could get another classroom. It means you'd have 36 in one classroom and 35 in another, which is a bad situation for a multi-grade classroom.
>
> I had gone in the day before the first semester started and put up some desks for about 25 or 30 ... and that was filling the classroom almost up to capacity. Then they started coming in. Are you sure you're in the right classroom, I asked. Yes, they said. That was where they were to be taught. Then they brought in extra desks and put them all in. By the time everybody got settled in I couldn't get to the door! If I wanted to get out or in I had to move the desks, open the door, come back in when I was through, close the door, and then replace the desks. Then two more students came in, so I had 42 students in there.

Of course, there were other factors - such as inadequacy of supplies and equipment, inaccessibility of specialized help, and slowness in receiving materials - that were sometimes seen by the teachers as increasing the difficulty of their task.

Attempts to Deal with Perceived Difficulties

Teachers attempted in different ways to cope with at least some of the difficulties occasioned by the multi-grade classroom. They were not always satisfied with the effectiveness of their strategies. The remarks below, made by teachers, are pertinent at this point:

> I always found it hard to get all of the subjects done for each grade for each year. You have to join up subjects (e.g., Health, Religion, Social Studies) and then next year it is hard to find new things to do to keep

children interested. They get bored when sometimes you have go do the same thing over different years

The most recurring problem I have encountered in my present teaching position is having to teach more than one grade. Until this year I was teaching four grades: K, 1, 2 and 3 We were due an extra teacher but had no classroom to put him in, so the people of the community and I raised money. By providing free labour we renovated the existing two-room school and made a third classroom. This gave us less space but a better classroom situation for instead of four grades 1 now teach two.

To get around the (multi-grade) problem, I worked it as if it was groups. For instance, if I had math in the morning with two grades I gave them work to do while I worked with the other group for about fifteen minutes and then I went to the other group. I was constantly on the move. If they had any problems... like if they came across something they couldn't do ... I'd ask them to leave that one, and when I got back to that group I would then answer that question. That's how I arranged it. Then you had the fast learners who would get !heir math done and would be waiting for you, while the average ones were working at the average speed and the slow ones were still back at the first problem. I could hardly cope, especially for the first month or two.

Okay, you have three different text books for math (for three grades) Suppose I've got forty-five minutes in the period. I spend the first twenty minutes with one grade and then give them work to do. Then I spend the next twenty minutes or so with the next grade Now the other grade which I haven't touched yet, I have set seat work for them from the day before. on things I've already done with them, so they are continuing on their own. But that still presents a problem. Suppose you're with the Grade Six students and Johnny who is in Grade Five runs into trouble. How are you going to deal with this situation?

In Reading or English Literature I'd ignore grade level and group in terms of reading levels. I'd try to make the groups as homogeneous as possible with regard to reading level. But again, where are you going to pick the reading material for each group? If you pick it half way it's all right for some but it's too easy or hard for others. I suppose I could give them more material of their level, but are they accomplishing anything?

Teachers' Suggestions

A number of suggestions, either explicit or implicit, were contained in the observations made by teachers in multi-grade classrooms. Some of these concerned the preparation of teachers at university, while others were related to changes in the field itself. Regarding the teacher education program, the following were among the suggestions made:

1. If student-teachers desire it, they should be given the opportunity to do their practice teaching in a multi-grade classroom situation. This would be beneficial to both the student teacher and the school.

2. There should be more course content specifically designed for a teaching situation of the kind being discussed, since in such situations teachers have been encountering many difficulties which they were unable to handle.

In connection with changes in the field, the suggestions made by teachers included the following:

1. Priority regarding visits by specialists should be given to multi-grade classrooms. In such classrooms the teacher's task is normally very difficult but becomes even more so when children with various kinds of "problems" are among the pupils. Therefore, the teachers need all the help they can get.

2. The number of grade levels a teacher has to manage simultaneously should be limited. In other words, teachers in multi-grade classrooms should not be expected to teach the same number of pupils as teachers in single grade classrooms.

3. Teacher aids may be provided, especially if it is not possible to reduce the number of classes with which each teacher has to cope. Such aides may be people from the community who have at least a Grade 9-10 education.

4. School board officials and other administrators should not judge the multi-grade teachers' competence by the academic performance of pupils. Such teachers work under grave handicaps and cannot generally do full justice to themselves or their students. They would like to achieve at least the same standards of work as single-grade teachers do, but under existing circumstances often find this very difficult.

5. Multi-grade classrooms should receive preferred or favoured treatment in the allocation of materials, aids and other supplies. This is likely to assist the teachers in providing a variety of learning activities, thus enabling them to cope more successfully with the task of "managing" a number of grade levels simultaneously.

6. There should be opportunities for teachers of multi-grade classrooms to meet for the purpose of discussing common problems as well as possible ways of coping with such problems. Quite often, teachers of multi-grade classrooms work in somewhat isolated communities and have few people with whom they might discuss the difficulties they encounter. One teacher noted:

> I have seen many improvements since 1 first came here; but there are still many changes I want and am willing to work for but seldom see any opportunity to express my feelings.) would like to see how other teachers in similar positions feel and would like to see a meeting for teachers in isolated communities held at some appropriate time during the year so that we could meet and discuss problems and solutions.

SEX-ROLE BIASES IN TEACHER EXPECTATIONS

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Concerns about biases which produce inequalities between men and women have largely been limited to adult life, with the notable exception of the content of school curriculum presented to children. However, the process of education is often seen (and rightly so) as developing the potential for adult life, with one important aspect being further educational development and ultimate employment. There is evidence that teachers' expectations have some impact on teacher-student interactions, although the dramatic, unsubtle type of effects produced by the Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) research have generally been discredited. The purpose of the present study, then, was to determine if teachers hold different expectations for achievement, ultimate educational level, and ultimate occupation, for male and female students in their classrooms. The study focused on attitudes of teachers in classroom settings, rather than on actual achievement in these areas. Whether these different expectations are transmitted to students, or the mechanisms by which they are conveyed, are issues for future research.

Sex-Role Socialization and Academic Achievement

Virtually from the time of birth, children are subject to sex-role socialization according to their gender. While a large part of this socialization takes place before school age, it appears that we implicitly believe that sex-role enculturation is still modifiable after school entry; hence, the concern about sex role stereotyping in textbooks (see, for example, Lorimer & Long, 1979).

There have been numerous studies of sex differences in abilities, achievement levels, and in-class behaviour, and some studies of children's attitudes to sex roles. In general, it would appear that there are no practically significant differences between males and females in intelligence; however, females do tend to have higher levels of achievement in the elementary grades (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974). Furthermore, it is often noted that boys tend to have more difficulty in learning to read, and that they are more often referred to school psychologists or psychoeducational clinics for both behavioural and academic problems (Hyde, 1975; Leitz & Gregory, 1978). Since there is little evidence that there are maturational differences between boys and girls which would affect school achievement in any meaningful way, it appears necessary to look elsewhere to find an explanation for sex differences in achievement.

Education and Occupational Socialization

One of the purposes of education quite clearly is occupational selection and training (Quarter, 1972). Indeed, one of the measures of 'equal educational opportunity' has traditionally been adult occupational status. Another indication that schools select and train for occupations is present in feminist concern about sexism in text books. This concern focuses primarily on two themes: the unequal portrayal of personality traits and emotional displays of males and females, and secondly, the occupational roles portrayed by males and females. Thus, while there has been some study of outcome differences

between males and females, as well as much study of biases in curriculum materials, there remain many facets of possible sex biases in the educational process which are uninvestigated. The classroom environment consists of teachers, students, and curriculum, and all of the possible interactions of these variables.

One teacher variable which might be of importance in establishing differential treatment of males and females is teacher expectations. While the notion of teacher expectations remains controversial in the educational literature, it does appear that under some conditions, at least, teacher expectations can have effects (Braun, 1976). The present study investigates the possibility of different teacher expectations for the members of each gender, with respect to expected achievement, predicted educational attainment, and occupation.

Method

Data used in the present study were collected as part of a larger investigation of teacher expectations. Participants were nine male and four female Grade 6 teachers from one school district on the Avalon Peninsula. Each teacher completed a lengthy questionnaire about a number of randomly selected students in his/her class; teacher ratings were obtained for 208 students (110 male, 98 female).

In the present study, teachers were asked to rate three times to provide: an estimate of the pupil's achievement in the present grade; the highest grade, diploma or degree the pupil would obtain; and the pupil's ultimate occupation. All three ratings were made on a 7 point scale.[1]

Findings and Discussion

None of the t-tests on estimated achievement, predicted educational attainment, or predicted occupation reached levels of significance. This suggests that there is no apparent bias favoring members of either gender on these three variables. However, there were non-significant differences which seemed to suggest that teachers predict slightly higher educational achievement for girls. When this factor was controlled, one significant difference emerged: given similar achievement in Grade 6, teachers predict that males will obtain more education ($F = 4.189$, $df = 1, 205$, p. .05). In spite of this, no significant differences were obtained on the predicted occupation scale.

The data were also analyzed to determine if there was an interaction between teacher gender and pupil gender. No significant results were found here, suggesting that both male and female teachers hold the same patterns of expectations towards students.

It would appear that teachers hold similar expectations for levels of achievement for both males and females. Data on whether there are differential patterns in correspondence between "real" (objectively defined) achievement and expected achievement for males and females are currently being collected and will be reported in a subsequent paper.

Although there were no significant differences in the mean level of occupation predicted for males and females, there were differences in the proportion of males and females selected for various categories of occupations. Table 1 presents the percent of

each gender for each predicted occupational category. In particular, females are more often predicted to enter office work or sales, while males are more often predicted to enter a skilled trade. On the other hand, the predicted proportion of males and females who will enter professions, executive positions, and factory work are surprisingly similar.

In relationship to predicted level of education, it was noted that there were differential patterns for males and females. At any given level of expected achievement, teachers are more likely to predict that males will obtain higher levels of education than females. It is not clear, however, whether this is an accurate expectation based on awareness of actual trends, or whether this is an important factor in differential sex-role socialization. In all university programmes (except part-time undergraduate programmes), females are under-represented, although the gap between males and females has been decreasing since 1971 (Statistics Canada, 1979). Furthermore, if we look at the proportion of attendance of male and female children and adolescents, we find that there are no differences in ages 5-14. This is not surprising since these are years of compulsory school attendance in all provinces. However, there are significant differences in the proportion of males and females in school after age 15, and the gap widens each year (Statistics Canada, 1979). Therefore, it becomes important to know what impact teachers' expectations about ultimate educational levels have on students' decisions to remain in school. Are these biases and messages subtly conveyed to students, in a process analogous to sex-role biases in textbooks? Or is it merely that teachers implicitly recognize a host of other social and cultural factors which will deter their female students from obtaining as much education as males?

TABLE 1

PERCENT OF MALES AND FEMALES IN EACH PREDICTED OCCUPATIONAL CATEGORY

	Males	**Females**
Professional	28.2	30.6
Executive	8.2	3.1
Office work	20.9	37.8
Sales	1.8	14.3
Skilled trade	28.2	3.1
Factory	12.7	11.2
Farming or Fishing	0.0	0.0
Total	100.0	100.1[1]
N	(110)	(98)

[1] Difference from 100 due to rounding.

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FOOTNOTE

[1] Several comments were received about the appropriateness of the occupational scale. The scale was as follows: (1) professional, (2) executive, (3) office, (4) sales, (5) skilled trade, (6) factory, (7) farming or fishing. In particular, there was concern about the placement of "fishing" as a lower occupation. No teacher circled this occupation for any pupil, but the meaning of this is not clear. The present data are presented with recognition of this caveat.

TEACHER INVOLVEMENT IN THE SMALL NEWFOUNDLAND COMMUNITY

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Amarjit Singh

Introduction

This study, which is part of a larger investigation of the living and working experiences of teachers in Newfoundland, examines briefly the involvement of teachers in the ongoing life of small communities. The initiation of this research was stimulated to a large degree by the sociological and anthropological literature attempting to delineate the characteristics of differing kinds of communities. The present authors thought that the experiences reported by teachers would tend to vary somewhat with the type of community in which the teachers lived.

Chinoy suggests that the contrasts drawn by such writers as Tonnies, Durkheim and Redfield may be brought together in the concepts of communal and associational societies.' Communal societies tend to be small and to have a limited division of labour. Members interact with one another in a wide variety of contexts with the result that social relationships are generally longlasting and personal. Behaviour is regulated mainly by custom and there are rules or regulations pertaining to many facets of everyday life. There tends to exist considerable social solidarity. Associational societies, on the other hand, are usually populous and have a marked division of labour. Social relationships are likely to be transitory, superficial and impersonal. Life does not possess the rather unitary and cohesive character of that found in communal societies. The strong grip of tradition has been loosened and a great variety of thought, attitude and behaviour exists.

Frequent debate has occurred regarding the usefulness of such concepts and, indeed, regarding the definitions of such basic terms as "society" and "community". In any event, it is questionable whether Newfoundland communities can be fitted neatly into any of the categories devised. Yet, some of the characteristics indicated may be relevant to the Newfoundland situation.

Hillery analyses a number of community studies and claims the following to be among the usual features of small rural communities: homogeneity (members being fairly similar in terms of origin, beliefs, etc.); direct, face-to-face interaction among members; cooperation (though conflict may occur); the possession of leadership roles and prestige by the upper strata (even where differences between strata are weak), and the persistence of some norms and customs.[3] It seems reasonable to suggest that because of historical (e.g., settlement patterns), geographical and other factors, small communities in Newfoundland will tend to possess many of these features. We would then expect teachers living in such Newfoundland communities to report relatively frequently (1) that, in their judgement, the community expects them to assume leadership in various types of out-of-school activities and (2) that they actually are involved in community activities.

Limitations of space make it impossible for the present authors to provide a detailed description here of research method. The data presented below are derived from two sources: (1) a questionnaire completed by 702 teachers and (2) taped interviews of twenty-five small community teachers (interviews lasting from one to three hours). The items in the questionnaire were of two types - forced-choice and free response. The

content of the relevant items will be apparent below. The taped interviews touched on the same areas as the questionnaire but were intended to explore such matters in greater depth. The teachers all work in the primary school.

The following section of the paper will provide some simple quantitative data pertaining to teacher involvement in Newfoundland communities. Also, a few brief excerpts from the taped interviews will be presented to illustrate the nature of teachers' experiences regarding involvement in small Newfoundland communities.

Teacher Involvement

One of the items in the questionnaire asked teachers: "How much leadership would you say you are expected, by the community, to provide in activities, projects, etc. undertaken in the community served by your school?" Possible answers ranged from "Very Little" to "Very Much". Table 1 contains the results of one analysis of the relevant data. It appears that teachers in small communities - whether they work in small schools or large - are much more likely than their counterparts in large communities to perceive themselves as being expected to show a high degree of leadership. If the percentage for each category of school and community in the columns under "Much" and "Very Much" are summed, it is found that - among teachers in small communities - 31.0% of those in small and 34.0% of those in large schools regard themselves as being expected to show a high degree of leadership. However, only 13.0% of the teachers in large communities feel this way. Correspondingly, teachers in large communities are apparently more likely to believe that the community expects them to show "little" or "very little" leadership.

In another item in the questionnaire, teachers were asked: "How -much of your leisure time have you spent participating in activities or projects organized by groups (e.g., local council, committee, club, etc.) in the community served by your school?" The possible responses again ranged from "Very Little" to "Very Much". The responses are cross-tabulated with School and Community Size in Table 2. Teachers in small communities tend more than those in large communities to report spending "much" or "very much" of their leisure time engaged in community activities. The differences between these two major groups of teachers are almost but not quite statistically significant.

Other items in the questionnaire provide additional data concerning teacher involvement in the community. One of these - a free response item - read as follows: "What have you enjoyed most about living in the community in which you hold your present teaching position?" Among teachers living in small communities, seven percent of those employed in small and eight per cent of those employed in large schools state that being able to work directly with the people is one of the things they enjoy most about living in their particular communities. The corresponding statistic for teachers in large communities is two per cent. Such findings probably indicate the greater salience of community involvement for teachers in small than those in large communities.

Table 1

Leadership Teachers Are Expected To Provide

SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY SIZE	LEADERSHIP EXPECTED					
	Very Little	Little	Moderate	Much	Very Much	Totals
Small school in small community	13 (31	16 (37)	40 (96)	22 (51)	9 (22)	100.00% (237)
Large school in small community	13 (20)	9 (14)	44 (66)	31 (47)	3 (4)	100.00% (151)
Large school in large community	20 (64)	25 (79)	42 (132)	10 (31)	3 (8)	100.00% (314)

Small Community: Under 1000 in Population
Large Community: Over 1000 in Population
Small School: Under 100 in Enrollment
Large School: Over 250 in Enrollment

All percentages are rounded. Numbers of teachers are in parentheses.

Table 2

Teacher Involvement in the Community

SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY SIZE	TEACHER INVOLVEMENT					
	Very Much	Much	Moderate	Little	Very Little	Totals
Small school in small community	13 (31	13 (22)	33 (76)	17 (40)	24 (56)	100.00% (237)
Large school in small community	8 (12)	15 (22)	40 (61)	17 (26)	20 (30)	100.00% (151)
Large school in large community	5 (16)	12 (37)	37 (116)	20 (64)	26 (81)	100.00% (314)

School and Community Sizes as in Table 1.
All percentages are rounded. Numbers of teachers are in parentheses.

Another open question asked: "What advice would you give a new teacher coming to work in your type of situation?" Again, teachers in small communities tended frequently (more so than their counterparts in larger centres or settlements) to refer to teacher involvement in the community. They would advise new teachers to associate with the people, to be prepared to help and to be ready to accept leadership roles. This may well reflect the considerable importance they attach to participation in the on-going life of the community.

In the recorded interviews, teachers describe their experiences in living and working in small Newfoundland communities. In the process of doing so, they discuss the nature of their involvement in such settlements. The excerpts below are taken from transcripts of the interviews and generally speak for themselves:

> What they expect of you as a teacher is that you be a leader. You should have the ideas and put them across but at the same time you have to be very diplomatic. It's expected of you but you mustn't be too pushy.
>
> If teachers will do it, they will leave all positions of leadership to them. I notice that in various associations the leaders are generally teachers. The people do tend a lot to depend on teachers to lead.
>
> As a married teacher especially you're expected to do a lot. The single ones are not quite so obligated: they're not looked up to as much. I have been president of the Ladies' League and the teacher representative on the P.T.A. I have been involved in the Sewing Club and the Parish Council. We had a meeting up to eleven o'clock recently for planning our garden party. You are expected to be a leader -a president or a secretary or something.
>
> I am involved in the Church because I am one of the directors on the board of activities. We have a hall and we hold a dance once in a while. We have socials like Christmas and Ladies Day. I am a member of the council in the community. We've got an athletic club which takes care of the sports and I'm a member of that club. You are expected to be in these things. Businessmen and teachers playa leading part in such activities. People say you're better educated so why not take the lead. I was asked to become a member of the athletic club. I didn't seek the job: the president just asked me to come in. The people pretty much look to you to be involved in these things.
>
> When I got there the things they expected you to do[They expected me to take over the Sunday school and be the organizer for all this. They expected me to play in the church and I didn't know one music note from the other. Well, I didn't play, because I couldn'ti There were other things. If they had a letter to write to some company or the other, I had to write the letter ... if they wanted to complain about something or have something explained to them. They expected that, you know.... If they had any organizations I was expected to help. They were going to have this big Christmas parade and they expected all the teachers to have full participation in this. We had to devote our time to it and that was it.

Conclusion

It appears that in small communities teachers are often expected to, and actually do, participate fairly extensively in community life and activities. Indeed, they frequently find such involvement highly satisfying and rewarding. If the teachers have interpreted the state of affairs correctly - and there is little reason to suppose they have not, at least with regard to the aspect of their experiences being discussed here - then certain implications arise. For example, prospective teachers apparently need to be informed of the demands which may be made on their time and energy in smaller communities. School boards, in employing teachers for schools in such communities, probably need to take into consideration the personal characteristics and non-academic competencies which may render candidates well suited to the requirements of their teaching position. Again, it seems necessary for provisions to be made - as part of the professional training of teachers - for developing in prospective teachers the additional competencies they may require for successful functioning in smaller communities (e.g., leadership techniques, how to discharge the role of chairman, etc.). There ought to be greater recognition of the possibility that holders of teaching positions in a small community will have special demands made on them. There might well be greater recognition, also, of the valuable contribution many of our teachers make outside the school to the life of the communities in which they work.

FOOTNOTES

1. E. Chinoy, **Sociological Perspective** (New York: Random House, 1967), 81-86.

2. See, for example, Jessie Bernard, **The Sociology of Community** (Glenview, III.: Scott, Foresman, 1973); David S. Clark, "The Concept of Community: A Re-Examination", **The Sociological Review**, 21, 3, 1973, 397-416; Marcia Effrat, "Approaches to Community: Conflicts and Complementarities", **Sociological Inquiry**, 43, 3-4, 1973, 1-32.

3. George A. Hillery, **Communal Organizations: A Study of Local Societies** (Chicago: University of Chicago Press), 27-39.

TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL ISOLATION IN SMALL NEWFOUNDLAND COMMUNITIES

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Introduction

This study, which is part of a larger investigation of the living and working experiences of teachers in Newfoundland, examines briefly the degree of professional isolation teachers working in small Newfoundland communities perceive themselves as experiencing. One might hypothesize that at least partly because of historical settlement patterns, the size of communities and difficulties related to transportation and communication, teachers in small Newfoundland communities are more likely than those from large ones to feel isolated both physically and/or professionally from their colleagues in other schools and communities and from educational bodies or authorities in the Province.

Limitations of space make it impossible for the author to provide a detailed description hereof research method. The data presented below are derived from a questionnaire completed by a random sample of 702 primary/elementary school teachers in Newfoundland. The content of the relevant questionnaire items will become apparent below. Small communities are defined as those with fewer than and large communities as those with more than a total population of 1000. StiII schools are those with fewer than 100 pupils and large schools those with over 250 pupils.

Professional Isolation

Some differences occur among/between the groups of teachers. It has been hypothesized that teachers in small communities are less likely than those from large ones to report having sufficient interaction with colleagues from other schools and with educational bodies or authorities. The data seem to provide some support for the hypothesis. Table 1 presents an analysis of the "subjects" responses to the following question: "In working where you do, how much isolation do you feel from your colleagues in other schools and areas?" The relationship between Category of Teacher and Perceived Isolation from Colleagues is statistically significant, with teachers from small communities - especially those from small schools- reporting more often than those from large communities that they encounter a high degree of isolation. The total percentages of teachers responding that they experience "Very Great" and "Great" isolation are 34% for small schools in small communities, 20% for large schools in small communities, and 17% for large schools in large communities. Also, the total percentages of teachers reporting they feel "Little" or "Very Little" isolation are correspondingly 35%, 54% and 60%. Not surprisingly, the group reporting the greatest isolation consists of teachers from small schools in small communities.

Somewhat different results are obtained when one analyses the responses to the following question:

Table 1

Perceived Isolation from Colleagues

Perceived Isolation from Colleagues	CATEGORY OF TEACHER					
	Small School in Small Community		Large School in Small Community		Large School in Large Community	
Very Great	13%	(30)	5%	(8)	5%	(16)
Great	21	(51)	15	(23)	12	(38)
Moderate	31	(74)	26	(39)	23	(72)
Little	19	(44)	30	(45)	26	(82)
Very Little	16%	(38)	24%	(36)	34%	(106)
Totals	100%	(237)	100%	(151)	100%	(314)

*All percentages are rounded to the nearest whole number.

"How often do you have the opportunity to interact professionally (through meetings, conferences, etc.) with teachers or principals from communities other than the one served by your school?" The relationship between Category of Teacher and Opportunity to Interact with Colleagues is also statistically significant. It may be calculated from Table 2 that the total percentages of teachers reporting that they "Very Often" and "Often" have the opportunity for such professional interaction are 31 % for teachers from small schools in small communities, 40% for those from large schools in small communities and 23% of those from large schools in large communities. One may conclude, therefore, that teachers from small communities report having greater interaction than those from large communities with colleagues from other schools and communities. This finding may reflect the practice by school boards of bringing teachers from different schools together for workshops, conferences, and the like. Two points may legitimately be made here: (1) this practice does not eliminate the relatively marked feeling of isolation experienced by the teachers in small communities and (2) a fairly large proportion of teachers have infrequent or very infrequent opportunity for the kind of professional interaction being discussed although many do feel the need for such interaction. It may be suggested, in connection with the former point, that the greater frequency of interaction with colleagues from other communities does not appear to compensate for the paucity of fellow-professionals or other people with similar interests and, perhaps, life-styles.

Table 2

Perceived Opportunity to Interact Professionally with Colleagues from Outside the Community

Perceived Opportunity to Interact with Colleagues	CATEGORY OF TEACHER					
	Small School in Small Community		Large School in Small Community		Large School in Large Community	
Very infrequently (0-1 times annually)	16%	(37)	10%	(15)	23%	(72)
Infrequently (2 times annually)	15	(36)	13	(19)	17	(52)
Occasionally (3-4 times annually)	38	(89)	37	(56)	37	(115)
Often (5-6 times annually)	19	(46)	25	(38)	13	(42)
Very Often (7 of more times annually)	12%	(29)	15	(23)	10%	(32)
Totals	100%	(237)	100%	(151)	100%	(314)

'All percentages are rounded to the nearest whole number.

Respondents were also asked the question "In working where you do, to what extent do you feel that - compared with teachers in other areas-you are neglected by professional associations (e.g., N.T.A.) and by authorities concerned with education?" An analysis of the "subjects" responses is found in Table 3. The relationship between Category of Teacher and Perceived Neglect is statistically significant, with teachers from small communities- especially those from small schools, which are typically located in the smallest communities - apparently believing much more than their counterparts in large communities that they are greatly neglected by educational bodies or authorities. The- phrasing of the questionnaire item is quite general and, naturally, does not permit one to determine the extent to which individual educational bodies or authorities are deemed guilty of great neglect. It is possible, of course, that there may in actuality be not so great a difference between schools in small communities and those in large ones with regard to the amount of attention received from educational bodies or authorities but that teachers in small communities - at least partly because they do not have constant access to large numbers of colleagues - simply feel any perceived inadequacies of contact with such bodies or authorities much more keenly. The main point is that teachers in small communities are much more inclined that those from large ones to view educational bodies or authorities (from the present data one cannot say which) as having little interest in them and their work.

Table 3

Perceived Neglect by Educational Bodies or Authorities

Perceived Neglect	CATEGORY OF TEACHER					
	Small School in Small Community		Large School in Small Community		Large School in Large Community	
Very Great Extent	8%	(19)	4%	(6)	1%	(3)
Great Extent	20	(48)	12	(18)	5	(16)
Moderate Extent	24	(57)	15	(22)	16	(51)
Limited Extent	29	(69)	40	(61)	29	(89)
Very Limited Extent	19%	(44)	29%	(44)	49%	(154)
Totals	100%	(237)	100%	(151)	100%	(313)

*All percentages are rounded to the nearest whole number.

Conclusions

It appears that teachers in small Newfoundland communities - especially the very small ones, where small schools tend to be located - are more likely than their counterparts in large communities to feel physically and/or professionally isolated from their colleagues elsewhere and from educational bodies or authorities. This finding seems to suggest the need for an investigation of what might be done to lessen the feeling of isolation (e.g., by demonstrating to teachers that they receive as much attention as their colleagues, if indeed they do; by arranging more frequent gatherings, joint workshops, etc. for teachers in small communities; by encouraging communication among such teachers through newsletters, etc., and by more frequent visits from school board officials).

TEACHERS' LIKES, DISLIKES, AND CHALLENGES WITH REFERENCE TO STUDENTS

W.B.W. Martin
Ishmael Baksh
A. Singh

Several aspects of teacher attitude formation and patterns of behaviour have received considerable attention during the last couple of decades or so. The processes whereby teachers categorize students as isolated in teacher expectancy research beginning with Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968), and the categorization of teacher actions in the Flanderian (Flanders, 1970),and related approaches (Brophy and Good, 1974) are examples of efforts to understand the formation of teacher attitudes and the processes of teacher-student interactions. Complementary concerns include teachers' perceptions of each other (Fagan, 1979), of their interaction tactics (Martin, 1979), and of teaching in general (Baksh and Singh, 1980).

Drawing on data presented in an earlier publication (Baksh and Singh, 1980), the present paper focuses specifically on teacher observations relating to students in the school. In this regard our data can be divided into three groups. One group includes references to what teachers like about students, while the second group includes what teachers dislike about them. The data in the third group point to aspects of students which teachers find challenging.

Likes

On the basis of percentages of responses from teachers, it seems that teachers enjoy most of all well disciplined students (18%).' Next in order of preferences are those who are respectful of teachers (12%), followed by those who are enthusiastic and responsive (11 %), those who are cooperative with and supportive of teachers (8%), those displaying positive attitudes toward school (7%), those who are friendly (6%), those who are clean (2%), and those who are understanding (2%). Many of the teacher responses indicate a sense of satisfaction with their students without isolating the qualities of the students which gave them this satisfaction. For example, they referred to a student as "nice to work with", as "really good" students, and as having "a good attitude".

Having an opportunity to get to know the needs and backgrounds of students is seen as very desirable by the teachers. Such opportunities are, not surprisingly, seen to exist more often in small schools and in small communities. One teacher claimed to "have considerable opportunity to meet the children and their families and know them well". Another teacher observed that "in a small school you get to know all the children". A third teacher proclaimed: "The thing I enjoy most about living and working in this community is that I know the children and their background well and this enables me to better understand the children's motivation, behaviour and problems".

Dislikes

Several student characteristics have been reported by teachers to be problems, even serious obstacles, in their teaching endeavours. These characteristics and

percentages of teachers reporting them as problems, difficulties and obstacles areas follows: intellectual competence (27%),z motivation (16%), discipline (16%), handicaps from home background (13%), attitude toward homework (5%), poor attention (5%), poor work habits (3%), passivity (2%), and physical state - appearance, cleanliness, and energy level - (2%).

At the top of the list of teacher reported dislikes relating to students is the lack of discipline sometimes encountered (33%).[3] Lack of respect for teachers (25%) is next in line, followed by hygiene (17%), inadequate motivation for schoolwork (12%), immaturity (4%), shyness (4%), and attitude toward self (4%). Teachers' comments reveal that they encounter other student characteristics which they consider to be undesirable. These characteristics include carelessness and dishonesty in the school and with school-related activities, jealousy regarding other children in one's class, surly attitude in the school setting, tendency to magnify small occurrences when they go home from school, and unwillingness to try new ideas.

By way of highlighting some of the practical implications of isolating and getting a greater understanding of the likes and dislikes of teachers concerning the characteristics of students and student behaviour, we point to the teacher-perceived challenges of these dimensions of teaching.

Challenges

While no question was directed specifically at the challenges of teaching as perceived by the teachers, their comments may be interpreted as pointing to their perceptions of such challenges. In fact, these comments are encouraging indicators of teacher commitment and professional development in that they reveal an awareness of, and a degree of commitment to, concerns which are at the core of teaching. These concerns can be presented in terms of challenges which include (1) getting to know the students, (2) nurturing the passive student to become more active, (3) "being able to find what can motivate an uninterested child", (4) changing student attitudes toward school, (5) developing appropriate self-concepts amongst students, (6) maintaining appropriate order and control in the classroom, (7) restoring standards which seem to have been eroded over the years, and (8) obtaining results in terms of student learning which are commensurate with one's efforts in the school. Such concerns are probably indicative of areas which teachers would be interested in discussing - if they have not already done so - in staff meetings, workshops and the like.

FOOTNOTES

1. These percentages are calculated from a total of 134 responses.

2. These percentages are calculated from a total of 448 responses.

3. These percentages are calculated from a total of 24 responses.

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FACTORS RELATED TO TEACHERS' IMPLEMENTATION OF IDEAS FROM EDUCATION COURSES

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This paper is a preliminary examination of some of the data gathered in a study entitled "Teachers' Experiences and Perceptions of Teaching in Newfoundland." Our aims are (1) to determine - albeit somewhat imprecisely - the extent to which teachers vary regarding the perceived proportion of ideas obtained in university Education courses they have been able to put into practice and (2) to ascertain whether certain variables are related to the extent to which teachers report implementing such ideas. The variable "perceived proportion of ideas obtained in Education courses teachers have been able to put into practice" will be referred to here as "Implementation of Education Ideas."

With regard to specific variables which might be related to Implementation of Education Ideas, we thought that teachers" initial perceptions concerning ideas from Education courses would be important. It seemed likely that, for whatever reason (e.g., skepticism regarding the applicability of some ideas, inadequacy of opportunity to practise application of the ideas, inability to translate "theory" into practice, or perceived unsuitability of the classroom situation for the implementation of Education Ideas'), teachers would vary in their initial enthusiasm for ideas from university Education courses and that such variation would be related to Implementation of Education Ideas. It seemed to us, also, that teachers" perceptions of how certain categories of people react to Education Ideas would be related to Implementation of Education Ideas. There is evidence, for example, that many Newfoundland teachers are highly conscious of the nature of reactions by members of the community to educational practices. It appeared reasonable to suggest that teachers" perceptions of how parents view Education Ideas would be related to Implementation of Education Ideas. Almost certainly, also, colleagues and administrators are likely to be "significant others" in the lives of teachers. It would not be surprising, we thought, if teachers" perceptions of the attitudes of colleagues and administrators toward Education Ideas proved to be related to Implementation of Education Ideas.

It is highly possible, of course, that the magnitudes of the relationships hypothesized above would vary with the nature of the social context. For instance, there is a strong likelihood that teachers will be more sensitive - and presumably more responsive - in the smaller than in the larger communities to people's opinion,[3] including opinion regarding Educational Ideas. However, statistical methods other than those employed in the present paper are relevant to the examination of such interactions and the latter will therefore be investigated elsewhere.

Methodology, Findings and Discussion

The data for the present study were obtained from a questionnaire survey of a random sample of 704 primary-elementary school teachers. Further details regarding the sample are available elsewhere.° Implementation of Education Ideas was measured by a single item ("What proportion of the ideas you got from Education courses at University have you been able to put into practice?") with five possible responses ranging from "All" to "None". We recognize that this item is probably not a very strong measure of Implementation of Education Ideas. We felt, however, that our using it would enable us

to raise some interesting questions for further investigation. Teachers" Interest in Implementing Education Ideas was measured by an item ("Upon completion of your Education courses at University how interested were you in implementing the ideas you got in them?") with five possible responses ranging from "Highly Interested" to "Highly Uninterested". In three other items teachers were asked what they had gathered in their interaction with (1) parents, (2) colleagues in their school and (3) school administrators were the feelings in general of such people about the usefulness of the kinds of ideas teachers got from University Education courses. Responses were made on five-point scales ranging from "Highly Unfavourable" to "Highly Favourable", the order of the responses being in two instances reversed.

Table 1

Implementation of Education Ideas

Proportion of Ideas Implemented	Percentage of Reporting Such Teachers Implementation
All	0.4% (3)
The Majority	11.2% (79)
About Half	24.3% (171)
A Minority	58.0% (408)
None	6.0% (42)

The results of our analysis of the data are highly interesting. First of all, Table 1 presents teachers' estimates of the proportion of ideas from University Education courses they perceived themselves as having been able to implement. It appears from the table that Implementation of Education Ideas varies greatly among teachers. Quite remarkable is the low proportion of teachers observing they had been able to implement all or the majority of the ideas they had obtained from Education courses, only about 12% claiming they had done so. On the other hand, about 58% of the teachers estimated they had been able to apply a minority and about 6% none of such . Education Ideas. It would be interesting to investigate the characteristics of teachers with limited success in Implementation of Education Ideas as well as the nature of the ideas which are implemented and of the conditions under which successful implementation occurs.

In the present paper, however, we limit ourselves to an examination of the relationship between Implementation of Education Ideas and the four other variables mentioned above. The relevant Pearson correlation coefficients appear in Table 2. The coefficients are all moderate in magnitude, generally ranging from about .30 to.40, indicating the existence of a relationship-though not a markedly strong one - between Implementation of Education Ideas and each of the four other variables. There is thus some support for the "hypotheses" that teachers' own attitudes toward Education Ideas as well as their perceptions of the attitudes of parents, prominent members of the community, colleagues and administrators are related to Implementation of Education Ideas. The weakest relationship (.19) is that between perceived attitude of administrators and Implementation of Education Ideas, suggesting perhaps that for teachers school administrators are not as salient with regard to Implementation of

Table 2

Relationships Between Selected Variables and Implementation of Education Ideas

Variables	Correlation with Implementation of Education Ideas (Pearson Correlation Coefficient)
Teachers' Interest in Implementing Education Ideas	.31
Parental Attitude Toward Education Ideas	.28
Colleagues' Attitude Toward Education Ideas	.38
Administrators' Attitude Toward Education Ideas	.19

Education Ideas as are the other groups mentioned above. The strongest association is apparently that between perceived attitude of colleagues and Implementation of Education Ideas. This finding may be a reflection of the closer relationship among teachers than between teachers and any of the other groups with which this study is concerned. The other coefficients - both close to .30 - are quite similar to each other. It is interesting to observe that teachers' own attitude toward Education Ideas has at least as strong a relationship with Implementation of Education Ideas as most of the other variables.

The leap from statistical measures of association to conclusions regarding causality is fraught with danger. However, we propose tentatively - on the basis of the foregoing evidence - that the implementation of ideas from Education courses is influenced by teachers' initial attitude toward such ideas as well as by the attitudes toward Education Ideas which parents, colleagues and school administrators - to a lesser degree - are perceived to hold.

In view of the relatively strong impact which colleagues' attitude toward Education Ideas appears to have on Implementation of Education Ideas, we thought it might be interesting to explore further the distribution of colleagues' attitude toward such Ideas. This distribution is presented in Table 3, from which it might be seen that about 32% of our respondents were perceived as being favourably disposed, 26% as being

Table 3

Colleagues' Attitude Toward Education Ideas

Category of Attitude	Percentage of Teachers Assigning Colleagues to Each Category
Highly Favourable	1.7% (12)
Favourable	30.4% (214)
Neutral	26.0% (183)
Unfavourable	32.1% (226)
Highly Unfavourable	7.0% (49)
Not Applicable*	2.8% (20)

*The category "Not Applicable" was provided for teachers in very small schools in which no colleagues were to be found.

neutral and about 39% as being unfavourably disposed toward Education Ideas. Thus, only a minority of teachers were perceived as being actively supportive of Education Ideas. Since teachers appear more likely to implement Education Ideas if they believe their colleagues have favourable attitudes toward such Ideas, the above findings regarding colleagues' perceived attitudes might suggest a need for concern.

Conclusions

We wish to propose tentatively that in Newfoundland Implementation of Education Ideas tends to be affected by teachers' perceptions of the attitudes toward Education Ideas held by parents, colleagues and school administrators as well as by teachers' own initial attitudes toward Education Ideas. In the absence of controls and of more sensitive instruments, the relationships reported here might be accepted with caution. However, since negative attitudes on the part of parents, colleagues and administrators are apparently likely to be associated with less frequent implementation of Education Ideas, it seems important that an attempt be made to determine why such attitudes arise and that some attention be given to finding ways to encourage more positive attitudes, assuming of course that Education Ideas all merit implementation. Also, it appears useful for an investigation to be undertaken of teachers' initial attitudes toward Education Ideas and of the factors generating such attitudes, since such a study is likely to suggest areas in which corrective action might be attempted.

FOOTNOTES

1. See, for example, I.J. Baksh and A. Singh, **Teachers' Perceptions of Teaching: A Newfoundland Study** (St. John's: Faculty of Education, 1980), pp. 94-97.

2. Baksh and Singh, **op. cit.**, pp. 66-67.

3. I.J. Baksh and A. Singh, **The Teacher in the Newfoundland Community** (St. John's: Faculty of Education, 1979), pp. 31-46, 56-63.

4. **Ibid.**, pp. 15-17.

TEACHER DEMAND AND SUPPLY PROFILES AND VARYING METHODOLOGICAL CONCEPTS OF MANPOWER PROJECTIONS

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Some Conceptual Foundations of Manpower Projection Models

Educational planners have been known to use a combination of what are known as the social-demand for education approach and the manpower requirements approach in projecting the demand for qualified manpower (1). The idea of the social demand for education was given by Lord Robbins, who preached the philosophy, that 'courses of higher education should be available for all those who are qualified by age and attainment to pursue them and who wish to do so' (2). A stronger support to this idea of universal higher education is voiced by the American educational system, where most of the state universities are required by law to admit all applicants. This attitude implies that although excess education may not be socially profitable it is still considered socially desirable, and the social benefit of education is reflected through the social rate of return. The social rate of return reflects the price of public education (3).

The quantitative methodology of the social demand approach involves the projection of the demand for places in the educational system. Estimates of future availability of places in upper secondary levels are developed from the enrolment projections using institutional parameters like admission requirements into higher education and educational policies regarding student grants and subsidies.

Projections of the demand for places developed by the social demand approach are then combined with what is known as the manpower requirements approach to project manpower requirements. Under the manpower requirements approach, manpower as an economic entity refers to a micro-specification of the aggregate labour by industry and occupation. The view of the labour market in the manpower sense is therefore one of heterogeneous segmentation of the labour force into occupational groups (4). Such a labour market segmentation restricts inter-occupational and intersectoral mobility and skill-substitution (5). We therefore find that under the manpower requirements approach the flow of fresh labour into the labour market is assumed to be affected very little by changes in the wage rate. It is instead determined by a demographic flow of manpower required to replace withdrawals, resulting from deaths, retirements, disability and net out-migration, and is therefore referred to as replacement demand. Labour demand, on the other hand, refers to a fresh flow of employed labour force resulting from changes in economic as well as demographic variables.

Under the manpower requirements approach the concept of labour supply is also one of demographic flow respectively (7).

Varying Perspectives in Teacher Demand and Supply Projections for the Province of Newfoundland and Labrador under Different Manpower Concepts.

The concepts of labour demand and supply as economic flows and the concept of replacement demand and demographic flow give rise to different profiles of manpower requirements. This point will now be demonstrated with respect to the teacher force in the Province of Newfoundland and Labrador.

Studies on teacher demand and supply for the Province of Newfoundland and Labrador have used a combination of the social-demand approach and the manpower requirements approach as earlier defined (8). Warren has used a definition of teacher supply to mean the total stock of teacher reserve pool, comprising those who are qualified to teach and are retained from the previous year's stock, plus three additional components, namely, the demographic flow of freshly qualified teachers, re-entrants to the stock of teacher force and the number of unemployed teachers at any point of time. The comparable concept of teacher demand must logically be the total number of employed teachers plus the number of teaching job vacancies.

Such a notion of labour demand and supply as stock variables are also common among many manpower planners in Canada (9). The practice is in vogue mainly because of the labour force survey methodology used by Statistics Canada (10). These stock and flow versions of manpower projections have therefore, been found to give rise to different perspectives of labour demand profiles (11). The main cause of the difference seems to be the absence of direct economic factors in quantitative models based on the manpower requirements approach. Among the factors omitted from consideration are variations in wages and the impact of development of specific sectors of the economy.

Figure I shows the two perspectives in teacher demand and supply under the economic and demographic flow concepts for the Province of Newfoundland and Labrador. The perfectly inelastic supply curves, S for the base year and S for the projection year, together with the lateral displacement of the wage - labour point A to B along the inflexible wage line AB, indicate the literal use of the manpower requirements approach in combination with the social-demand for education approach by the existing studies on teacher demand and supply projections for the Province. The displacement AB indicates replacement demand, which in the case of Warren's study and the study by the Task Force on Education in Newfoundland denotes the demographic change in the reserve pool of teachers.

The Task Force on Education (12) rightly observes that population increase in the Province following major oil and gas development would have a crucial effect on the educational system in terms of the demand for places, the reorganization of educational programs commensurate with the needs of economic development, and teacher allocation. Such development effects will automatically raise wages and create sensitivity of labour demand and supply to wages. The concept of replacement demand under the manpower requirements approach cannot be sustained in developing reliable teacher demand and supply projections.

Now, as wages increase, technological change will drive the final demand for labour curve upwards (13). The supply curve however, may or may not be inelastic. It will shift to the right as shown by the discontinuous lines, following factor substitution in sectoral production. For the teacher force this would be less pronounced because teachers in the Province of Newfoundland and Labrador seem to have lower prospect

for occupational mobility and substitution (14). In general, however, the projected wage-labour configuration under the economic flow concept of labour demand and supply would be given by the point B', with an increase in teacher demand to q'. The economical flow concept and the demographic flow concept produce differences in the estimates of teacher demand to the extent of (q'-q).

WAGE ELASTICITY OF TEACHER DEhL11ID AND SUPPLY IN THE PROVINCE OF NEWFOUNDLAND AND LABRADOR UNDER VARYING: AMOUR MARKET CONCEPTS AND METHODOLOGIES

Figure 1
(INSERT HERE)

The implications of the wage elasticity of teacher demand and supply for the Province of Newfoundland and Labrador discussed in Figure I can be further established by the alternative economic projection for teacher demand in the Province made by Employment and Immigration Canada (15) and shown in Table 1 below.

These projections indicate what we demonstrated in Figure I - an upward shift in the economic demand curve for teachers above the estimate provided by the existing studies for Newfoundland under the manpower requirements approach. The teacher imbalance picture is almost unchanged in the two cases, implying that although the new teacher demand curve shifts upwards, teacher supply curve remains fairly inelastic. The CEIC projections, therefore, imply that by the year 1985 the Province of Newfoundland and Labrador is expected to experience an excess demand for teachers as supply falls short of potential demand. This result is slightly different from that arrived at in the Task Force Report. According to this report demand for new teachers in the Province is expected to remain fairly stable up to 1985, and then decrease substantially, and that the overall demand of the reserve pool of teachers will be maintained. Varying sets of results on teacher demand and supply profiles based on different methodologies and concepts of the labour market variables could also give rise to different policy recommendations. Only one of these policy implications of the alternative projections need be mentioned here. The result on teacher shortage by 1985 projected by the CEIC study of teacher employment and demand suggests that a policy of reducing pupil/ teacher ratio to achieve teacher allocation in the Province may not be necessary. There will be need, however, to fix the pupil/teacher ratio at a suitable level in view of the declining enrolment trend and the mismatch of teachers at the primary level and in special education. This is slightly in variance with the policy recommendation on pupil/teacher ratio control made by the Task Force (16).

TABLE I

ALTERNATIVE PROJECTIONS OF TEACHER EMPLOYMENT AND REQUIREMENTS IN THE PROVINCE OF NEWFOUNDLAND AND LABRADOR, 1985

Teacher Employment (CEIC)	9,770
Teacher Employment (Task Force)	7,190
Teacher Requirement (CEIC)	360
Teacher Requirement (Task Force)	290

Source: Employment and Immigration Canada (Ottawa). "Occupational Requirements to 1985 (Province of Newfoundland and Labrador)", Internal Working Paper, January, 1981.

Crocker, R.K. & Riggs, F.T. Improving School Retention and Post-Secondary Participation, Task Force on Education, St. John's, Newfoundland, August 31, 1980.

In Figure I the above numbers correspond to the following variables:

$q = 7{,}190$; $q' = 9{,}770$
$q - q_O = 290$; $q' - q_0 = 360$; $q' - q = 70$.

Conclusion

We have briefly demonstrated in this paper, with the example of teacher demand and supply projections for the Province of Newfoundland and Labrador, that different underlying concepts of the key labour market variables and methodologies of manpower projections could give rise to varying sets of results and policy recommendations. While the use of the traditional manpower requirements approach in combination with the social demand for education approach, by the existing studies on teacher demand and supply profiles are perfectly legitimate, there still remains the need for developing more comprehensive economic models for studying this topic for the Province of Newfoundland and Labrador (17).

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UTILIZING TEACHER CHARACTERISTICS AS CRITERIA FOR DEPLOYMENT DECISIONS

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Introduction

One of the facts of life which must be faced by educators is that of declining enrolments. Figures published by Statistics Canada (1976) and supported by Atherton (1977) point to a short run decline until about 1985. More recent figures by Goble (1977), Jackson (1977) and Stapleton (1977) contradict these less dismal forecasts and suggest that they are overly optimistic. Whether we are faced with a continual decline or a gradual improvement after the mid 1980's, one thing is certain: educators will have to live with declining school populations for at least the next seven to ten years. The consequences of such declines are substantial. Duignan and Ponder (1978) summarize the dilemmas:

> "Like the pebble tossed into placid water, declining enrolments will generate a series of attendant disturbances such as decreasing demand for teachers and school space. In turn these will reduce the demand for supervisors, administrators and support services; in some cases reduced enrolments will result in a surplus of educational facilities.... One component which many schools will have to consider is that of staff needs." (p. 1).

The issue of staff needs contains a number of separate, if interlocking, questions. First, how can teaching personnel be deployed for maximum effectiveness within a school district? Social Science is based on probabilistic hypotheses. That is if one takes any given action, then certain consequences will probably, but not necessarily, follow (Hempel, 1966). The school administrator is most likely interested, wherever possible, in maximizing that probability (Barnard, 1938). In order to increase the odds, administrators need data on general categories of teacher effectiveness. It is important to identify which classes of teachers, with what qualifications are most effective in which situations.

Secondly, since staff reductions have already become necessary in some school districts, and if qualifications are to be one of the staff retention/reduction criteria (Duignan and Ponder, 1978), then the particular influence of qualifications on student performance needs to be known. A considerable body of research findings has grown up to support the contention that, on balance, the better the qualifications of teachers, the better student performance. School Programs Evaluation (1973) presents an impressive review of the literature. In 75 percent of the studies cited (12), there was a positive relationship between teacher qualifications and student performance in the cognitive area. Even more revealing was the fact that of the studies cited (3), a significant positive relationship existed between teacher qualifications and student performance in the noncognitive areas The authors concluded:

> "In 83% of studies which examined this relationship, it was found that the more highly educated the teacher was, the more impressive was the student performance .... In studies of cognitive output, 75% supported the conclusion. (p. 11)

Similarly, Winsor (1978), reviewing the literature for a study of teacher qualifications as predictors of student achievement in mathematics, concluded that teacher qualifications were positively related to student performance across a broad range of studies, although the relationships were neither uniform nor consistent. Finally, Ponder (1977) found correlations of .79 and .73 between levels of teacher certification and grade equivalent composite scores for students at the Grade 4 and Grade 8 levels on the Canadian Tests of Basic Skills in the school districts of Newfoundland and Labrador, the jurisdiction in which this study took place; these data were aggregated to the district level.

Thus, three possibilities appear to exist. First, there is consistent, direct relationship between teacher qualifications, on the one hand, and student performance, on the other, which seems to be suggested by the review presented above. Secondly, teacher qualifications are unrelated to student performance. Finally the relationship is selective, holding under certain circumstances but not in others.

At the same time, a body of research findings has indicated the influence of socio-economic status on student performance to be considerable (see for example, Coleman, 1966 and Bloom, 1976). Thus, any study which looks at teacher related variables must necessarily take into account the potential influence of SES. The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship of socio-economic status and a number of teacher related variables to student performance in the high schools of Newfoundland and Labrador. More specifically, these included the general qualifications, area of training (high school or other) and years of experience of teachers who taught Grade XI students. The outcome variable was grade average in the Public Examinations which students write at the conclusion of their high school careers in grade XI.

Theoretical Model

The model utilized in this study, a variation of that proposed by Bulcock (1975), has three components: two groupings of input variables, SES and teacher related variables, and student performance, which is presumably a function of both. First, the relationship between SES and student performance has been amply demonstrated in the literature. At the same time, it could be argued that SES is, in fact, a proxy measure for the home (Bulcock, 1975). However, the contentious nature of such an argument has led the authors to claim only a measure of SES. Secondly, there are teacher related variables which might be expected to directly affect student performance. Unfortunately, no theories of teaching exist which would translate teacher variables into student performance. Thus, we are somewhat uncertain about the exact manner(s) (Rosenshine, 1970) in which they operate.

INSERT FIGURE 1

Conceptua1 Model of Student Performance

DATA AND METHOD

The data used to analyse the nature of the relationships this paper proposes were obtained by merging the following three data sets:

The Parsons Data. In 1973 the Committee on Enrolment was set up at Memorial University for the purpose of investigating changes in the pattern of enrolment and the reasons for such changes. Data were gathered from all Grade Eleven students in the Province for the school year 1973-74 (approximately 8,000). The information collected from these students included such things as family background characteristics, self-concept of ability, aspirations and expectations, and academic and social environment of schools.

The Public Exam File. Since 1971, most of the high schools in Newfoundland have been operating under a system commonly known as "shared evaluation". Under this system the school contributes fifty percent of the final grade for their students; the remaining fifty percent is determined from a Province-wide "public examination" administered by the Provincial Department of Education because of large between school differences in the marks assigned by schools, however, (Bull et al., 1977), it was decided to use the public examination marks (1973-74 school year) only for this study.

The Educational Staff Record. At the end of each school year all teachers in the Province complete a report known as the "Educational Staff Record". This report contains such information as teacher's salary, years of experience, teaching certificate, area and level of specialization, school size, and class size. This information was extracted from the Educational Staff Record for all teachers in the province who taught grade eleven subjects during the 1973-74 school year.

Operationalization of the Variables. The variables described in Figure 1 were quantified, using the following procedures:

MCI - For this study, teacher qualifications were determined through the use of the Mean Certification Index (MCI), (Ponder, 1974), which is basically an average certification level for all teachers in each high school who taught subjects in grade eleven during the 1973-74 school year. Temporary licenses are assigned an arbitrary value of zero. It Is essentially an interval scale.

The formula for the computation of the MCI for a school is then:

$$\text{MCI} = \frac{f(\text{VII}) + f(\text{VI}) + f(\text{V}) + f(\text{IV}) + f(\text{III}) + f(\text{II}) + f(\text{I})}{\text{Number of teachers in the school who taught Grade XI}}$$

where f = the number of teachers in any certification category I...VIII =the values, 1 to 7, assigned to those categories.

SES - The measures of socioeconomic status used were the students' reports of their father's occupation and their mother's and father's education levels. This information was provided by the "Parsons Data". The questionnaire items that measure parents' occupation are the same as those used by Breton and MacDonald in a project entitled "Social and Academic Factors in the Career Decisions of Canadian Youth" (Breton, 1972; Breton and MacDonald, 1967). The SES composite that was created by combining (summing) these three measures has an internal consistency reliability (Cronbach, 1951) of .72.

AREA - This variable represents the proportion of teachers teaching grade eleven subjects who have been trained in high school methods. This information was provided by the Educational Staff Record.

EXPERIENCE - Is simply the average number of years experience of the teachers who teach grade eleven subjects. This information -vas obtained from the Educational Staff Record.

ACHIEVEMENT - The school's average score on the grade eleven public examinations, derived from the Public Exam File.

It should be noted that, for the purposes of this analysis, data on the variables described above were aggregated to the school level giving an N of 142; this was the total number of high schools in the province in 1974.

RESULTS

A preliminary analysis of the relationships among these five variables yielded information that was somewhat perplexing; the correlation coefficients are shown in Table I. In particular, the MCI - Achievement relationship (r = .192) was much less than previous research (for example, Ponder, 1978) would have led us to expect.

While this correlation coefficient is a measure of the degree of linear relationship between MCI and Achievement, it was possible that these two variables were closely related curvilinearily, and yet produced a low correlation. The "test for curvilinearity" (Nie et al., 1975), however, suggested that the use of a curvilinear function would not significantly alter the magnitude of the relationship between the two.

Table 1

Correlations Among SES and Teacher Variables - Total Population

	SES	MCI	ACH	EXP	AREA	X	S.D.
SES	1.000					11.17	2.75
MCI	.219	1.000				5.12	1.16
ACH	.131	.192	1.000			63.03	5.92
EXP	.162	.205	.176	1.000		7.05	3.21
AREA	.184	.687	.220	.229	1.000	0.71	0.24

However, an examination of these two variables, MCI and Achievement, plotted together and arrayed in a scatter plot, suggested that there was indeed a stronger relationship than suggested by the initial correlation coefficient reported in Table 1, but that this relationship existed only up to a certain level of achievement. The correlation coefficients among the five variables this paper describes for schools where the grade eleven students have an average achievement scoreless than 60 are shown in Table 2.

One of the greatest problems in research of the type described here is the separation of the effects of variables reflecting individual level characteristics (e.g. SES) and group characteristics (e.g. teacher qualifications) (Hauser, 1970; Haney, 1974). The procedure this research used to analyse the relationship between student achievement and the four independent variables for the 25 low-achieving schools (those with average achievement scores of less than 60) was step-wise multiple regression. In this procedure, the SES variable was entered in the first step, i.e., the variance in student achievement due to SES was removed before the three teacher characteristics were considered. This yielded a lower level estimate of the effect attributable to teacher characteristics since the first step removed not only the effect of SES but as well the convariation of SES with the other variables.

Table 2

Correlations Among SES and Teacher Variables - Low[a] and High[(b)] Achievers

	SES	MCI	ACH	EXP	AREA	X	S.D.
SES		.480	.634	.237	.590	10.75	2.76
MCI	.213		.668	.184	.624	4.83	1.32
ACH	.162	-.042		.321	.793	53.50	5.81
EXP	.246	.179	.000		.319	6.05	2.59
AREA	.197	.616	.116	.176		0.63	0.29
%	11.53	5.27	64.93	7.43	0.75		
S.D.	2.75	0.94	3.49	3.09	0.22		

[a]LOW achievers above diagonal (ff = 119)
[b]High achievers below diagonal (ff = 25)

The summary of the regression analysis reported in Table 3 indicates the degree to which variation in each of these variables is associated with variation in achievement. The B coefficients are partial-regression coefficients, and may be considered as a measure of the influence of each independent variable upon school achievement, with adjustments made for all other independent variables. For example, the partial regression coefficient for the MCI - Achievement relationship is 1.086 units; for each unit increase in MCI there is an associated increase of 1.086 units in achievement, when the effect of the three other explanatory variables are controlled statistically. However, since not all the independent variables are measured in the same metric, it is difficult to determine the relative importance of each variable on the basis of the B coefficient. The standarized BETA coefficient yields this kind of information.

The overall accuracy of the prediction equation is reflected by Rz, the proportion of variance explained (71%). Prediction accuracy in absolute units is reflected by the standard error of estimate of the regression equation (3.427). To predict a school's achievement score from these variables, the following equation would be employed: Achievement = 34.245 +.439 (SES) + 1.086 (MCI) + 10.064 (AREA) + .155(EXP) + 3.427

DISCUSSION

The fact that both SES and the teacher related variables were not significantly related to student performance in the general school population leaves the authors with some problems of explanation and interpretation. The lack of relationship of qualifications and experience with student performance appears consistent with the findings of Coleman (1966), and the summaries of evidence presented by Boocock (1972), and Bloom (1976). However, the lack of relationship of SES to student performance is simply inconsistent with data generated elsewhere. The strong relationship between SES and teacher qualifications, on the one hand, and student performance, on the other, in low performance schools, gives rise to some interesting speculation. However, once again experience appeared unrelated to student performance substantiating the findings of other studies, e.g. Hanushek (1970).

Table 3

Summary of Regression of Achievement on Rome and School Variables

	Multiple R	R Squared	RSQ Change	Simple R	B	o/s Beta
SES	.634	.402	.403	.634	.439	.208
MCI	.758	.574	.172	.668	1.086	.247
AREA	.841	.707	.133	.793	10.064	.494
EXP	.843	.711	.004	.321	.155	.069
(Constant)					34.245	

Standard Error of Estimate = 3.427

The problem of explaining the results is somewhat difficult. There is no theory of teaching which would translate higher qualifications into enhanced student performance. It could be argued that in higher performance schools, students will, on balance, succeed regardless of their teachers. In low performance schools, where the positive effects on learning of the home may be lessened, the adage that "the more you know, the more you can teach" may hold (in terms of substantive subject areas and teaching methodology). With regard to experience, it appears that teachers, early in their careers, may compensate for less professional competence by an enthusiasm not as yet dulled by constant repetition.

At the same time, the importance of SES, qualifications and areas of training, and the lack of significance of experience in low performance schools, has implications for these same schools. First, it underlines the importance of having the best qualified teachers both in terms of general qualifications and area of training in these schools. Secondly, although SES is important, it is not readily manipulable. Interventions can be made in terms of both general qualifications and area of training much more easily. Finally, since experience is apparently unimportant it raises the possibility of placing recent, well qualified graduates in these schools on the grounds that they are more willing or able to relocate.

The findings of this study underline the need for further research in this area. One possibility which the authors are currently undertaking is to develop a predictive model to be utilized in identifying schools which achieve at higher or lower levels than might be expected. Examining closely a host of factors in each of these groups of schools might help in the development of a theory which bridges school-related variables (including teacher variables) and student outcomes.

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REDEFINING TEACHER EVALUATION

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Introduction

Last August 1 received a call from a district school superintendent stating his interest in a program of evaluation for all the teachers in his district, his belief in the potential of evaluation for in-service training, and the improvement of the total teaching-learning milieu in the school systems. Although he found many of the recent journal articles on the subject to be interesting, yet he concluded that much of the literature was too general, not explicit enough, or too hazy or too soft for an appropriate model of evaluation for his district or probably for other districts which might be wrestling with his type of problem of evaluation.

During the telephone conversation he posed several questions: (1) How can teacher evaluation be defined and practised so that teachers could feel that they were part of a process which helped them and the school system to grow and develop? (2) How could the purposes of evaluation be clarified so that teachers are more likely to perceive that the evaluative behaviors will be more beneficial to them? (3) Could there be more emphasis on formative evaluation as a continuous, ongoing cooperative endeavour, as opposed to evaluation for perceived negative purposes such as termination of contracts? (4) How could the job content of the person with responsibility for evaluation be determined? Would the teachers have some say as to what the job content might be? (5) What should be the specific roles of principals and assistant superintendents in evaluation of teacher performance? And finally, (6) Can a more positive process of evaluation than that presently used be devised? That is, one that really works, that meets the needs of teachers, administrators, boards, and the profession? He intimated that school boards and the University should, through the Faculty of Education, work on these problems and devise models of evaluation that can improve the performance of teachers in all school districts. In this paper, I would like to address myself to that superintendent's concerns.

Some Definitions of Evaluation

From a commonly accepted point of view, evaluation means determining the worth, value, or quality of a person, object or facility. From the point of view of professionals (including teachers), it is the process used in the evaluation or assessment which eventually determines the positive worth or value of the person being evaluated or helped. George Bernard Shaw, in Pygmalion, took the professional view of evaluation when he stated that the difference between a lady and a flower-girl is not in how she behaves, but in how she is treated. Evaluation, then, is defined as a process, not as an end in itself, but a means to an end - for the teacher or administrator, this end might be the development of the person to be the best that he or she is capable of becoming.

Evaluation is a set of activities where administrators and supervisors work with and through people to influence and pursue goals, and where the process lifts the members of the institution to greater fulfillment and accomplishment. The experience is one that in no way hinders or hurts the member, but an experience like "good wine shared." Whereas evaluation is improving the teaching-learning process, it is also

concerned with examining and clarifying values so that teachers can develop a better understanding of those behaviours that are appropriate for them. As Zahorik has pointed out, "values bring consistency, commitment, and support to teacher behaviour. They are essential for the improvement of instruction and the growth of the teacher." (Zahorik, 1978) Nurturing responsibility, tapping creativity and imagination, and providing an environment where people can develop a commitment to the schools, is what evaluation is all about. It follows, then, that all teachers should be involved in the process that takes as its primary purpose the development and improvement of the members of the organization.

Let me reiterate here that I am stressing formative evaluation, that is, evaluation which is able to shape, develop, motivate, and help and steer the teacher on to a continuous path of steady improvement, an evaluation which is productive and satisfying to all concerned, as opposed to what is generally termed summative evaluation, which is a summary type of activity often useful for the purpose of assessing teachers for tenure or promotion. For the benefit of the majority of teachers, I hope that emphasis will be placed on formative evaluation, a continuous program which uses all its results and findings to improve the professional performance of all teachers. This positive process of formative evaluation is, I believe, congruent with the teacher evaluation policy of. the Newfoundland Teachers' Association.

Some School Board Policies Regarding Evaluation

Whereas it is hoped that school boards might put in place a positive evaluation programme which will engender effectiveness of teachers, it is expedient that they also develop policy statements of evaluation which will support and underpin their own professional stance. An analysis of the policies and practices followed by eight school boards in Eastern Newfoundland showed the following:

Board A - The policy of evaluation covered only probationary teachers; its purpose was to help new teachers get off to a good start; there was no reference made to the increased effectiveness or evaluation of tenured teachers.

Board B - No evaluation policy was developed or implemented; the Board was considering a rating system for "summative evaluation."

Board C - School principals and supervisors are responsible for evaluation of teacher performance; all probationary teachers must be evaluated, while other teachers may be evaluated from time to time. The Board is considering a new policy of evaluation which takes as its main purpose the improvement and professional growth of all its teachers.

Board D - Principals and general supervisors are responsible for the evaluation of probationary and interim-certificated teachers. These are observed three times, and summative evaluations applied for purposes of tenure decisions.

Board E - This Board has no formally stated policy regarding the evaluation of tenured teachers. The professional staff is perplexed over this lack, and the superintendent has advised the trustees that "a cooperative, ongoing program of teacher evaluation fosters a climate of professional development leading, ultimately, to an

improved teaching learning situation," and that "teacher evaluation is essential at every level of the educational enterprise."

Board F - Again, there is no policy of evaluation for tenured teachers but a written policy for the evaluation of those non-tenured. A proposed new policy, which emphasizes growth of the teacher in teacher-student relationships, curriculum development, subject competency, techniques of instruction, and personal growth, is now before the Board.

Board G - The Board has a policy statement regarding the evaluation of non-tenured teachers. Its main function is to get new teachers "off to a good start."

Board H - This Board has recently introduced a new evaluation policy which emphasizes the growth and enhancement of all teachers and other staff. The process stated is "maximum improvement through mutual trust and understanding" of the purposes of evaluation. The 'team approach' is emphasized.

Hindrances to Constructive Evaluation

In spite of the positive connotations of evaluation as we have defined it, it would be foolhardy of principals and others responsible for a program of assessment of teacher performance to ignore the various hindrances to such a process. First of all, as I have stated elsewhere, teachers may initially interpret evaluation, regardless of how helpful, to be an invasion of their professional prerogatives. A history of checklists, and bureaucratic procedures, have soured many a professional from participation in any kind of evaluative procedure. Another hindrance is that, often, those who have the responsibility for evaluation perceive themselves or are perceived as lacking in authority. To be a helper of teachers or an evaluator of teacher performance, one must have authority. By authority here is meant the willingness of a group to be affected by the ability of others, or a person's willingness to be led or helped or guided by others. This is sometimes referred to as functional authority, which may stem from special or technical knowledge and competence, the personal attributes of the one who helps to evaluate, fundamental knowledge which he may possess of human beings, various techniques of persuasion, as well as fundamental skills in certain supervisory and evaluative processes such as eliciting problem-solving behaviours (which will be touched on later). To be helpful, the evaluator must acquire authority. Unless those responsible for developing fully the talents of teachers are open and cooperative, and engender mutual understanding and support, any attempts to influence professional teachers will be anxiety-provoking and frustrating.

Assumptions about Teachers

There is no need to remind all that the processes, techniques, and procedures of evaluation are changing as our societal attitudes are changing. In the past fifty years the North American societal institutions have evolved from a supervisory stance of institutional control exemplified by decision-making at the top; transmitting order to workers, inspection, and subjective value judgments, to a phase of personal and institutional growth and development exemplified by respect for humanity, caring for people, providing an enabling and facilitating climate, continuous growth, sharing and involvement, empathy and understanding. The function of evaluation in the new phase

is to bring out the 'best' in a member of the institution in terms of the needs of the organization, its expressed purposes, and the needs of its clients.

This approach to professional evaluation is based upon relatively new assumptions about people in organizations and, in the case of schools, about teachers. One assumption is that the motivation or potential for development is present in all people. The task of the evaluator is to find out what motivates a teacher, what turns a teacher on, what his/her potential is, and to guide that person through a process of development. Another assumption is that, although many people in a given society may not be creative, they have the potential to be creative. However, there will be a terrible waste of talent and ability if people are left to their own resources, if the institution provides no one to work with, and through, those persons to develop the abilities they possess. Formative evaluation based on these assumptions brings no loss but much gain as people are helped to grow through acquisition of professional knowledge, loyalty to clients, and a sense of responsibility. What is the theory behind this kind of evaluation? The literature on motivation indicates that the chief sources of satisfaction of a member of an institution are a sense of achievement, a feeling of responsibility, a chance for recognition, opportunity for advancement and growth, and satisfaction from work itself. If, in our process of evaluation, we can make these sources of satisfaction congruent with the declared purposes of the school and the welfare of our teachers, then we are well on the road to instructional improvement.

The Job Content of the Evaluator

When we talk about evaluation to help the teacher achieve well in the teacher-learning process, we have to consider the needs of the school and some of the major responsibilities of the teacher: teacher-student relationships, instructional methodology, planning, classroom management, subject competency, teacher-staff relationships, contributions to the total school plant, curriculum development, and student evaluation. However, the job content of evaluation can include other tasks, such as helping the teacher evaluate the intellectual functioning of the child, achievement in various areas, personal-social adjustment, growth in interest, attitudes, skills, and habits of students. Moreover, the content of evaluation might include helping the teacher determine pupil needs, helping to set realistic goals, helping to gather information on the environment of the school which affects learning, as well as helping him/her clarify and sharpen his/her thinking about problems in the teaching-learning milieu.

The Processes of Evaluation

The process of evaluation can take many forms, but to be effective it must be positive, open, and characterized by the participants" willingness to share and listen. It includes understanding and supporting the psychological and social needs of the participants, accepting the feelings of others, praising, encouraging, developing a real interest in the welfare of those being evaluated, and displaying integrity. Moreover, it includes involvement of the teachers according to their area of competence, and searching for alternative methods to attain success.

One orderly way of conducting evaluation is through a series of observations and conferences where the evaluator and the teacher concentrate on certain growths and development. First phase in this cycle is the preobservation conference where objectives

and focus are clarified and identified in a cooperative manner. Next phase is the observation in a classroom situation where both the evaluator and the teacher gather data on the focus of concentration. Next follows the post-observation conference where what took place previously is now evaluated by both participants. In this post-appraisal conference, participants summarize what was attempted and what was accomplished. Almost invariably, the result should be a sense of achievement and accomplishment for the teacher. A report of successes should always be given; for this gives the teacher a sense of recognition for services provided. For evaluation to be affective in helping the teachers to grow, the teachers must receive feedback on their successes in achieving realistic objectives. In summary, in the process of evaluation it can be said that complete trust and confidence are displayed; the evaluator is supportive in all situations to achieve goals; there is freedom of discussion; there is constructive use of ideas and opinions; attitudes are favourable, positive, and stimulating; there is effective communication, candid questioning; and there is provision of accurate, relevant information with a high concern for achievement of objectives. The process must promote the security, social esteem, autonomy, and self-actualization needs of the teacher. The success variables of such an approach can be measured through the improved performance and growth of the teacher, both personal and professional, and in the improvements in the teaching-learning situation.

There are evaluation procedures and processes which can be used in promoting teacher growth. One exercise that I have found extremely useful in helping teachers find solutions to particular problems which they have identified, is known as eliciting problem-solving technique. The component parts of this method are:

1. Rapport and structure
   (a) The evaluator is able to put partner at ease, is friendly, inspires trust.
   (b) The nature of the session is established early.

2. Attending behaviour
   (a) alert position
   (b) eye contact
   (c) verbal following

3. Empathy
   Responding with accuracy to what the teacher is saying.

4. Defining the Problem
   (a) identifying antecedent and consequential behaviours
   (b) generating alternative behaviours
   (c) devising a new course of action

5. Follow-up.

In this paper, we have considered evaluation from the formative point of view of continuous improvement of the teacher; we have considered the assumptions we make about professional teachers, arid we have attempted to show why teachers are likely to improve the content, processes, and outcomes of their teaching through effective, formative evaluation. Finally, we have considered some of the processes which would be used in such evaluation. In this process, the most effective evaluator in helping the teacher grow and develop is the principal of the school. It is important that we endeavour to do all we can to ensure that all our teachers are evaluated in a positive manner, so that the teaching-learning process can be enhanced.

EVALUATION OF TEACHER PERFORMANCE

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The graduate students in the Department of Educational Administration at Memorial University have recently written two books on supervision and evaluation of professional personnel, the first being entitled Supervision of Professional Personnel', and the second The Evaluation of Teacher Performance[2]. The striking point about these two books (both based on extensive research) is the remarkable congruency between the process of supervision and the process of evaluation of professional personnel. The definition used in these research documents is that supervision is the process of helping professionals to improve the content, processes, and outcomes of their work. Evaluation, on the other hand, is a broad, continuous programme involving a carefully ordered inquiry to determine the effectiveness of content and process in light of clearly defined goals. Evaluation is not considered an end in itself but a means to an end; it is a process of improvement of professionals, or of those who are on the way to becoming professionals.

Now, what are the characteristics and expectations of professionals which would demand a certain kind of process in their supervision and evaluation?

Professionals, according to the research, are those who:

(a) have a special body of knowledge which they apply to the solution of social problems. The possession of this knowledge is not enough; its application in response to societal needs is a necessary prerequisite for claiming professionalism;

(b) are able to regulate their own work standards without imposition from an outside authority;

(c) are provided independence and discretion so that they may make maximum use of their skills and abilities;

(d) have a strong sense of individual responsibility for judgments made and acts performed[3].

What are the expectations of professionals? According to the data gathered, professionals expect the following:

(a) stress on the uniqueness of client problems;
(b) stress on research and change and improvement;
(c) rules stated as alternative courses of action rather than as dictates;
(d) stress on achievement of client-oriented goals;
(e) skills based on knowledge rather than skills based on custom, usage, or routines;
(f) authority based on professional policy, personal competence and the unique problems and characteristics of the client;
(g) stress on loyalty to client[4].

Helpers of professionals or supervisors recognize that there are certain obstacles which must be overcome if the work of professionals is to be effectively evaluated. Before supervisors can effectively help and evaluate teachers they must understand how people develop and become socialized in professional roles, the reasons for providing supervisory help to professionals, the specific blocks to effective supervision and evaluation, and ways and means of removing these blocks.

The professional becomes socialized in the role and develops professional expectations in three ways:

1. The preparatory phase of institutional life provides opportunity for acquiring the knowledge, skills, and techniques unique to the profession. It also enables the professional-in-training to become familiar with a set of role expectations. Also important is the fact that the length of time spent in professional training has a positive influence on the strength of the socialization acquired.

2. Past experiences contribute to role acquisition. The idealized conception of the professional role may be gleaned from textbooks, limited field contact with professional groups, and identification with role senders.

3. Actual practice in the profession may sometimes be in sharp contrast with role expectations learnt during the training period. It is during the initial stages of internship that the new professional is exposed to real insights into the professional role. It is during this period that professionals are able to apply their training and methods to the real situation and become fully socialized therein[5].

Why should professionals be supervised and their performance evaluated? Professionals need supervisory help for two reasons:

(a) to ensure that the goals of the organization are being met. It has been shown that professionals working in a service organization are helped by supervisory practices which identify and clarify organizational goals.

(b) to help the organization serve the individual and society. Supervision which helps professionals work more effectively also increases the quality of service offered to the public.

Blocks to Effective Supervision and Evaluation of Professionals

However, there are certain hindrances to providing help to professionals. To help professionals, the supervisor must recognize these blocks to effective supervision and evaluation so that ways may be found to overcome them. The blocks identified by the researchers are:

1. Professionals may interpret attempts at influence as an invasion of their professional prerogatives.

2. heavy administrative demands on the time of the person who has an obligation to help may prevent effective evaluation of professional performance.

3. The supervisor's lack of power, influence, and authority to meet new demands of professionals may make him ineffective.

4. An overemphasis on evaluation as a bureaucratic dimension may militate against trust.

5. Styles and behaviours of supervisors incongruent with professional expectations may cause rifts between the supervisor and his professional colleagues.

Removing the Blocks to Effective Supervision of Professionals

How can these blocks be removed? If (through the evaluation process) the supervisor is to provide help to professionals he must make sure that:

1. Help is given by suggestion, advice, and consultation;

2. The method and content of help relates to the professional's own qualification;

3. The styles and behaviours of evaluation of performance are congruent with the professional's expectations;

4. His power is based on influence from personal competency rather than from a structured position;

5. The necessary evaluation is aimed at improvement. It avoids checklists and rating scales; rather, it is infused with humanistic practices.

The Job Content of Supervision and Evaluation

The job content of supervision and evaluation depends upon the nature of the service organization and situational factors. For professional teachers it would mean a focus on helping the teacher so that the child could be helped. In the school system supervision and evaluation of teacher performance would include:

1. Helping the teacher to accept the child where he is and developing him as far as possible in terms of his abilities, his needs, and interests.

   More specifically, it would mean helping teachers to analyze and evaluate:

   (a) the intellectual functioning of the student;
   (b) the student's achievement in various areas;
   (c) the personal-social adjustment of students.

2. Determining the goals of the school and classroom, and discovering the extent to which they are being met.

The process of supervision and evaluation of professional performance entails a model that includes, first of all, clarification of job content; secondly, the establishment of standards of excellence of performance for professional workers; thirdly, clear formulation of objectives; fourthly, the implementation of an action programme; and

fifthly, an assessment of what is being done for the purpose of formulation of future plans.

The Results Approach to Evaluation of Professional Personnel

Professionals, having set the job content and model for the evaluation of teaching performance, next proceed to measure the achievement of the objectives which have been set by the supervisor and his professional partners[6]. The setting of realistic objectives by the teacher is an extremely important part of the results approach to evaluation. Once the objectives have been set the emphasis is placed on what is accomplished and how the professional has grown. At the post-appraisal conference the professionals concentrate on what was attempted, how well the job is being done, and what can be done better[7].

The Post-Appraisal Conference

Most participants agree that discussing professional performance is a very important part of the entire process. Lewis describes this post-appraisal conference thus:

> The post-appraisal conference is a meeting between two or more individuals for the purpose of presenting and explaining essential information about job requirements, discussing and pooling ideas and arriving at recommendations for solving problems, setting objectives, developing action plans, and improving performances.

The conference is a two-way communications channel where mutual respect and trust can develop between the participants and both participants grow and develop. However, the success of the post-appraisal conference will depend to a large extent upon having well defined performance objectives set at the beginning. Some guidelines which should be considered in performance evaluation are:

1. The specific ants should be clearly delineated.

2. A standard of acceptable performance should be agreed on, and

3. The objectives should relate to overall goals and be consistent with the school's philosophy.

Supervisory and Evaluative Styles and Behaviours

Besides the setting of performance objectives the supervisory and evaluative styles used by those who have the responsibility to see that the goals of the organization are being met are also extremely important. Those supervisory styles and behaviours, which must be congruent with the professional expectations of those being helped, are briefly described below:

1. Providing Social Support and Involvement of Professionals

Essentially, providing social support means that the supervisor engages in a deliberate attempt to understand and support the psychological and social needs of professionals. The process of involvement refers to participation by professionals in all matters which affect the outcomes of their professional work.

The areas in which the supervisor provides social support to help professionals perform more effectively are:

(a) understanding and supporting psychological and social needs of professionals working in an environment of change. Supervisors help professionals to feel secure in the knowledge that they are indeed making a worthwhile contribution to society.

(b) accepting the feelings of others. The supervisor demonstrates this attitude when he listens to the opinions of his professional workers. With sympathetic understanding, the supervisor accepts the right of the professional to express both positive and negative views on the work of the organization in light of stated objectives.

(c) praising, encouraging, and putting one at ease. These helping techniques stress deserved praise rather than destructive criticism, encourage creativity rather than conformity, and result in relaxation rather than tension in the professional's working environment.

(d) developing a real interest in the welfare of those he is attempting to help. This genuine concern for fellow human beings is a necessary attribute of the effective supervisor in helping to evaluate performance of professional colleagues.

(e) displaying integrity. This will likely result in a feeling of confidence and trust, a necessary condition for all professionals who are engaged in providing service to society.

(f) developing a "we" feeling. This provides an atmosphere of cooperation among professionals, and utilizes the talents and contributions of all members to achieve the goals of the organization.

Professionals want to be involved in every aspect of the organization which affects their work. In the evaluation of professionals and personnel it is imperative that professionals become involved in:

(a) making use of research and new knowledge to enable them to choose among alternative ways to find the best solution to client problems.

(b) evaluating the work of the institution to determine if the organizational goals are being achieved.

(c) participating in decision making in the area of their special competence.

(d) determining how they are to be helped and evaluated so that the help given is compatible with their needs and contributes to the improvement of their performance. (e) planning to achieve the objectives of the organization.

2. Personal and Institutional Growth Process

In evaluating professional performance it is necessary to provide an enabling environment so that both the individual may grow and the organization improve. The basic elements of the personal and institutional growth process are:

(a) helping the professional to make the widest use of talents and ideas. By motivating professionals to achieve the best possible results, the organization is helped to achieve its goals.

(b) permitting the questioning of accepted practices and routines. Evaluating what is happening in the organization allows the professional to critically analyse those parts which need to be improved or changed. The questioning leads to personal professional growth which results in growth and improvement in the institution.

(c) helping identify organizational goals and clients' needs. Inherent in this exercise is the need to set priorities so that the organizational goals and individual objectives are considered.

(d) helping understand the client's environment. Since the professional and the institution exist to serve clients' needs, an understanding of the environment which influences the fulfillment of these needs is necessary. The type of service offered will be adjusted to meet any special environmental conditions.

(e) clarifying and sharpening one's thinking. Professionals examine and analyse problem areas so that change, when it is needed, will be well thought out.

(f) helping to get released time for the purpose of self-improvement. The professional needs time to improve professionally. Released time may be of long or short duration, depending on the nature of the professional activity.

In the school setting the principal has the responsibility as a supervisor and evaluator to help the teachers in their personal, emotional, professional, and academic growth. Some activities for supervision and evaluation would include faculty meetings, in-service training, participation in curriculum studies, workshops for instructional development, and observation of other teachers in the school system.

Evaluation of teacher performance through the growth process provides continued opportunities for each teacher to grow in competence through proper recognition of his successes, to be stimulated to even greater accomplishments and thus maintain a continued high standard of efficiency. Such an evaluation provides a record of professional services and assurance to the public that the utmost care is being taken to obtain and retain the best teachers for the children of the community.

Continuous evaluation of professional personnel helps to ensure that teachers seek to improve and maintain excellence in teaching. Evaluation procedures should indicate to the teachers what is expected of them, how well they are doing and how they can improve. Procedures should be in keeping with the educational philosophy and curriculum emphasis decided upon by the school board, as well as the needs of the individual teachers.

If evaluation is based upon a mutually accepted plan, follows morale building administrative procedures, and is supervisory centered, it should stimulate teachers to promote a better teacher-learning situation and lead to self-appraisal and improvement. The process of personal and institutional growth, accompanied by well defined objectives, will promote a vibrant organization high on the achievement of its goals.

3. Avoiding Bureaucratic Standardization

To effectively help and evaluate professionals, bureaucratic standardization must be avoided.

The most common organizational type, bureaucracies, are characterized by: (1) specialization, (2) hierarchical authority, (3) a system of rules and, (4) impersonality. Since these characteristics are not congruent with professional characteristics, the supervisor of professionals must avoid the following behaviours:

(a) telling professionals what to do and how to do it;
(b) applying inflexible rules and checking to see that they are rigidly followed;
(c) expecting professionals to follow the same plan of action;
(d) using rating scale to evaluate efficiency;
(e) administering tests to determine whether minimum standards have been met; and,
(f) acting in an impersonal manner.

Instead, the supervisor of professionals must encourage his colleagues to:

(a) be flexible in their methods and procedures;
(b) provide alternate methods to deal with uniqueness of clients' problems;
(c) exercise professional judgment and discretion when dealing with clients.

4. Providing Professional Leadership

In helping teachers and evaluating professional performance, the supervisor must provide leadership. According to research, the supervisor provides professional leadership iii evaluation of performance in a number of ways:

(a) he brings to the attention of his professional workers literature which is of value to them in achieving their objectives;
(b) the professional leader helps to make meetings of professional workers a valuable experience;
(c) the professional leader is always mindful of the expectations of professionals;
(d) the professional leader in evaluation helps his workers in upgrading their performance standards;
(e) the professional leader helps the worker understand the sources of important problems they are facing; and,
(f) the professional leader maximizes the different skills and abilities on his staff.

5. Evaluation of Professional Personnel as a Response to Societal Demands.

For service organizations like schools and hospitals, society provides the legal and social sanctions for professional practice. Society, in general, expects: (a) quality service, (b) improved knowledge and skills, (c) ethical codes of behaviour, (d) influence in the

improvement of services, (e) reasonable financial control, and (f) competent performance.

Professionals, in turn, respond to societal expectations by engaging in a process of evaluation that enhances their public image by improving the service that is offered to meet the needs of society.

To determine if the organizational and the personal goals are being met, the professional, with the help of supervisors, engages in evaluating himself, and thereby the institution, in terms of:

A. Professional growth.
B. Increasing knowledge.
C. Relationships with others.

Professionals, through the process of supervision and evaluation, endeavour to effectively and efficiently meet the goals of the organization.

Summary

This research paper on the supervision and evaluation of professional personnel has shown the characteristics and expectations of professionals, how they are socialized into their roles, the reasons why they should be supervised, the blocks and hindrances to supervision and evaluation, and how these blocks may be removed. Next, the paper has delineated the job content of supervision and evaluation, the results approach, the post-appraisal conference in the evaluation of professional performance and, finally, the supervisory styles and behaviours which must be used if personnel are to be helped in their professional growth.

One style in the process of supervision and evaluation has been particularly emphasized, viz. the "personal and institutional growth" style of behaviour, which maintains that after the job content and objectives have been established the most important activities of the supervisor include:

(a) helping the professional make the widest use of his talents and ideas;
(b) permitting and encouraging the questioning of accepted practices and routines;
(c) helping identify organizational goals and clients' needs;
(d) helping to understand the clients' environment; and,
(e) clarifying and sharpening the professionals' thinking about problems which confront them.

Notes

1. Parsons, Llewellyn; Bugden, Rita and Wakeham, Almena. **Supervision of Professional Personnel**. St. John's: Memorial University of Newfoundland, 1978.

2. This book of readings will be available in the Fall of 1979.

3. Lieberman, Myron. **Education as a Profession**. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1956, p. 57.

4. Corwin, Ronald G. **Staff Conflicts in the Public Schools**. Cooperative Research Project No. 2637 (Columbus, Ohio: Department of Sociology and Anthropology, Ohio State University, 1966), p. 43.

5. Parsons, Llewellyn; Bugden, Rita and Wakeham, Almena. 1976, pp. 10-13.

6. Egnatoff, John G. "A New Look at Evaluating Teacher Performance". **Education Canada**. Vol. XI, December, 1971, pp. 19-21.

7. Armstrong, Harold R. "Performance Evaluation". **The National Elementary School Principal**. Vol. LII, No. 5 (February, 1973), p. 52.

8. Lewis, James Jr. **Appraising Teacher Performance**. West Nyach, New York: Parker Publishing Co., Inc., 1973, p. 156.

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AN EXAMINATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEACHER QUALIFICATIONS AND STUDENT PERFORMANCE: SOME IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATION IN NEWFOUNDLAND

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Introduction

One of the most interesting and possibly significant pieces of information to be released by the Department of Education were the results of the Canadian Test of Basic Skills (CTBS), administered at the grade 4 and grade 8 levels to students in Newfoundland. In general, the test scores indicate that there is a great deal of variation in student performance within the province. That is, with certain exceptions, urban students tend to perform better than their rural counterparts.

Obviously, such differences could be accounted for in a variety of ways. Such factors as attitudes towards school, availability of necessary teaching equipment and facilities, the variety of cultural experiences available to students and socio-economic status, to mention only a few, might be some of the determining variables. At the same time, one of the principal inputs to education ought to be the qualifications of the teaching force. Intuitively, this appears to make sense. If teaching credentials do not matter, then why do we continue to insist on offering expensive, five-year teacher preparation programs?

The University of the State of New York Bureau of School Programs Evaluation (1973) presents some convincing evidence to support the argument that teacher qualifications do make a difference in both cognitive and noncognitive development of students. Table 1 represents a summary of what the research has to report on the relationship between a number of teacher-related variables and student performance.

In 75% of the studies cited, there was a positive relationship between teacher qualifications and student performance in the cognitive area. Even more revealing was the fact that in 100% of the studies reviewed, a significant positive relationship existed between teacher qualifications and student performance in the non-cognitive areas. The authors conclude:

> In 83% of studies which examined this relationship, it was found that the more highly educated the teacher was, the more impressive was student performance. All of the studies which examined noncognitive output support this finding. In studies of cognitive output, 75% supported the conclusion. While administrators will certainly want to assess a broad range of factors which contribute to a teacher's effectiveness, this group of studies suggests that, other things being equal, there is evidence to support policies such as seeking highly educated applicants to fill new teaching positions, developing salary schedules which provide greater monetary rewards to teachers holding advanced degrees, and providing encouragement to teachers who are working toward advanced degrees.
>
> (School Programs Evaluation, 1973: 11)

Table 1

Percent of Studies in Which Teacher-Related Factors Were Found Significant And the Number of Studies in Which They Were Used.[I]

Variables Examined	Type of Study		
	All Studies	Cognitive Outcomes	Non-Cognitive Outcomes
Level of Teachers' Education	83% (12)	75% (6)	100% (3)
Teachers' Experience	57% (23)	43% (14)	75% (8)
Teacher Socio-economic Status of Verbal Ability	100% (6)	100% (4)	100% (2)
Class Size	37% (19)	42% (12)	0% (4)
(School Programs Evaluation, 1973: 10)			

Recognizing that social science is built on the weight of evidence rather than on any individual study, the possibility always existed that this relationship would not hold for Newfoundland. With the publication of the CTBS results, a more or less universal measure was now available to check this out. The purpose of the study was an examination of the relationship between teacher qualifications in the district and student performance and to consider some of its implications for education in Newfoundland.

Methodology

This relationship was determined by computation of rank order correlations between teacher qualifications, on the one hand, and student performance on the CTBS at the grades 4 and 8 levels, on the other. Teacher qualifications were summarized through the use of the Mean Certification Index (MCI). [Ponder, 1975].

The scale incorporates the principles of the Arithmetic Mean for grouped data which is, of course, a weighted average for all teachers and administrators below the superintendent, for each school board (Garrett, 1965). It involves the assignment of numerical values to the various levels of certification. The Province of Newfoundland categorizes the qualifications of its teachers into seven discrete levels (equivalent to years of university training including education degrees beyond Grade XI). For purposes of the index, Certificate I is assigned a value of +1, Certificate II, +2, and so on up to Certificate VII which has a value of +7. Temporary licenses A, B, P, and D are assigned an arbitrary value of 0. It is essentially an interval scale (Senter, 1969), in that a Certificate VI holder could hardly be considered twice as qualified as a Certificate II I holder, or three times as qualified as a Certificate II holder. Rather the argument, that in terms of qualifications, VII> VI > V>IV>III>II>I>licenses A, B, P, and D, appears to hold. Further the scale, with the exception of its extremes, is equal interval.2 Equal numbers

of credits obtained elevate teachers from Certificate I to Certificate II or from Certificate V to Certificate VI. The question of what value to assign licenses has been more arbitrary. Historically, license holders have tended to be "lesser" educated members of the teaching force. Although this may not be strictly true today, they do not qualify for professional certification, i.e., have not undergone the professional component of teacher preparation. Thus, the Scale has an arbitrary zero point.

Perhaps an example will serve to illustrate. Table 2 represents a breakdown of the teaching personnel and administrators of two hypothetical school boards by licenses and certificates held.

A similar computation could be made for Board B. Any difference in MCI should reflect a difference in the overall qualifications of teachers between the two boards. In this example, 3.69 is computed for Board A and 4.53 for Board B. Differences in the overall qualifications of teachers appear obvious.

The CTBS are a test battery designed to measure performance in vocabulary, reading, language skills (spelling, punctuation, capitalization and usage), work study skills (maps, graphs, and references), and maths skills (concepts and problems). These yield test totals, sub-totals and a composite score reflecting overall performance on the test. For the purposes of this study, student performance was measured by the mean grade equivalent composite score for all students within the board at both the grade four and grade eight levels.

Newfoundland is composed of thirty-six public, denominational school boards including Integrated, Roman Catholic, Pentecostal and Seventh Day Adventist boards.3 The unit of comparison was, therefore, individual school boards.

MCIs for each board and mean composite scores at both the grade four and grade eight levels were ranked. These are summarized in Table 3.

Rank-order correlations were then computed between MCIs for all boards and mean grade equivalent composite scores on the CTBS for both grade 4 and grade 8.

Some may argue that overall qualifications of teachers within a board is too global a measure when dealing with student performance at specific levels. This author maintains that the interaction of highly qualified personnel is more likely to produce an atmosphere which generates a higher standard of student performance, not only through direct interaction between more qualified teachers and students, but indirectly through such things as enlightened administration, exchange of methodologies, etc. Thus, highly qualified personnel seems to produce at least an additive function and in some instances a multiplicative one.

Table 2

Mean Certification Value Assigned to Various Levels of Certificates and Licenses For Computation of the Mean Certification Index

	Certificates							Licenses	Total No. of Teachers
	VII	V I	V	IV	III	II	I		
Board A	7	22	51	49	46	52	9	3	239
Assigned Values	7	6	5	4	3	2	+ I	0	
Board B	74	172	227	225	113	65	16	7	899

The formula for the computation of the NCI for Board A then becomes:

$$NCI = \frac{f(VII) + f(VI) + f(V) + f(VT) + f(I11) + f(II) + f(I)}{\text{Total number of Teachers and Administrators in Board}}$$

$$= \frac{(7x7) + (22x6) + (51x5) + (49x4) + (48x3) + (52x2) + (8x1)}{7+22+ 51+49+46+52+9+3}$$

$$= \frac{833}{239} \times 1.69$$

Results and Discussion

A high positive correlation existed between teacher qualifications and composite scores on the CTBS. At the grade four level, the rank order correlation was +.79, $p < .01$, $df = 31$, accounting for 62% of the variance. For grade eight, the correlation was +.73, $p < .01$, $df = 33$, once again accounting for 53% of the variance.

Although the figures appear impressive, the readers must necessarily be cautious in their interpretation. Correlation in no way demonstrates causality.

> A second common interpretational error associated with correlation relates to the confusion of correlation and causation. Although variables that bear a "cause and effect" relationship to each other certainly will be expected to be correlated, the fact that two variables are correlated can never be used as evidence that a cause and effect relationship exists.
>
> (Senter, 1969: 436)

For example, it is also possible that less qualified teachers may seek or are forced to seek positions in areas where student performance tends to be lower. Thus, some confusion arises as to which is "cause" and which is "effect."

Similarly, the author recognizes that teacher qualifications is not the only important variable. Studies by Parsons and Parsons (1976), Parsons (1975), Parsons and Senior (1975), and Parsons and Singh (1974), have identified a number of other determining

variables in their studies of the career aspirations of Grade XI students in Newfoundland. Nevertheless, based on evidence elsewhere and the results of this particular study, it would be both presumptive and naive to ignore teacher qualifications as one of the important inputs to education.

The results of this study suggest that there is something less than equal educational opportunity in Newfoundland. Teachers are paid directly by the government. As a consequence, boards are permitted to hire the most qualified teachers available to them. Given the differential qualifications of teachers within the province, it appears that some boards are more successful than others in attracting and retaining the most qualified personnel. For example, the mean difference in qualifications (MCI) between Labrador West (ranked number 1) and Bay St. George (ranked number 30) is approximately 1'/2 years of post-secondary education. Given the close relationship between qualifications and performance, it may then be concluded that students in certain boards may be receiving a relatively inferior education compared to their peers in other systems.

A second aspect of the question is financial. Since teachers' salaries represent some sixty percent of the educational budget, any imbalance in overall teacher qualifications suggests a similar imbalance in educational expenditures. That is, the proportion of money expended would presumably be higher in boards where teachers tend to be more qualified. This is not to suggest that qualifications are the only variable in the equation, for clearly another, years of experience, would have to be included. However, it would be difficult to argue that highly qualified teachers do not tend to be more expensive than their less qualified colleagues.

What sorts of remedial schemes might be undertaken to attempt to facilitate equal educational opportunity. Clearly the MCI for any board is determined by a number of factors, two of which must be the attractiveness of the area to teachers and the opportunity for (availability of) upgrading. With respect to the former, the general attractiveness of any given area appears unlikely to change substantially. Consequently, some sort of extrinsic reward system may be necessary. One is a bonus to attract better qualified teachers to less attractive areas Another possibility is introduction of the concept of "country service," popular in New Zealand. Simply stated, beginning teachers (many of whom are well qualified) may be required to serve an initial period in areas where there is a shortage of more qualified teachers. The duration of such a term could be determined by need. (This should be undertaken with some caution as the effects of forcing teachers to go where they prefer not to is well documented.)

Table 3[4]

Comparative Rankings of Teacher Qualifications and Composite Scores on the Canadian Test of Basic Skills for Grades 4 and 8 (Actual NCIs and Mean Grade Equivalent Composite Scores Appear in Parentheses)

Board Name	Religion Denomination	NCI Rank	CTBS Rank	
			Grade A	Grade B
Labrador West	Int.	1 (4.91)	4 (40.3)	2 (83.8)
Avalon Consolidated	Int.	2 (4.66)	1 (43.0)	1 (86.9)
St. John's	R.C.	3 (4.56)	3 (40.5)	3 (82.9)
Conception Bay South	Int.	4 (4.49)	2 (42.3)	7 (81.1)
Exploits Valley	Int.	5 (4.43)	16 (37.0)	12 (79.8)
Ferryland	R.C.	6 (4.28)	7 (39.2)	10 (80.1)
Conception Bay Centre	R.C.	7 (4.22)	-	9 (80.2)
Conception Bay North	R.C.	8 (4.21)	-	23 (77.0)
Avalon North	Int.	9 (4.19)	13 (37.8)	11 (80.0)
Labrador	R.C.	10 (4.18)	6 (39.6)	4 (82.8)
Terra Nova	Int.	11 (4.14)	11 (38.2)	21 (77.4)
Notre Dame	Int.	12 (4.08)	18 (36.5)	13 (79.1)
Bay of Islands-St. Georges	Int.	13 (4.06)	4 (40.3)	6 (81.7)
Bonavista-Trinity-Placentia	Int.	14 (3.93)	12 (37.9)	25 (76.9)
Seventh Day Adventist	S.B.A.	15 (3.96)	--	5 (32.7)
Gander Bonavista	R.C.	16 (3.89)	8 (38.8)	18 (80.4)
Cape Freels	Int.	16 (3.89)	21 (36.3)	33 (73.9)
Exploits-White Bay	R.C.	18 (3.86)	9 (38.6)	8 (80.4)
Burin Peninsula	Int.	18 (3.86)	23 (35.1)	14 (78.5)
Humber-St. Barbe	R.C.	20 (3.81)	10 (38.4)	15 (73.0)
Placentia E.-St. Mary's	R.C.	21 (3.74)	13 (37.8)	22 (77.1)
Deer Lake	Int.	22 (3.69)	27 (35.7)	23 (77.0)
Green Bay	Int.	23 (3.63)	25 (35.3)	32 (74.8)
Channel-Port-aux-Basques	Int.	24 (3.59)	25 (35.8)	15 (78.0)
Burgeo	Int.	25 (3.58)	24 (35.9)	30 (76.0)
Burin Peninsula	R.C.	26 (3.56)	20 (36.4)	18 (77.9)
St. Barbe South	Int.	27 (3.51)	31 (33.4)	34 (73.6)
Vinland	Int.	28 (3.49)	23 (36.0)	27 (76.3)
Labrador East	Int.	29 (3.44)	17 (36.7)	28 (76.2)
Port au Port	R.C.	30 (3.39)	18 (35.5)	15 (78.0)
Bay St. George	R.C.	31 (3.30)	15. (34.7)	28 (76.2)
Straits of Belle Isle	Int.	32 (3.2.9)	32 (39.7)	35 (70.8)
Pentecostal Board	Pent.	33 (3.28)	21 (36.3)	26 (76.7)
Baie D'Espoir	Int.	33 (3.28)	30 (34.3)	31 (75.7)
Ramea	Int.	35 (3.26)	29 (34.6)	20 (77.8)
Bide Arm	Comm.	36 (3.00)	33 (30.3)	-

The lack of opportunity to upgrade presents a somewhat different problem. For example, of the top six boards in terms of teacher qualifications, four are within driving distance of Memorial University. (These same boards rank first, second, third, and seventh in performance at the grade 4 level.) Obviously, a part of this may be attributed to the relative attractiveness of the area. Unfortunately, no teacher preference data is available to support this hypothesis. At the same time, the accessibility of Memorial University may also be a significant factor. For example, students with access to Memorial may undertake courses in both the late afternoon or at night. Since 41% of the

teachers in the province hold Certificate V or better (equivalent to five years university education), the availability of graduate courses takes on added importance. For the most part, these courses are available principally to those within driving distance of the University. In addition, the expertise, advice and equipment, such as computer facilities, needed for graduate research rest at Memorial. At the present time, the Extension Department offers courses in some 37 locations. It appears that many of these courses apply to lower levels of certification rather than at the graduate level where the need is apparently increasing.

Perhaps the time has arrived to consider other alternatives. For example, graduate courses might be offered at various centres around the province where appropriate library facilities could be built up. Thus, it could provide graduate studies for those who need them, in an other than summer school setting, and make available some research expertise for those trying to operate away from the University.

Still another possibility is a system, subsidized by the government, to allow teachers in areas with a lower MCI to upgrade, i.e., through paid leaves. Perhaps a provision to return to service in the area would be the quid pro quo.

Despite some difficulties brought about by teacher tenure, either of the previous suggestions, if implemented, could help to reduce discrepancies in teacher qualifications between boards in Newfoundland. At the same time, it must be recognized that approximately equal MCI for all boards will not bring about equal opportunity. For example, social conditions may be such that additional inputs would be required to make the performance indices for all boards relatively equal throughout the province. However, until the nature and amounts of these inputs has been determined, equal MCI appears to be a reasonable intermediate target.

The Mean Certification Index may be considered a "gross" measure of educational input. Clearly it ignores such questions as "How do boards utilize their most qualified personnel?" e.g., in administration, as specialists or how? This author acknowledges that there may be some optimal "mix or mixes" of personnel for maximization of output but is unable to say what they might be. Similarly, the potential positive effects of in-service education have been ignored. This has been done simply because, at present, in-service work is not recognized for certification purposes. This is not to imply that is of no value in increasing teacher effectiveness.

This study has amply demonstrated three things. First, the strong relationship in Newfoundland, as elsewhere, between teacher qualifications and student performance has been established. Secondly, teacher qualification data suggests an imbalance in the distribution of highly qualified teachers throughout the province. Finally, this obviously underscores the imbalance in educational expenditures in the province. What remedial action can or will be undertaken will obviously depend on the attitudes of both provincial authorities and board officials. Upgrading schemes, subsidized or not, require time. However, it should be pointed out that of the many variables which might contribute to student performance, teacher qualifications probably constitute one of the easiest to manipulate.

NOTES

1. The number of times a variable was used does not necessarily equal the sum of the cognitive and non-cognitive areas in every case. The differences result largely from the omission of certain studies in which variables were not readily classified as cognitive or non-cognitive.

2. For elevation to Certificate VII, the requirements are not the same as elevation to Certificate VI. In the former case, either a thesis or courses and a comprehensive exam are involved. In the latter, only course credits are generally necessary. Similarly, qualifications for the various licenses are not necessarily obtained by a set number of credits.

3. A separate board also exists in Bide Arm called a Community School. Only two or three teachers and a handful of students are involved, thus it could not be considered a major denomination.

4. Certain boards did not write CTBS at either the grade 4 and grade 8 levels. As a consequence, MCIs had to be re-ranked to correct for these shortages.

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AN ANALYSIS OF NEWFOUNDLAND AND LABRADOR TEACHERS' QUALIFICATIONS AND "EDUCATIONAL EFFORT"

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Introduction

One of the dilemmas facing educational planners is how to assess educational inputs within any given school district. That is, individual school districts may choose or be forced owing to, for example, supply and demand factors to differentially select and implement staffing patterns. Given the teachers available to it, one board may concentrate its highly qualified personnel in administration and central office personnel. Another may feel that, with what is available, the upper high school years are the most critical, and concentrate the most qualified personnel here. At the same time, other mediating factors may be operative. The possibility always exists that certain boards, for a variety of possible reasons, may be more successful at attracting and retaining highly qualified personnel. Thus it must be recognized that certain boards may have a pool of more qualified teachers from which to draw than do other boards. In an age when most governments pay, at least, lip service to the concept of equal educational opportunity, it becomes ever more important to be able to evaluate educational inputs, in this instance overall teacher qualifications within a given area. It must be recognized, of course, that this represents only one of the inputs to education.

The relationship between teacher qualifications and student performance is well documented, both in Newfoundland and Labrador and elsewhere. Ponder (1977) found correlations of .79 and .73 between levels of teacher certification and mean-grade equivalent composite scores for students at the Grade 4 and Grade 8 levels on the Canadian Tests of Basic Skills in the school boards of Newfoundland and Labrador. Similar results have been obtained elsewhere. Table I represents a summary of what research has to report on the relationship between a number of teacher-related variables and student performance.

In 75% of the studies there was a positive relationship between teacher qualifications and student performance in the cognitive area. Even more revealing is the fact that in 100% of the studies reviewed, a significant, positive relationship existed between teacher qualifications and student performance in non-cognitive areas. The authors conclude:

> "In 83% of studies which examined this relationship, it was found that the more highly educated the teacher was, the more impressive was student performance. All of the studies which examined noncognitive output support this finding. In studies of cognitive output, 75 percent supported the conclusion. While administrators will certainly want to assess a broad range of factors which contribute to a teacher's effectiveness, this group of studies suggests that, other things being equal, there is evidence to support policies such as seeking highly educated applicants to fill new teaching positions, developing salary schedules which provide greater monetary rewards to teachers holding advanced degrees, and providing encouragement to teachers who are working toward advanced degrees."
>
> (School Programs Evaluation, 1973)

In the face of such evidence, it would be difficult to dispute that teacher qualifications are, at least, one of the important inputs to education.

Earlier it was suggested that the chance continues to exist that some boards may be more successful than others in attracting and retaining more qualified personnel. The study which follows determines the levels of teacher qualifications in Newfoundland and Labrador and their distribution in the thirty-six boards throughout the Province.

However, present levels of certification represent only one aspect of any examination of teacher qualifications. In a previous report (Ponder, 1975) the author incurred considerable criticisms that present levels of certification do not reflect "educational effort" which certain boards or teachers in their employ may have made. For example, a board which has traditionally employed teachers with lower qualifications may have made substantial advances in either employing more qualified teachers or having the teachers in its employ upgrade. Thus, even though present levels of qualifications remain substantially lower (vis-a-vis the top boards), the improvement may be considerable. In fact, the gap may have been lessened a significant degree. Thus, two measures which would reflect this effort have been included in the study. These are an absolute increase in teacher qualifications (representing the average increase in teacher qualifications over the period of time under study) and the percentage increase in qualifications calculated on a base year. Finally, it may be of some considerable interest to senior administrators to see how the qualifications of teachers in their particular boards have improved relative to other boards within the Province. As a consequence, a comparison of present rankings with rankings in a base year have also been included.

The Mean Certification Index

The Province of Newfoundland categorizes the qualifications of its teachers into seven discrete levels, not including temporary licences. The problem then arises as to how to assess overall teacher qualifications, i.e., for a whole district, a number of districts, or a whole province, in terms of the qualifications of the individual teachers within the area under consideration. For example, Table 2 represents a breakdown of two hypothetical school boards by licences and certificates of its teaching personnel.

How could anyone assess overall educational qualifications of district (Board) A, as opposed to district (Board) B in terms of the qualifications of the individual teachers within each board? Clearly the task is an onerous one. For with varying numbers of teachers in each certification category and different total numbers of teachers within each board, the task becomes mind "boggling". One approach to this problem is the utilization of the Mean Certification Index, an interval scale which the author maintains reflects differences in overall teacher qualifications and facilitates comparisons between boards (such as the above), between schools, for the whole province over time and practically an infinite number of other possible comparisons.

The scale incorporates the principles of the Arithmetic Mean for grouped data which is, of course, a weighted average. (Garrett, 1965) It involves the assignment of numerical values to the various levels of certification. In this instance, Certificate I is assigned a value of +1, Certificate 11, +2, and so on up to Certificate VII which has a value of +7. Temporary licences A, B, P and D are assigned an arbitrary value of 0. It is essentially an interval scale (Senter, 1969), in that a Certificate VI holder could hardly be considered twice as qualified as a Certificate III holder or three times as qualified as a

Certificate II holder. Rather the argument, that in terms of qualifications, VII VI V IV III II I licences A, B, P, or D, appears to hold. Further, the scale, with the exception of its extremes, is equal interval. Equal numbers of credits obtained elevate teachers from Certificate I to Certificate 11 or from Certificate IV to Certificate V. The question of what value to assign licences remains open. Historically, licence holders have tended to be lesser "educated" members of the teaching force. Although this may not be strictly true today, they do not qualify for professional certification, i.e., have not undergone the professional component of teacher preparation. Thus, the scale has an arbitrary zero point.

Returning to the previous example, licence holders would be assigned a value of 0 and certificate holders values of +1 up to and including +7, depending on the level of certificate held. (See Table 3)

A similar computation could be made for Board B. Any difference in MCI should reflect a difference in the overall qualifications of teachers between the two boards. In this example, 3.69 is computed for Board A and 4.53 for Board B. The results of such a comparison appear obvious. A number of objections may be raised concerning attempts to quantify overall teacher certification. (See Hempel, 1966 and Rudner, 1966) Although a number of counter arguments could be raised, it is not the purpose of this paper to enter into philosophical debate. Rather, this author believes the use of MCI can be justified on more pragmatic grounds. If it works, use it.

TABLE I

Percent of Studies in which Teacher-Related Factors were Found Significant and the Number of Studies in which They were Used

Variables Examined	Type of Study		
	All Studies	Cognitive Outcomes	Non-Cognitive Outcomes
Level of Teachers' Education	83% (12)	75% (6)	100% (3)
Teacher Experience	57% (23)	43% (14)	75% (8)
Teacher Socio-Economic Status or Verbal Ability	100% (6)	100% (4)	100% (2)
Class Size	37% (19)	42% (12)	0% (4)

(School Programs Evaluation, 1973)

TABLE II

Certificates and Licences of Teachers in Two Hypothetical Newfoundland School Boards

Certificates								Licences	Total No. of Teachers
	VII	VI	V	IV	III	II	I	A, B, P, or D	
Board A	7	22	51	49	46	52	9	3	239
Board B	74	172	227	225	113	65	16	7	899

TABLE III

Mean Certification Value Assigned to Various Levels of Certificates and Licences for Computation of Mean Certification Index

Certificates								Licences	Total No. of Teachers
	VII	VI	V	IV	III	II	I		
Board A	7	22	51	49	46	52	9	3	239
Assigned Values	+7	+6	+5	+4	+3	+2	+1	6	
Board B	74	172	227	225	113	65	16	7	899

The formula for the computation of the MCI for Board A then becomes:

$$MCI = \frac{f(VII) + f(VI) + f(V) + f(IV) + f(III) + f(II) + f(I)}{\text{Total Number of Teachers in Board}}$$

$$= \frac{(7x7) + (22x6) + (5lx5) + (49x4) + (46x3) + (52x2) + (9x1)}{7+22+ 51+49+46+52+9+3}$$

$$= \frac{883}{239} = 3.69$$

TABLE IV

Mean Certification Index for School Boards for the Year 1976-1977

Board Name	Religion	VII	VI	V	IV	III	II	I	A, B, P, D	Total	M.C.I.	Rank
Labrador West	Int.	9	15	29	28	5	0	0	0	86	4.95	1
St. John's	R.C.	89	213	262	213	73	41	7	1	899	4.87	2
Avalon	Int.	78	139	157	128	42	43	12	0	599	4.85	3
Conception Bay South	Int.	14	23	33	37	9	6	1	0	123	4.79	4
Labrador	R.C.	14	35	55	30	12	14	2	2	164	4.69	5
Exploits Valley	Int.	20	59	91	73	35	14	3	0	295	4.67	6
Seventh Day Adventist	S.D.A.	1	4	5	9	4	0	0	0	23	4.53	7
Ferryland	R.C.	6	18	39	39	24	0	1	0	127	4.52	8
Conception Bay Centre	R.C.	3	19	26	27	15	4	1	0	95	4.50	9
Ramea	Int.	6	2	5	6	4	2	2	0	27	4.49	10
Conception Bay North	R.C.	6	18	43	38	15	7	2	0	129	4.49	11
Avalon North	Int.	33	97	118	128	52	44	13	0	485	4.48	12
Terra Nova	Int.	25	72	94	97	43	55	7	0	393	4.36	13
Bay of Islands-St. Georges	Int.	17	81	84	76	45	43	16	1	363	4.32	14
Notre Dame	Int.	5	41	62	40	32	27	4	0	211	4.29	15
Port au Port	R.C.	11	27	62	51	52	8	7	0	218	4.28	16
Burin Peninsula	Int.	10	25	54	52	21	22	8	0	192	4.24	17
Bonavista-Trinity-Placentia	Int.	12	48	92	90	51	27	15	0	335	4.23	18
Gander-Bonavista	R.C.	5	18	30	33	21	15	1	0	123	4.22	19
Exploits-White Bay	R.C.	8	34	57	43	33	23	9	0	207	4.21	20
Cape Freels	Int.	3	14	27	23	11	14	4	0	96	4.14	21
Deer Lake	Int.	4	21	38	46	16	18	7	0	150	4.13	22
Burgeo	Int.	2	2	8	13	4	4	1	0	34	4.09	23
Placentia East-St. Mary's	R.C.	5	31	46	56	62	28	3	0	231	3.99	24
Humber-St. Barbe	R.C.	7	39	94	77	55	42	19	2	335	3.97	25
Green Bay	Int.	6	27	50	38	32	26	14	2	195	3.94	26
Channel-Port aux Basques	Int.	2	18	29	40	24	20	7	0	140	3.90	27
St. Barbe South	Int.	2	11	26	23	17	10	9	0	98	3.90	28
Pentecostal	Pent.	18	31	50	63	42	54	16	3	277	3.85	29
Vinland	Int.	4	8	18	21	22	15	3	0	91	3.84	30
Burin Peninsula	R.C.	4	23	52	55	36	42	8	2	222	3.82	31
Straits of Belle Isle	Int.	2	7	34	32	22	13	7	2	119	3.81	32
Bay St. George	R.C.	2	22	31	27	21	21	17	0	141	3.77	33
Bay D'Espoir	Int.	3	7	20	40	23	20	2	1	116	3.75	34
Labrador East	Int.	2	5	42	54	28	23	11	1	166	3.69	35
Bide Arm	C.S.	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	2	2.50	36

Int. = Integrated
R.C. = Roman Catholic
S.D.A. = Seventh Day Adventist
Pent. = Pentecostal Assemblies
C.S. = Community School

TABLE V

Absolute Increases in Teacher Qualifications by Board

Board No.	Name	MCI (70-71)	MCI (76-77)	Absolute Increase	Rank
127	Ramea	1.63	4.49	2.86	1
512	Port au Port-Port au Port West	1.82	4.28	2.47	2
116	St. Barbe South	1.72	3.90	2.19	3
503	Conception Bay Centre	2.35	4.50	2.16	4
113	Bay D'Espoir	1.60	3.75	2.16	5
102	Straits of Belle Isle	1.67	3.81	2.15	6
126	Burgeo	2.04	4.09	2.05	7
504	Conception Bay North	2.45	4.49	2.04	8
103	Deer Lake	2.11	4.13	2.03	9
114	Channel-Port aux Basques	1.95	3.90	1.96	10
502	Burin Peninsula R.C.	1.88	3.82	1.94	11
201	Pentecostal	1.92	3.85	1.93	12
112	Burin Peninsula Int.	2.32	4.24	1.93	13
506	Exploits-White Bay	2.29	4.21	1.92	14
109	Bonavista-Trinity-Placentia	2.32	4.23	1.91	15
511	Placentia East-St. Mary's	2.09	3.99	1.91	16
501	Bay St. George	1.90	3.77	1.87	17
507	Ferryland	2.71	4.52	1.82	18
508	Gander-Bonavista	2.42	4.22	1.81	19
101	Vinland	2.11	3.84	1.74	20
105	Exploits Valley	2.96	4.67	1.72	21
106	Notre Dame	2.64	4.29	1.66	22
108	Cape Freels	2.51	4.14	1.64	23
514	St. John's	3.25	4.87	1.62	24
115	Bay of Islands-St. Georges	2.71	4.32	1.62	25
509	Humber-St. Barbe	2.37	3.97	1.61	26
510	Labrador	3.16	4.69	1.54	27
301	Seventh Day Adventist	3.00	4.53	1.53	28
401	Bide Arm Community School	1.00*	2.50	1.50	29
110	Avalon North	2.98	4.48	1.50	30
107	Terra Nova	2.87	4.36	1.49	31
129	Conception Bay South	3.41	4.79	1.39	32
104	Green Bay	2.66	3.94	1.29	33
118	Labrador West	3.69	4.95	1.26	34
111	Avalon	3.71	4.85	1.14	35
117	Labrador East	2.62	3.69	1.07	36

*Absolute increase was calculated on the base year 1971-72, the first year of the Board's operation.

TABLE VI

Percentage Increases in Teacher Qualifications by Board

Board No.	Name	MCI (70-71)	MCI (76-77)	Percentage Increase	Rank
127	Ramea	1.63	4.49	275.79	1
401	Bide Arm Community School	1.00*	2.50	250.00	2
512	Port au Port-Port au Port West	1.82	4.28	235.76	3
113	Bay D'Espoir	1.60	3.75	235.26	4
102	Straits of Belle Isle	1.67	3.81	229.03	5
116	St. Bathe South	1.72	1.90	226.97	6
502	Burin Peninsula R.C.	1.88	1.82	203.69	7
126	Burgeo	2.04	4.09	200.41	8
114	Channel-Port aux Basques	1.95	3.40	200.28	9
201	Pentecostal	1.92	1.85	200.26	10
501	Bay St. George	1.90	3.77	198.61	11
103	Deer Lake	2.11	4.13	196.02	12
503	Conception Bay Centre	2.35	4.50	191.97	13
511	Placentia East-St. Mary's	2.09	1.99	191.36	14
506	Exploits-White Bay	2.29	4.21	183.93	15
112	Burin Peninsula Int.	2.12	4.24	183.15	16
504	Conception Bay North	2.45	4.49	183.08	17
109	Bonavista-Trinity-Placentia	2.32	4.23	182.62	18
101	Vinland	2.11	1.84	182.23	19
508	Gander-Bonavista	2.42	4.22	175.00	20
509	Humber-St. Barbe	2.37	1.97	167.85	21
507	Ferryland	2.71	4.52	167.04	22
108	Cape Freels	2.51	4.14	165.07	23
106	Notre Dame	2.64	4.29	162.59	24
115	Bay of Islands-St. Georges	2.71	4.32	159.57	25
105	Exploits Valley	2.96	4.67	158.15	26
107	Terra Nova	2.87	4.36	151.99	27
301	Seventh Day Adventist	3.00	4.53	150.73	28
110	Avalon North	2.98	4.48	150.32	29
514	St. John's	3.25	4.87	149.74	30
510	Labrador	1.16	4.69	148.55	31
104	Green Bay	2.66	3.94	148.45	32
129	Conception Bay South	3.41	4.79	140.76	33
117	Labrador East	2.62	3.69	140.67	34
118	Labrador West	3.69	4.95	134.17	35
111	Avalon	3.71	4.85	130.60	36

* Percentage increase was calculated on the. base year 1971-72, the first year of the Board's operation.

TABLE VII

Positional Change in MCI Ranking from Base Year 1970-71

Board Name	Religion	MCI (76-77)	Rank	MCI (70-71)	Rank	Change in Rank + or -
Ramea	Int.	4.49	10	1.63	34	24
Port au Port	R.C.	4.28	16	1.82	31	+15
Conception Bay Centre	R.C.	4.50	9	2.35	19	+10
Conception Bay North	R.C.	4.49	11	2.45	16	+5
St. Barbe South	Int.	3.90	28	1.72	32	+4
Burin Peninsula	Int.	4.24	17	2.32	20	+3
Bonavista-Trinity-Placentia	Int.	4.23	18	2.32	21	+3
Burgeo	Int.	4.09	23	2.04	26	+3
St. John's	R.C.	4.87	2	3.25	4	+2
Exploits Valley	Int.	4.67	6	2.96	8	+2
Ferryland	R.C.	4.52	8	2.71	10	+2
Exploits-White Bay	R.C.	4.21	20	2.29	22	+2
Labrador West	Int.	4.95	1	3.69	2	+1
Deer Lake	Int.	4.13	22	2.11	23	+1
Placentia East-St. Mary's	R.C.	3.99	24	2.09	25	+1
Straits of Belle Isle	Int.	3.81	32	1.67	33	+1
Bay D'Espoir	Int.	3.75	34	1/60	35	+1
Labrador	R.C.	4.69	5	3.16	5	0
Channel-Port aux Basques	Int.	3.90	27	1.95	27	0
Bide Arm	C.S.	2.50	16	1.00*	36	0
Conception Bay South	Int.	4.39	4	1.41	3	-1
Seventh Day Adventist	S.B.A.	4.51	7	1.00	6	-1
Pentecostal Assemblies	Pent.	3.85	29	1.92	28	-1
Burin Peninsula	R.C.	3.82	11	1.88	30	-1
Avalon	Int.	4.85	3	3.71	1	-2
Notre Dame	Int.	4.29	15	2.64	13	-2
Gander-Bonavista	R.C.	4.22	19	2.42	17	-2
Bay of Islands-St. Georges	Int.	4.32	14	2.71	11	-3
Terra Nova	Int.	4.36	13	2.87	9	-4
Bay St. George	R.C.	3.77	33	1.90	29	-4
Avalon North	Int.	4.48	12	2.98	7	-5
Cape Freels	Int.	4.14	21	2.51	15	-6
Humber-St. Barbe	R.C.	3.97	25	2.37	18	-7
Green Bay	Int.	3.94	26	2.66	12	-14
Labrador East	Int.	3.69	35	2.62	14	-21

* 1971-72

Results and Discussion

Table IV presents mean certification indices for the 36 school boards in Newfoundland and Labrador. Of particular interest are columns 12 (MCI) and 13 (provincial ranking).

Clearly the MCI for any board is determined by a number of factors, two of which must be the attractiveness of the area to teachers and the availability of (opportunity to attend) upgrading facilities. With respect to the former, the general attractiveness of any given area appears unlikely to change substantially. Thus, education officials might consider some schemes to induce better qualified teachers to less attractive areas. (See Ponder, 1975).

The lack of opportunity to upgrade presents a somewhat different problem. Of the 12 top-ranked boards, 7 are located on the Avalon Peninsula. Obviously some of this may be due, at least in part, to the relative attractiveness of the area. Unfortunately, no preference data is available to support this hypothesis. At the same time, the accessibility of Memorial University may also be a significant factor. For example, students with access to Memorial may do courses both in the late afternoon or at night.

Since some 43% of the teachers in the Province hold Certificate V or better, the availability of graduate courses takes added importance. For the most part, these courses are available to those within driving distance of Memorial (this does not include Summer Session). Perhaps the time has come to consider alternatives to make graduate education available throughout the Province. (See Ponder, 1975)

Tables V and VI present indices of "educational effort". Table V shows the absolute increase in MCI from the base year to the present. The year 1970-71 was selected as the base year as it was the first year in which the boards in Newfoundland and Labrador were structured as they are today. It should be noted that many of the lower-ranked boards in terms of present MCI have still made significant gains in the qualifications of their teachers, in many instances reducing the gap between themselves and the higher-ranked boards. At the same time, another phenomenon appears operative. Once teachers reach the Certificate V level, the number who elect to continue upgrading is drastically reduced. Thus, some of the boards who rank high in terms of present MIC, rank low in terms of absolute increase in MCI.

Table VI presents the percentage increase in teacher qualifications compared to the base year 1970-71. This measure was included because boards which began with teachers with low qualifications may have increased in percentage terms, yet the absolute increase is relatively small. It should be pointed out that the phenomenon of diminishing upgrading at the Certificate V level is evident here as well.

Finally, some administrators and teachers may be interested in how the qualifications of teachers in certain boards have changed relative to their peers in other boards. Table VII compares the MCI ranking in the year 1970-71 with the MCI ranking today and indicates the change (+ or -) in the ranking over this period of time. It should be noted that, in general, the relative positions of boards have remained more or less stable. That is, with a certain few notable exceptions, boards tend to remain in approximately the same position in the hierarchy over time.

Summary and Conclusions

One of the most obvious discoveries of this study is the dramatic trend in the increase of teachers' qualifications in the period under study. Table VIII shows the increase in MCI for the Province from 2.66 in 1970-71 to 4.33 in 1976-77.

At the same time considerable discrepancies continue to exist between the top- and bottom-ranked boards. Given the close relationship between teacher qualifications and student performance, this should be of some concern to education officials. It must be recognized that approximately equal MCI for all boards does not constitute equal opportunity. For example, social conditions may be such that additional inputs would be required to bring the performance indices up to par with other sections of the Province. However, until such data is available, equal MCI appears a reasonable target. Education officials might do well to consider ways of bringing this about.

NOTES

1. The number of times a variable was used does not necessarily equal the same of the cognitive and non-cognitive areas in every case. The differences result largely from the omission of certain studies in which variables were not readily classified as cognitive or non-cognitive.

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TWO EXPERIMENTAL PROGRAMS AND THE PROFESSIONAL DISPOSITIONS OF STUDENT TEACHERS

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James R. Covert

During the past decade teacher education has experienced some dramatic shifts. The free school movement of the sixties emphasized learning through experience and thereby increased the credibility of practice teaching as a valid way of learning to become a teacher. This was closely followed by the back to basics movement which emphasized teacher competencies that ultimately depended on an in-service evaluation of teaching skills. Forces such as these have provided support for the practice teaching component of teacher education programs. As a result, the amount of time spent in practice teaching has rapidly expanded, often at the expense of other components of the educational program.

The practice teaching component of a teacher education program is intended to facilitate the shift from student to teacher by enhancing many of the skills and dispositions that teachers will eventually require in order to operate effectively in the classroom. There are certain methodological skills which may be practiced and perfected. There are also psychological and emotional experiences which may be tested and developed. In addition, it is argued here that there are certain dispositions towards the profession which should be enhanced as a result of practice teaching.

There has been some empirical research on the technical, emotional, and intellectual skills required by student teachers (13). But, there has been very little research on the dispositions towards the profession which have been acquired by student teachers. Yet, there are persuasive arguments that these types of dispositions (self-concept, motivation, and attitudes) have important effects on the performance of professionals. LeVine (5), for example, notes that an individual develops an enduring self-concept which monitors all of his behavior. McClelland (7) argues that motivation influences an individual's thought and action in many spheres of his life, particularly his occupational life. In a similar vein, numerous studies have noted the importance of attitudes in the actual performances of teachers (6, 10). Thus, this study assumes that student teachers with highly developed self-concepts, high motivation, and positive attitudes towards teaching are more professionally oriented and, as a result, they are likely to become better teachers in the future.

With this perspective in mind it maybe argued that an important task for a teacher education program is to produce students with the dispositions necessary to become professional teachers. Howard (4: 454), for example, argues that "a student needs to feel like a teacher before any of the professional course work content will have real meaning for him". Thus, the basic question addressed by this research is whether student teachers who complete extended practice teaching programs differ in self-concept, motivation, and attitudes towards teaching from a control group of student teachers who complete a two-week practice teaching program.

The Programs

There are four different practice teaching programs at Memorial University; a program with a two-week block of practice teaching, an internship program in St. John's,

an internship program in Harlow, England, and a professional semester program.. This study compares the dispositions of student teachers in three of these programs; the two-week block of practice teaching, the internship program in St. John's, and the internship program in Harlow. A previous study compared the dispositions of students in the professional semester with students in the two-week block of practice teaching. (2).

The majority of student teachers at Memorial University elected to enroll in the program which included the two-week block of practice teaching. These student teachers observed in a number of different classrooms during one-half day per week for a 13-week semester. Following the end of the academic year in April, each of the student teachers, from this program, spent two weeks in one classroom where he or she engaged in practice teaching. During this period, each student teacher worked closely with a cooperating teacher who was responsible for assisting the student teacher and evaluating his or her performance. Members of the Faculty of Education also assisted the student teachers and evaluated their teaching performance.

The student teachers who were enrolled in the two internship programs also received assistance and were evaluated by their cooperating teachers and members of the Faculty of Education. The major difference between these two programs and the two-week program was the amount of practice teaching. In both internship programs each student teacher was assigned to a cooperating teacher for a 13-week semester. During the semester the student teacher participated in school activities for four out of five days each week.

In terms of practice teaching, each student teacher in the two internship programs spent approximately 50 days in a classroom whereas each student teacher in the two-week block spent approximately 17 days in a classroom. That is, the interns had approximately three times as much practice teaching as the student teachers in the two-week block.

Related to this were several other differences between the programs. Interns had one seminar per week with faculty members discussing matters related to their practice teaching. There was no similar experience for the students in the two-week block. Moreover, interns typically had teaching responsibilities for seven of the thirteen weeks and would undoubtedly teach entire units, while the students in the two-week block program had similar opportunities for less than one week. There was also closer cooperation between faculty members, cooperating teachers, and student teachers in the internship programs.

The major differences between the two internship programs was that the student teachers enrolled at the St. John's campus engaged in practice teaching in the Newfoundland setting whereas the student teachers enrolled at the Harlow campus engaged in practice teaching in the English setting. Memorial University has a small residential college in Harlow where groups of student teachers engage in practice teaching in cooperation with local schools and under the supervision of faculty members from Memorial University.

Procedures

Sample

Practice teaching is a required component of the teacher education program at Memorial University. The majority of education students were informed that they could take either of the two internship programs or the two-week block of practice teaching during registration in the first week of September. As a result, 24 students enrolled in the Memorial University Internship Program, 24 students enrolled in the Harlow Internship Program, and 190 enrolled in the Two-Week Block of practice teaching.

From these groups, 20 student teachers in the Memorial Internship Program, 12 student teachers in the Harlow Internship Program, and 190 student teachers in the Two-Week Block of practice teaching completed questionnaires at the beginning of the semester. Furthermore, from the students who completed the first questionnaires, 20 of the students in the Memorial Internship Program, and 103 of the students in the Two-Week Block of practice teaching completed questionnaires at the end of the semester. From the latter group, 30 student teachers who had completed both the first and second questionnaires were randomly selected for this study. Thus, the analysis is based upon 61 student teachers who completed a questionnaire both at the beginning and at the end of their practice teaching program.

In breakdowns of the samples, by sex, age, marital status, program of study, and degree there were no significant differences between the three groups of student teachers. That is, on the basis of these background characteristics, the student teachers in the internship programs were not statistically different from each other nor were they statistically different from the student teachers in the Two-Week Block of practice teaching.

Methodology

As the reader understands from the above discussion a quasi-experimental research design was used. This design is identified by Campbell and Stanley (1:47) as "the nonequivalent control group nonequivalent control group design". This means that the experimental and control groups may not be random samples of the same population. Nevertheless, the design is one that is often used in educational research because of the difficulty of randomly assigning students to different situations.

In following the procedures outlined by the general design, a comparison was made between student teachers who elected to take the internship programs and those who participated in the Two-Week Block of practice teaching. Information was gathered by means of questionnaires distributed during the 1977-1978 academic year. The first set of questionnaires was distributed during the first week of classes and the second set was distributed during the last week of classes.

Both the first and second questionnaires asked the students to identify themselves, give important background information such as age and sex, and complete sets of items designed to measure their self-concepts, motivation, and attitudes. Each questionnaire took approximately 20 minutes to complete.

Following the data collection, the mean scores on the three dispositions were compared across the groups of students in order to determine whether there were significant differences. In addition, changes in the scores between the beginning and the end of the semester were examined. Such analyses provide an estimate of the effectiveness of the internship programs in comparison with the Two-Week Block of practice teaching.

The Dependent Variables

For this study, the three dependent variables, self-concept as a student teacher, motivation towards teaching, and attitudes towards teaching as a career were examined. In order to construct these dependent variables a number of questionnaire items, drawn from a variety of sources, were factor analyzed. Principal component solutions were used, and items were considered to "load" on a factor if their factor loading were.35 or greater (9:357). Since unidimensional scales were constructed by adding the appropriate items together only one factor was extracted from each set of items.

The measure of self-concept as a student teacher was constructed from seven items on a semantic differential (11, 12,14). The loadings on the principal component were .59 or greater and the alpha reliability coefficient for the variable was .85. The measure of motivation towards teaching was constructed by summing seven Likert-like items obtained from a previous study (2). None of the items had loadings below .39 on the principal component and the alpha reliability coefficient for the variables was .83. Finally, seven items were used to obtain a measure of the student teachers' attitudes towards teaching as a career. These items were obtained from an eleven item scale constructed by Merwin and DiVesta (3, 8). For the seven items, the loadings on the principal component were at least .47 and the alpha reliability coefficient for the scale was .79.

Results

In the present study it was hypothesized that there were significant differences between the three groups for their mean scores on the three dependent variables. More specifically, it was hypothesized that, following the practice teaching programs, the student teachers in the two internship programs would have significantly higher mean scores than the student teachers in the Two-Week Block program.

Since the assignment of student teachers to each of the three groups was not random the mode of analysis and the interpretation of the results depend upon the similarities between the groups on the pre-experimental tests (1:48). Table 1 presents the mean scores,, t-values for differences between the pretests and the post-tests, and F-values for the differences between the three groups of student teachers. In this table the term "pretest" implies the scores obtained from the first questionnaire and the term "post-test" implies the scores obtained from the second questionnaire.

TABLE 1
MEAN SCORES ON DEPENDENT VARIABLES BY STUDENT TEACHING PROGRAM

Variables	Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F-Value
1. Self concept as a student teacher	Pretest Posttest t-value	29.00 31.35 -3.95***	30.81 29.45 2.30*	28.73 30.37 -2.94**	1.83 2.18
2. Motivation towards teaching	Pretest Posttest t-value	31.90 31.65 0.56	30.00 30.18 -0.24	29.31 29.72 -0.72	3.79* 3.63*
3. Attitudes towards teaching as a career	Pretest Posttest t-value	38.95 37.30 1.78	40.60 38.80 2.08	37.14 37.93 -1.03	3.47* 0.33

*p. <.05 (two-tailed)
**p. <.Ol (two-tailed)
***p. <.001 (two-tailed)

It is observed that for self-concept as a student teacher there were significant changes, for all three groups of students, between the pretest and the post-test. However, the changes were different. For both the Memorial University Interns and the students in the Two-Week Block of practice teaching there were significant increases in the self-concept scores while for the Harlow Interns there was a significant decrease in self-concept scores. Moreover, it is observed that there were significant differences across the three groups of students, on both the protest and the post-test, for motivation towards teaching, and there were significant differences across the three groups of students, on just the pretest, for attitudes towards teaching as a career.

This seems to suggest that the programs may have had differential effects on self-concept as a student teacher, but that the differences on motivation towards teaching and attitudes towards teaching as a career were, perhaps, only due to differences between the three groups on their initial dispositions. That is, the programs seem to have had differential effects upon the student teachers' self-concept specifically as student teachers, but the programs did not seem to have had differential effects upon the other three professional dispositions.

Nevertheless, evaluating the differences between programs on the basis of either a pretest or a post-test is not the preferred method of analysis. Analysis of covariance in which protest scores are used as covariates provides a much more rigorous examination of the data (1:23). Analyses of covariance for the three dependent variables are presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2

ANALYSES OF COVARIANCE ON DEPENDENT VARIABLES BY STUDENT TEACHING PROGRAM

Variables	Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F-Value
1. Self concept as a student teacher	Pretest	82.36	1	82.36	18.47***
	Program	48.65	2	24.33	5.46**
	Residual	254.20	57	4.46	
	Total	385.21	60	6.42	
2. Motivation towards teaching	Pretest	163.41	1	163.41	40.27***
	Program	6.23	2	3.12	0.77
	Residual	227.21	56	4.06	
	Total	396.85	59	6.73	
3. Attitudes towards teaching as a career	Pretest	149.52	1	149.52	13.72***
	Program	22.81	2	11.40	1.05
	Residual	588.56	54	10.90	
	Total	760.89	57	13.35	

**p.< .01 (two-tailed)
***p.< .001 (two-tailed)

This table shows that, for all three dependent variables, the pretests have statistically significant effects. Nevertheless, program has statistically significant effects upon the post-test for only one dependent variable, self-concept as a student teacher. That is, on the post-test scores the student teachers, in each of the three programs, differ significantly only on the measure of self-concept as a student teacher. Furthermore, close examination of the scores illustrates that the students in the Harlow Internship Program have significantly lower scores than the students in the Memorial University Internship Program or the students in the Two-Week Block of practice teaching.

In interpreting these results it must be remembered that the differences were only in the intensity of the self-concepts and that all three groups of student teachers had very positive self-concepts. Furthermore, it must be remembered that the variables specifies that the students evaluate themselves as "student teachers" and the differences may simply mean that the student teachers in the Harlow Program had more realistic conceptions of themselves than the student teachers in the other two programs.

Conclusion

In this study it was hypothesized that the student teachers in the two internship programs would have more highly developed professional traits than the student teachers in the Two-Week Block because of the differences in the amount of time spent in practice teaching. It was found that in general the traits were unrelated to the amount-of time the student teachers spent in practice teaching. However, for self-concept, it was found that the student teachers in the Harlow Internship Program developed less positive

self-concepts while the student teachers in both the Memorial Internship Program and the Two-Week Block developed more positive self-concepts.

In order to provide an explanation, the researchers discussed these results with some of the student teachers and faculty members involved in the three programs. From these discussions it seemed evident that the student teachers in the English setting saw their experiences as being, to some degree, incongruent with their eventual teaching assignment in the Newfoundland setting. Specifically, the student teachers who did their practice teaching in Harlow pointed out a number of significant differences between education in England and education in Newfoundland.

In previous research it was noted that student teachers developed more positive attitudes when their academic studies and practice teaching experiences were congruent (2). A similar type of congruence may be operating in this situation. That is, it may be that practice teaching experiences which are congruent with both eventual teaching assignment and academic program may promote more positive dispositions. Student teachers who have practice teaching experiences which are, for some reason, out of context with their eventual teaching assignment may not develop as positive dispositions as those who have congruent experiences.

From this perspective, it seems possible that time spent in practice teaching does not have significant effects upon the professional dispositions of student teachers. Nevertheless, it may be the case that the congruence between various dimensions of a teacher education program could be important in terms of developing these dispositions. If this is true, then perhaps in order to improve the education of student teachers the various components could be restructured to ensure that there is more congruency.

Of course, before this could be enacted more research must focus on the relationship between the congruence of education programs and the professional dispositions of student teachers. This type of research may have to be carried out in a number of institutions where there may be greater variability in education programs. Moreover, it may be suggested that more research must be conducted on new programs that are designed to improve teacher education. Unfortunately, such programs have rarely been evaluated to determine if they are successful. Considering the amount of time, effort, and expense involved in establishing new programs it seems that educators must begin to evaluate the effectiveness of such programs.

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VIEWS OF STUDENTS ON THE AMOUNT OF HOMEWORK ASSIGNED

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Homework in one form or another has been a very important part of formal education for a long time. While talking to high school students we find that a few talk about homework in the sense of follow-up work which they are expected to do as a result of what is taught and learned in the school. It is not necessarily assigned as homework. For example, one student observed that teachers should not have to tell students what homework to do. He added: "You're at something in a book; well, it's your responsibility to go and learn it." Some students use the term "homework" to refer only to written assignments which have been explicitly assigned by teachers to be done outside of the regular school hours. Others, however, include both written and study assignments in their reference to homework. In the present context, the latter meaning of this term is used.

Students' views on the amount of homework assigned can, for the purposes of the present paper, be divided into three categories.[2] One category included those who said that there was too much homework. A second category indicated that the amount of homework was "just right." While a few students felt that there was not enough homework assigned. A wide range of responses is found in each of these three categories. The purpose of this paper is to present a sample of these responses from an ongoing study of the schooling experience of high school students, thereby indicating some of the attitudes of those students toward the amount of homework which they are assigned.

The view that there is too much homework assigned in the high school grades seems to be coming from at least a couple of different groups of students. In one group there are the students who display an obvious lack of interest in school work and are not motivated to take full advantage of the teaching learning experiences in the school. For example, one student lamented: "All we do is work, work, work from one class to the next ...I hate the stuff." Another expressed the belief that working during the school hours was enough for him, adding: "When you have to go home and do more, that is too much." Similarly, it was noted that what students do in school "is enough," and "there should be no homework." On the other hand, some students appear to have genuine interest in learning and getting good grades, but expressed concern about not being able to give adequate attention to all the assigned homework.

Concerning the amount of homework, one Grade 11 girl wrote: "...the amount of homework we get is unbelievable!" Another Grade 11 girl, in a different school, felt "that in school there is too much homework and too many assignments given." In a complaining way, a Grade 9 girl remarked that even though students are in school "all day for five days," teachers "still pile up the homework on us all night." Another student pointed out that it is "unfair" for "teachers expect us to study every night for a couple of hours, after being in school for 5 hours."

Other comments from different students include:

There is too much written and study homework.

We have too much work.
I think we should be given less work.
The teacher gives us far too much homework.
I think we shouldn't have so much homework.
I think that teachers gives us way too much homework...
The teachers expect too much of us.
They give us too much homework.

There are a number of reasons why students judge the homework to be too much. For some, it is "too much" because they are more interested in other things and are not motivated to turning their attention to homework. For others, the homework assigned by one or more teachers is judged to be too much because it is considered in total with other written and study assignments, and/or expectations from other teachers. In some cases, it is seen as too much to be done during the time allotted for it, even if they spend all their time at it. One student thought that too much study led her into confusion. Another suggested that there should only be a minimal amount of written homework so that students "can study the subjects" they "are having problems with, instead of spending the whole night doing assignments or doing work for the next day."

Students distinguished among teachers, observing that: "Some of the teachers sometimes expect too much of you." And, in the words of another student: "Some teachers make you do too much, especially as far as homework is concerned....Some teachers make you do too much, especially as far as homework is concerned .... Some teachers are not like that." In this connection, it was observed that: "Most of the teachers give us a lot to study, but some give us the right amount." According to the students, teachers have also been known to assign "'piles of homework" at different intervals, and have some relatively slack periods. Students" comments reveal that their own definitions of what constitutes too much homework may change from one time to another. Such is one of the interpretations which can be given to the response: "Sometimes I feel teachers come down a little hard with homework.... I don't know, it doesn't always seem that way." Another response was that whether or not a particular written assignment is fair or not depends on when it is given. For example, it might not be considered fair if it were given on the day before a test to be passed in the next morning, or if it were given to be done on the night of a school dance. Not surprisingly, we find that different students may have different views on the same amount of homework.

A "top" Grade 9 student, as defined by a teacher, expressed the view that teachers give "the right amount of homework." The judgement of another student, in a different school, was: "Teachers are fairly fair in handing out homework and school work." This same student observed that teachers usually give adequate time to complete assignments and "they break up the year so we don't end up cramming to finish a book at the end of the year." The comments of one Grade 11 student concerning homework included her evaluation of the workload as "usually pretty good," adding that "most times teachers don't expect and demand too many things from students."

One seemingly ambitious student opined that students should do not only the work assigned by teachers, but "probably do a bit on (their) spare time." During an interview, a Grade 10 boy said:

Well, I don't think really there is enough homework give to us. You know, well, if you learn something today most people takes home the book and

> look it over and study it. We don't have very much homework. The most we have is English Literature, doing questions on stories. That's all.

In comparison with what one person in Grade 11 thought would be expected of people once they have finished school, the expectations in school and for homework are relatively low, as seen by this student. She remarked: "People say that school is too hard but when they get out in this big world of ours, they shall find it much harder." Her conclusion was: "Sure the teachers give us a lot of work to do, but they give it to us for our own good." Several students defended the amounts of homework assigned on the grounds that it is in the best interest of the students. For example, one Grade 11 respondent who thought that his class was "loaded down" with work still agreed with "piling" the work on, because "that's what we need." While not going as far as to say there was not enough homework, one Grade 10 girl thought that teachers "don't normally give ... much homework, and if they do it is for our own good."

Conclusion

As expected, high school students have a wide range of views concerning the amount of homework assigned to them. While there is a fair amount of satisfaction among the students concerning the amount of homework, there is considerable discontentment over this issue as well. One might argue that the approach to the homework load question presented in this paper has limitations in that there are no data on the amount of homework that is actually assigned, or on teachers' views of homework and students' performances in this area. However, regardless of the amount of homework and of teachers' perspectives on it, if we push aside students' views on this dimension of their learning experience as their unrealistic interpretations of the amount of homework assigned, and/or their desire to get away with whatever they can when it comes to homework, then we must take note of the responsibility for helping students become more "realistic" concerning the amount of homework and the purposes for assigning homework. On the other hand, if we accept the fact that the observations of students have at least a minimal degree of legitimacy, then we have a responsibility to be continuously aware of students' perspectives on this dimension of formal education so that they may be guided into getting the maximum benefits from it. Most likely, the task requires a bit of both - helping students develop positive attitudes toward homework and taking their perspectives into account in setting our demands and expectations for them. One of the suggestions Students have been known to make is for teachers to draw up homework timetables in cooperation with one another so that the homework load will be evenly distributed.

FOOTNOTES

[1] This is the first of three articles on "homework" which is scheduled to appear in **The Morning Watch**. The second one will deal with "Voices for Homework Timetables" and the third is on "Competing Forces and Students" Responses to Homework." These articles have been developed from ongoing research into the schooling experiences of students. The present data base is 146 taped interviews with Grades 9, 10 and 11 students, and 1132 questionnaires completed by students in these grades.

[2] Another category of responses suggests that it is not necessarily the amount of assigned homework that concerns the student, but the uneven distribution of the assignments. This issue is addressed in the second article referred to in footnote 1.

VOICES FOR HOMEWORK TIMETABLES

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In presenting students' views on the amount of homework they are assigned, it was noted that sometimes they judged the amount to be too much because several assignments were reportedly given at the same time (Martin, 1980). The present paper elaborates on this point by, focusing on students' observations, opinions and suggestions concerning this dimension of their schooling experiences.

Distribution of Homework

Several students explicitly noted their thoughts that there are times when there is too much homework. For example, one respondent said the teacher "gives us too much homework some nights." Another student wrote: "I think that some nights we have too much homework on the same night to do." Put differently, a Grade 10 girl wrote: "We are given too much homework some nights and to get it done we have to stay up all night ... and other nights we doesn't have any homework at all." Indicating the same problem by noting that there are certain times when things are too slack compared to the homework loads given on other occasions, one Grade 9 student noted: "In our studies we may go a couple of weeks with very little to do and then every teacher assigns a test or homework around the one time..." The comments of a girl in Grade 10 included her claim that "one night we have no homework and other nights we have five or six books!"

One student thought that the uneven distribution of homework was partly due to teachers' unfairness and their deliberate attempt to keep students from participating in certain activities. In noting this, the respondent wrote: "My view is teachers are sometimes strict and sometimes not, like when we have a school dance they sets homework that day to finish in the night and when we have nothing to do other nights they won't set none." While indicating that he thought that the teachers are fair, one boy also felt that sometimes they "pile everything on us together and we end up not passing all which we are assigned."

Other students also indicated that one of the major problems concerning homework is that "teachers assign a lot of homework to students on the same day." More specifically, one noted: "There are times when 4 or 5 of our teachers each give us a test or an assignment to do." The homework "piles up" and "sometimes there is too much ... because one teacher gives a pile and says it's not too much; then another teacher does the same; by the time most teachers give us something to do, we got too much to do." In fact, indications are that students think particular teachers do not realize that students have work to do for other teachers. For example, one observation from a Grade 11 girl was:

> "...most of the teachers want us to study and study and study not realizing that we have other work to do as well as their subject..." The same point was made by the student who claimed that teachers "do not think about it that we have homework in other subjects as well." A similar idea was implied by another Grade 11 student who expressed the view that teachers give too much homework "because they're only one class but we got other

classes beside one." Another reason why too much homework gets assigned is suggested by the comments of a student who wrote: "When teachers give us assignments ... and two weeks or so to do them, they still give us five or six small assignments in between..."

A number of students referred to the need to develop a homework timetable in order to alleviate some of the problems they perceived to exist in their respective schools. One student remarked: "I think they should have a timetable of homework made up so we will know what to expect and won't be so disappointed and not have homework all the time." One student went so far as to say that the lack of a schedule for homework was one of the major problems in his school. Another student observed: "One thing about this school is a chart for homework wasn't drawed up this year and so some nights we have everything the once." Also referring to the homework load, another student said teachers should think about "spacing it out." If teachers do not follow a schedule for assigning homework, one student thought that they [11]should ...respect the fact too many teachers might assign too much homework." Consequently, "a person will not have time to do his/her best on what he/she already has to do."

Problems of Uneven Distribution

Many of the students pointed to the potential problems of not having a homework timetable in the school. One student believed that "most of the teachers expect" students "to bring home books from each of their subject," and, from the student perspective, "it is too much." A related comment came from another respondent: "We have six subjects and just about all the teachers tell us to spend about a half hour to one hour at each." This student implied that, given the fact that students are in school all day, this is "mentally" impossible. According to one Grade 11 student, having what students perceive to be too much homework ""changes your attitude towards doing it correctly." An interesting side note came from one respondent who implied that there is not only the problem of handling the homework, but "for people who has to walk home" there are too many books "to carry.'"

Another dimension to the student-perceived need for some sort of timetable in assigning written homework is seen in students' complaint that homework often interferes with studying for tests and examinations. In the present research, a large number of comments from students included complaints about the amount of homework given immediately prior to and/or during examinations. As one person put it: "...we have's too much written homework to do for to get all off our studying done." Another one wrote: "Right now I am trying to study for my exams but teachers give me too much homework. I can't spend as much time as I want to studying." While this student could not spend as much time studying as she wanted to, another student was thinking apparently about the expectations of teachers when she pointed out: "Since you have written homework to do it's very difficult to get all the time they (teachers) would like you to in studying for exams." Whether the student is thinking of the amount of study he/she would like to do and/or the amount the teacher expects him/her to do, the problem of having homework other than studying for an examination simultaneously with such studying often presents some frustration to students. For example, one student, disgustingly, remarked: "We are trying to study for exams now, and we still have a lot of homework to do." Another respondent, from a different school, claimed: "Sometimes we have too much homework and we have to study for two or three exams that we have on the same day." It has also

been observed that "too much homework plus reviewing" means that teachers' expectations are a "bit much."

In listing her complaints about her school, one girl included: "At times when we are expected to study for exams we are given homework and assignments to do." Another, grumblingly, observed: "Teachers give too many assignments before exams." A student in another school remarked: "Teachers assign too much homework when students should be studying for tests and examinations."' The same idea was brought out, but not in a complaining fashion, by one respondent when she expressed her thoughts that teachers are trying to do their best because "they want you to study and do well on your exams," and to achieve this end "they give out too much homework for you to do." Several other students gave clear messages concerning their positions on assigning written homework when they are expected to study for examinations. One of them proclaimed: "When midterms and finals come along, teachers should not set any work to be done," except for the studying in preparation for these examinations. In the words of another student, "I think teachers shouldn't give us any homework during" the time "we have to study for our midterms and final exams." This view was echoed in different schools and each grade level represented in this study. Eliminating written homework, "a few weeks before midterms and final examinations," according to one respondent, "would give more time for studying and make studying more enjoyable," and would, according to another student, "improve our marks."

Time Preferences for Homework

Students have some strongly held views on times for studying and doing homework. Even though these views may be unrealistic from the point of view of teachers, they are interesting in that they indicate the general orientation of the social-psychological milieu among certain students in the school population. They also point to the contrasting views of students and teachers on this issue.

One suggestion from the students is that more school time should be set aside to do some fo the work which is now assigned as homework. For example, one student suggested: "We should have more free classes to do homework or study." Another respondent said: "I think we should be given more free time to study for the final exams." A more specific suggestion was that students "should have 2 or 3 periods of a week to do some studying," and thereby not to have to do it at home."

There was considerable concern about the amount of homework assigned on weekends. For example, one student expressed her desire "to take a little time off from school" on weekends. However, she complained: "There is no way out. There are so many books to do!" It was also felt that because students "spend 5 days a week in school," they "should at least have the weekends off without studying." Another student said: "I disagree with... having homework on weekends," but on second thought, she added: "I guess it wouldn't hurt to have a little homework to do, but not 3 or 4 tests to study for." It seems as if one respondent assumed she knew what everyone's thoughts were, as she claimed: "Everybody thinks we have too much, not really too much, only on weekends..." Another respondent expressed the view that it was necessary to have some assigned work most of the time, but students "should not be bogged down in homework over weekends." Even though a fair number of students suggested that there should not be any homework on weekends and holidays, there is realization among many students that there should be "some homework" at those times.

Conclusion

It is not surprising that some students think that there is too much work associated with school in general and with homework in particular. While we may push these comments aside as natural, and therefore to be expected regardless of the approach used to help students get the maximum from their schooling experiences, their suggestion for homework timetables seems to be a reasonable one. Even though coordination of homework may be seen as another bureaucratic intrusion on teacher decision-making power, from the student perspective it has considerable merit. The solution to the homework question is, however, not easily found. While homework schedule would, undoubtedly, be helpful for some students, there are a host of pressures made on students from outside the school, and a number of student responses made to them which need to be understood.

FOOTNOTE

Martin, Wilfred B.W.
1980 "Views of Students on the Amount of Homework Assigned." **The Morning Watch** 8(1).

COMPETING FORCES AND STUDENTS' RESPONSES TO HOMEWORK

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It is a common observation that high school students are often more interested in activities and concerns outside of school related work than they are in homework assigned by the school. The purposes of the present paper are to focus on those activities and concerns as isolated by students, and to see some of the students' responses to homework assignments.

Competing Forces

It is indeed obvious that there may be a number of things in the everyday life of the student which could compete with any work explicitly assigned and/or expected by the school. In fact, the priorities of some students are far from the generally assumed ideal held for them by the school. Rather than seeing outside activities and interests as competing with the overall expectations held for the student-role, they see the expectations of the school as competing with their activities and interest outside of it. In other words, student role-identity is not the most salient one for many high school students. For example, one student decreed: "There shouldn't be any homework because I like shows on T.V..." Another student thought that teachers "don't realize that our favorite programs might be on the night they make us study for 2 tests and because we want to watch these programs we forget about our books and then the next day we fail the test."

The idea that study and written assignments should be confined to school and thereby not allowed to intrude on one's time outside of the school was seriously put forth by five of the students interviewed. These were two students from each of two schools and one from a third school. One of them stated: "It is bad enough studying in school. Studying should be only for school time." A related comment came from a Grade 9 girl who stated: "The time we have off ... we still have to do homework. That is what I hate about school." Another expressed the idea that '"after school... should be our time to take it easy and relax but instead we have to get right down to school work again." One student thought that teachers do not understand the terms of reference of schooling. He wrote: "Teachers always expect us to study. I don't think they realize that in school from 9:00 to 3:30 is enough." One boy in Grade 9 suggested that all homework should be cancelled because he liked "to go out in the night." Another, more realistically, indicated that there should be some homework and study, and then added: "I think the teachers should realize that we can't donate all of our time to working on school work."

While not explicitly saying that all school related work should be confined to the school, a number of the students indicated their belief that school should be like other work, that is, their perceptions of other work situations. Concerning the amount of homework, for example, some students thought that they were unfairly treated relatively to what they saw as the teacher's role. One Grade 11 student claimed: "When teachers want to catch up with their work they can give the students a free period, but if the students want a free period, 'no way,' says the teacher you can finish your homework tonight." Another student wrote: "Teachers expect us to study 3 hours every night. I think it is unfair for we, they go home and watch T.V. while some students are studying their

heads off..." A Grade 9 boy expressed a similar attitude toward the principal of his school as he displayed his belief that the principal should not tell his parents how much he should be studying. "It's all right for him, he does not have to spend a couple of hours each night studying after spending five hours a day, five days a week slaving" as "we do" was this student's complaint. One Grade 10 student was a little more diplomatic in stating that teachers should "'slack off a bit" on the homework, especially on weekends, because "they (teachers) like to have some time to spare as well as us the students."

Related to these comments are those which refer to the "rights" of students. Several respondents questioned teachers' understanding of those rights, implying that if they understood them they would not give as much homework. In reference to the amount of homework given by teachers, one student exclaimed: "They don't realize that we have rights to!!" In another school, one student expressed her desire to "have students fight for their rights." She believed that "school work is enough for the daytime, but night time should be our free time to do what we want." Another student expressed the idea of doing only what one wants to do, but she implied that the student should be studying and learning. She wrote: "Teachers expect students of our school to spend at least 2 to 3 hours at homework. I think this is wrong because it's up to a student's self if he or she wants to study and learn for himself."

While not being specific, a number of students pointed to the consequences of too much homework for their involvement in school and community life. For example, one student wrote: "Sometimes we have lots of homework and then it is hard for us to go to a certain meeting at school, or/and in your community." There are times when teachers' expectations for students concerning homework cannot be met because of the student home environment. Two aspects of the home environment came out in students' comments during this research. One of those was that sometimes students "have other work around the house to do so" they "haven't got much time for studying." The other was that students did not get any encouragement or directives from parents concerning the school related work they were assigned to do at home. In a couple of cases, the students referred to their having no place to study at home, and there was "too much noise to study, anyhow."

One student noted that her studies interfered with "other activities" without indicating what those other activities were. She expressed her agreement with assigning some homework, but wrote: "teachers should not give us so much work that we are up to our ears in it."

The desire for "free time" was evident in the comments of several students. A couple of them suggested that there should be more time free from school work while in school and at home. Most of the complaints, however, were directed at the homework and students' perceived lack of free time outside of regular class hours. A Grade 10 boy wrote: "Because of homework you don't get much free time when you are home, because you have to stay home and do the homework, and I would rather be at something else." A similar point was made by a Grade 11 student who noted that there was so much study required each night that: "If you have to spend an hour on each one like the teachers say, at the end you would not have any time left for yourself." Another student complained: "You have to study home and study on your free time off from school, when you could be out some place having fun." Relatedly, a girl in Grade 11 wrote: "We do not have enough free time to participate in other activities that we may enjoy." Another student opined: "The teachers shouldn't expect students to spend 2 to 3 hours at homework every night 7 nights a week.... We want to have a bit of time to

ourselves, anyway." Not only is there a desire for free time and relaxation, but, according to our respondent, there is a need for this: "Throughout the entire school year we are given a great deal of homework each night. Students like anyone else, need time to relax."

There is a fairly widespread feeling among the Grades 9 and 10 students, in particular, that teachers want to minimize their social life. For example, one Grade 10 girl claimed: "Some teachers expect us students to study all the time and have no social life." According to one Grade 11 student, "There are other important matters besides school. Like getting involved in sports and some social activities." Other respondents indicated that outdoor life was more appealing to them than doing homework, and some students made reference to the fact that they were working part-time and could not find the time necessary to complete the assigned homework.

By way of summary of the forces competing with homework for students' time we note that students made reference to television, social events, sports, home activities and home environments, outdoor activities, part-time work, community involvement, going out night time, having fun, having time for oneself, and relaxation. It should also be pointed out that many of the respondents did not give any indication that homework interfered with any of those activities and interests. It is interesting to note that some of those offering complaints about the homework load affecting their desires to do other things believed that the assigned work was necessary if they were to be successful in their respective grades. For example, one student explained: "I complain a lot about this (homework) but I know the teachers are only trying to do their job and get us through all the work before public exams."

The fact that students, like many others, have legitimate worries and concerns which may interfere with their homework is evident in the comments of one of the seemingly conscientious students in a top Grade 11 class who wrote: "I do not mind homework when I have time to sit and do it without having too much else to worry about..., but sometimes the teachers tend to give us too much and we beat ourselves out trying to do it all."

Students' Responses

One of the most common responses of students to what they perceive as too much homework was their reported comments and complaints to teachers. One student said: "We argue if too much homework, for example, get him cut 5 pages down to 3 or something like that." Another student observed: "...students complain about piling it up.. " A third student said? "Yea, always complaining to the teacher because of too much homework." However, one comment received was that "'some complain, others don't. Most know it is good for them." It was also reported that "students talk about it amongst themselves but not to teachers. . . ."

The conflict between spending all one's time doing what is reported to be a heavy load of homework and the desire for involvement in other things is evident in many of the student comments recorded in the present research. There is also indication of a wide range of responses to the homework load in relation to the forces competing for their time and energy. Some students dismissed homework, without hesitation, in favour of involvement in other interest outside of the school environment. Several students suggested that homework was one of the most hateful things about school. In fact, the

idea of quitting school has been tied in with a dislike for written homework and study. One student said that if she did not have enough time to finish her written homework and study she felt like quitting school. Apparently, the consequences of not having done adequate preparation for class had consequences for her interactions with others in the classroom, and this, undoubtedly, combined with other factors to set this students thinking about quitting.

Other students attempted to do the assigned homework and partake in the maximum number of outside activities. A couple of the respondents reported not being able to get as much enjoyment out of the nonacademic as they should be getting because of their concern about the homework they do not seem to get time to finish. One student wrote: "The biggest problem of too much homework is we do not have time to enjoy ourselves because we are worrying about the homework we have left at home to do."

Conclusion

While many students have found a healthy balance is dividing up their energy and time between homework and participation in recreational and other dimensions of community life in that they have worked out ways and means of handling each without any detrimental effects on the other, some experience ambivalence and conflict in working out their agendas between these domains. The implications of these ambivalences and conflicts are undoubtedly seen in performances on homework and in overall achievement in the school. Obviously, the responsibility for having students balance out their commitments to homework and the forces competing with it falls upon at least three units in the social organization of society: the school, the family, and the community. As the school communicates the rationale for certain types and amounts of homework to the students, it is the parents' responsibility to become familiar with the expectations of teachers and other school personnel for students in general and their children in particular. Simultaneously, the community creates organizations, develops facilities, and opens up opportunities for youth involvement in its social organization. Under these conditions, students become members of the school-family-community-team in developing their overall and specific agendas for homework and competing forces.

DISCIPLINE: A NEWFOUNDLAND STUDY

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The maintenance of discipline among students is by and large one of the central preoccupations of teachers.' In this paper we examine briefly the orientations regarding discipline which are apparently commonly held by teachers in Newfoundland (and presumably shared by their colleagues elsewhere), teachers' reactions to provisions made in schools for maintaining discipline and some of the methods of discipline to which teachers sometimes resort (partly as revealed .by students' observations on the subject).

The data for the article come from two sources. One is a study of teachers' perceptions and experiences of teaching in Newfoundland, in which 702 teachers completed questionnaires and 25 participated in often lengthy interviews. The material cited in this paper is taken from the interviews and from teachers' responses to an open questionnaire item inviting them to indicate the recurring problems or obstacles they have encountered in teaching The other source is a study of the schooling experiences of pupils in Grades 9, 10 and 11 from several all grade schools and high schools in one area of Newfoundland. The teachers in the study indicated above are elementary school teachers. We feel, however, that the concerns relating to discipline evinced by them are likely to be evident as well at the high school level, where the challenges to the teachers' ability to maintain control are likely to be greater. We might note as well that our data are qualitative in nature and thus preclude generalizations of the type requiring quantitative evidence.

Teachers' Orientations Regarding Discipline

Teachers sometimes appear to feel themselves under pressure to maintain discipline in the classroom As the following observations show, such pressure is seen as coming from principals as well as colleagues:

> The administration within the school is greatly concerned with discipline or order in the classroom.

> Some ideas I really feel I would enjoy experimenting with I have had to eliminate because the class would be considered (a) too noisy or (b) showing signs of discipline problems.

> I remember on one particular occasion... we decided to divide up into groups. Rather than have them sitting where they were, they moved their desks around so that they could sit together in groups working on different projects. Just before the group work was finished, the principal comes in and blows his top. He wants to know what all this racket is about. The students had to put their seats back where they belonged, without any questioning of what they were doing. It made me feel like a two-cent piece. I felt like sinking through the floor. The students were very upset. They wanted to know what they had done wrong or what was wrong with him (after he had gone). What could I do then? I was left there with the kids. So

> I said we would just have to cancel the projects. The exercise books they were using might just as well be thrown away because they were no longer of any use to the class. It upset everybody. For the whole day, that class just wasn't any good anymore.
>
> I know I was in there teaching and I tried a different approach. The approach was more free and if children wanted to come to me they could, and they could discuss things in the classroom. They didn't have to sit there and keep their mouths shut and speak when they were spoken to. But according to the principal and the older people on the staff I had no control over my class. They would sometimes come in, knock on the door, give a shout at the students in the classroom. When you get into a staff meeting everybody else was there to bring it up and say it was just too noisy in the class, that you simply had to cut it down.

Whatever the source of such an orientation might be, numerous teachers are committed to the maintenance of discipline and view the collapse or absence of discipline with some disfavour. The following are examples of the numerous comments which illustrate this point:

> The children have previously not experienced much discipline from their previous teachers and it has been very difficult trying to break a habit which has been instilled in them for years.
>
> Some discipline problems have been very trying.
>
> Discipline problems are common. Too much permissiveness. Children often disobey and keep on fighting each other.
>
> Children are. more difficult to discipline nowadays. They have too much freedom.
>
> Students poorly disciplined at home generally leads to recurring problems in the classroom.
>
> Personally, I find discipline one of the main problems in the classroom. Kids are no longer showing any desire to listen. Without disciplined pupils it is very difficult to discipline.
>
> Many children have little discipline at home. They can do what they want, watch TV as they wish, stay up late, etc. This causes problems at school. Outside of the usual discipline problems, this makes it very difficult to get them to discipline themselves to work, study, concentrate, etc.

There is evidence, then, that teachers are often highly concerned about the discipline in their classrooms. It might be noted in passing that among the factors perceived by teachers as responsible for poor discipline on the part of students are permissiveness in child-rearing among parents and weaknesses in dealing with student discipline problems on the part of previous teachers.

Teachers' Reactions to Provisions for Discipline

While many teachers appear inclined to maintain classroom discipline, they frequently seem to be frustrated by an alleged absence of means whereby such discipline might be fostered. The teachers' comments below are provided by way of illustration:

> The main problem has been trying to keep discipline when very few disciplinary measures are allowed. For example, children cannot be kept after school because of the distance; recess, gym or singing cannot be taken from them; the writing of lines is prohibited; they cannot be sent from the room. Often, talking to a child helps curb undesirable behaviour but in a few cases disciplinary measures are needed and none is available.
>
> There seems to be much too much permissiveness with the kids. The teachers are virtually handcuffed when it comes to discipline. There are more rules for the teachers than for the kids. This may sound bitter and sometimes I am.
>
> It is hard to discipline children as you are very limited in what kind of discipline you can use (i.e., strap is out, not allowed to keep them in at recess or after school). Almost all avenues in this area are closed.
>
> Disciplinary action - what disciplinary actions are to be used? To my knowledge all are complained about. How are we to discipline the children I n order to maintain order?
>
> Much of my designated teaching time has been taken up by attempting to discipline children who have habitual behavioural problems: class clown types needing attention (having suffered lack of it at home or having enjoyed such excessive attention that they expect the equivalent amount of attention in a class situation). There are students who can be disciplined only by corporal punishment or fear of it. They have in my opinion known no other discipline and consequently tend to misbehave in school where they are well aware that corporal punishment is minimal or nil.
>
> One of the major problems in teaching is the decline in methods of punishment for incorrect behaviour.
>
> Maintaining control is difficult (e.g., knowing what to do if a student gives trouble).
>
> Children are not as easy to discipline as a few years ago. They feel that they can do what they like as a teacher is not allowed to touch them.

Teachers often feel not only that they are relatively powerless in attempting to preserve discipline in their classrooms, but, in some instances, that school administrators fail to take sufficiently strong or effective action against offenders and therefore make the teachers' task even more difficult. The following observations constitute relevant illustrations:

> A number of discipline problems remain unsolved by the school in general.

> The reactions of the Principal (to discipline problems) sometimes are rather unfavourable. Ideas are never set down and no pattern of student control is carried out, as far as discipline is concerned.
>
> He would never execute any punishment. You know, it was just a nice little talk to the kid. There was no direct punishment to them. 1 knew more than once we'd send someone to the principal's office and the teacher would come back in the staff room and her language wouldn't be too polite in what she was calling the principal: "That So-and-So didn't do a damn thing again today. I sent the kid over and he gave him a nice little talk and sent him back to me and what good is that going to do?"

Indeed, as the following excerpt from one of our interviews indicates, teachers occasionally feel that school administrators may in fact undermine their efforts to preserve discipline in the classroom:

> Our kids were used to being slapped and punished for things that they did that were wrong in the classroom.. . The only way I had to control one boy was by slapping him, and he had fear. He was a coward at heart but he was still big in his ways. I controlled him by slapping him. One day he answered me back or threw something at me. He did something anyway and I got really mad. She (the principal) came in at the time I was bawling him out.. .I wasn't slapping him but, whatever I was doing, she came in and he was answering me back and kicking the wall. Fright there on the spot she said in front of me, "Don't you ever touch that youngster again. You know you are not supposed to slap him." He sat up so prim and proper with a grin right in my face. He just said, 'There, Miss, you can't touch me." After that I was doomed.

Furthermore, teachers in some instances regard parents as being singularly unhelpful with respect to the maintenance of discipline at school. The observations below are pertinent here:

> Discipline is a problem: parents expect the teacher to overcome all problems in this. There is no help from the home.
>
> Some parents expect the teacher to solve all discipline problems and do not demand any discipline at home.
>
> My basic problem is discipline. I cannot exercise any form of discipline without complaint from parents.

To summarize this section, we might note that teachers frequently appear frustrated by their relative lack of effective means for promoting discipline among pupils and, in some instances, by inadequate provisions or support on the part of school administrators in disciplining students. In addition, they occasionally reveal some dissatisfaction regarding parental cooperation in the maintenance of discipline in the school situation.

Teachers' Methods of Maintaining Discipline

Given the limitations which teachers might see themselves as experiencing with regard to maintaining discipline, it is of interest to ask what methods they do in fact employ to achieve such an objective. Of course, most of these methods are familiar to us. They include, for example, scolding the student, ordering the student to copy lines, depriving the student of "privileges", and the like. In our study the teachers themselves vividly describe how they set about the task. A common technique, it seems, is to "come on strong", to maintain a strong grip on the class, with the aid of any measures that are legitimate. The following excerpts from interviews with teachers illustrate this point:

> Everybody in that class, everybody in that school, knows that there are certain things that you're not allowed to do when I'm there. And they know exactly where I stand. So that's what I mean by come on hard at first and then you can relax as you go along, but I think most teachers make the mistake of discipline by being very easy in the beginning and then when it comes to putting the clamps down the class don't respect them. It's too late. You've got to come on viciously hard, and then you can take the clamps out one by one.

> After one teacher had allowed the pupils to have their own way, to do what they wanted to, then he tried to bring them back in line and found the task of bringing them back in line was impossible. Then this new teacher came in and he let them know what he wanted. He never let them have their own way in the classroom and never let them get over him, and he never raised his voice. So the pupils understood it, and they got together and did the work.

Students" observations, such as the following, provide testimony regarding teachers" use of this method of maintaining discipline:

> Our French teacher is very strict. He sometimes wants us to do things that are not necessary. Since he came here he has only been in a good mood one period. He comes in grouchy and tells us to do something he sets. Then, if we do not understand him we ask him about it. He starts getting mad and he says that we do not listen, that we are ignorant and he'll make certain people leave the classroom ...for something they have not done.

> Some of the teachers don't allow you to express your opinions, and they tell you that you feel free to express your opinions.

> And when you do you end up getting kicked out of school because of this.

> The teacher bosses around the students and tells them to get out of his class for no reason at all.

Allowing for some possible exaggeration on the part of our student respondents, we may conclude that teachers sometimes attempt to maintain firm control over their classes by expelling students, by speaking firmly to them, or by using some other legitimate means of dealing with "discipline problems". That such means are not necessarily always successful is revealed by these student observations:

> If you are a student that does your homework every night and some night you forget to do it, the teacher should accept that and not give you more to do as a form of punishment. This turns you against it.
>
> A student will skip class if he does not like the teacher or his attitude ... Sometimes when they return they get kicked out again and that's what they want.
>
> Kick you out of school: it's not very bright, you know. Keep you after school would be more sensible. Someone who wants to skip off and they kicks him out, that's the whole idea. Coming back from kicked out he thinks he's Number One ... tries to be the hero and tells about his holidays. Better to keep him behind. The guy who's carrying on all the time wants to be out anyway.

At times, as the observations below show, teachers utilize more personalized methods of dealing with discipline:

> I didn't know what to do with the kid. At first you see him and he could be crying or kicking his feet or throwing something. So I went to his mother. She told me that she was having the same kind of problems with him at home She didn't know what to do with him. Of course, she used to lock him in his room and that sort of thing. And rather than doing that sort of thing with that particular child, I used to try and be friendly. 1 used to get the boy to do tasks for me, cleaning off the blackboard, running errands, even out of the school altogether when I was down home, if I wanted someone to run to the shop and that sort of thing. Gradually, toward the end of the year he was developing a different kind of relationship with me.

Not surprisingly, some teachers regard such an approach as too soft and, if the circumstances are right, are prepared to be physically tough with their students. The following excerpts are indicative of this type of orientation, though we have absolutely no idea of how prevalent the orientation might be (but suspect that only a negligible proportion of teachers have adopted it):

> Those pupils only understood one language. You could talk to them and it wouldn't make any difference--- it was like talking to the wall. The only language they would understand was a slap in the face or something. I found out that this was what they got at home. This is the language that they were used to. When they come to school and you talk softly to them they would be suspicious of you. You know, 'What are you up to?" So I never know from the beginning of the year to the end how to handle them. You had to give them a good lecturing in front of the class.. no use taking them alone to do it, and if you were to strap them you had to take them apart from everybody to strap them. If they were there with the crowd they enjoyed it. They got attention.
>
> Personally, I know most of the pupils. I know their parents and I have a good knowledge of their background. I can take for example a specific case, George, who is the class clown. I know, and George knows, if he gets a little bit too far out of hand I can check on him physically. I can try to reason with him and if that doesn't work I can be a little bit physical and

> his parents won't mind ...I know Gerry and Louise and all these that are either belonging to a higher SES group - you know, merchant's daughter and teachers' children - and I know that if there's any problem there I can consult the parents and they'll help me in any way they can.
>
> I had trouble with a student, and he was a big fellow. He was taller than I am and outweighed me by about one hundred pounds. And 1 had a talk with his parents and his parents told me that if he gives me any trouble I should lay him out on the floor. So I took him out in the corridor and I said. "Do you realize what your parents told me? If you give me any trouble I can lay you out on the floor." "My parents said that?" he asked, and looked at me. "You wouldn't be able to do that." I said, "Do you want to try it?" He said, "O.K. Fine." So I let him have it. I hit him with all my might. "You would do that, wouldn't you?" And I said, "Yes, I would. So now we've got two choices; so what's it going to be?" I left the choice up to him. He said, "Myself and you will be friends." And it worked out.

Suggestions

From the teachers' point of view, it seems, much needs to be done regarding student discipline. There appears to exist among our respondents a widespread feeling that teachers ought to have more leeway in connection with methods of promoting discipline. Teachers in many instances apparently also expect their school administration to establish definite standards of conduct for students and to be firm in enforcing these. Furthermore, as the excerpt below suggests, teachers expect their principals to back them up in their attempts to cope with "discipline problems":

> I have mentioned the discipline problem I had where I hit the boy and his father came up. That was one of the problems I ran into but I got backing from the principal on that. 1 mean to say, the principal didn't back away and say, 'Boy, you shouldn't have done it.' The principal was to my back. He said, you know, Well, if he's not going to behave in class and he's not going to do what he's told, well then, kick him out. And if he keeps up, we'll make sure that he stays out.'

As we might anticipate on the basis of our previous discussion, a number of teachers - such as those quoted below - recommend that their colleagues should exercise firm and vigilant control over students or risk losing command of their classes:

> I recommend to new teachers on the first few days of school not that they go in and scream and shout but that they do be very specific about everything and that they let the kids know what it is that they are going to be able to do in this class and what they're not, and do it in - well, not stern - but pretty definite manner. I don't mean scream and shout but laying down the law and picking up cases where somebody is trying something out, even if the punishment doesn't fit the crime but exceeds it. If you say, well, okay, they have to stay in after school for this or whatever kinds of things they're intending to do as punishment, do them and do them more than you really mean to for a few days. After that you can settle down and you can start being nice as some kids know. But when you come in with a smile attempting to be really sweet and nice to everybody, younger kids

> especially - and older ones, too, I guess - they'll say, "Ah, well, you know this is O.K. with him; we can do any old thing." And they do. I mean, after that you'd be lost if you think you'll really get it back in that year.
>
> I'll describe a situation that I know. This fellow came out of university and he had good ideas about a lot of projects and a lot of group work being good. And he also had the idea that a classroom should be something informal. In that particular case, the students were not used to this. By the end of the year he lost control of the class; the class was just taking over and doing what it liked. He tried to get projects off the ground ... he did succeed in getting some projects off the ground ... Social Studies: he had students cutting pictures out from magazines all over the place, which was good. But he gave the pupils too much leeway which they weren't used to and couldn't handle ...I tried to explain to him that if he came out of the university with new ideas and tried to bring them into the system gradually probably one might get them to work.
>
> I don't see the point of having straight rows in the classroom but there should be some order to it. If the pupils are going to take over the classroom at least they should do it in orderly groups and should know what they are doing, why they are doing it and how they are going to behave ... and there should always be somebody to charge. Even one of the pupils should take the responsibility of being in charge. If not, it's going to end up with nobody in charge and everybody is going to do what they like.

At least one teacher regards the use of referent power (i.e., getting the pupils to identify with or to like the teacher)' as conducive to good discipline. She observes as follows:

> If they like you as a person, in other words if you can relate to them, they're not going to have any troubles, but if you can't relate to them then you generally tend to have problems with the students, especially senior high school students. If they know that you're interested in them, you'll have no problem at all. And respect has absolutely nothing to do with it. They'll either like you or fear you. If they have either of these two conditions - like or fear - there's no problem. If they don't fear or they don't like you, then you're in trouble.

The following comments by a teacher might serve as a bridge to two points we would like to make:

> I think a lot of discipline things, a lot of discipline problems, could be avoided if teachers didn't look for a discipline thing, if they weren't on the lookout for every little thing. If you're on the lookout for every little thing you'll find something. Then they spend time talking about it.

The teacher is suggesting that our perception of what constitutes a significant discipline problem is a crucial factor and that if our perception changes then the number of significant discipline problems is also likely to be modified.

We wish to take up the matter of perceptions relating to student discipline. We suggest that our definitions of what constitutes a discipline problem are socially constructed - they are created by people in groups or in society. In interacting with one another, people tend to generate notions concerning what is legitimate behaviour for individuals in specific roles. These notions may become part of the group's or society's culture - they may become institutionalized. They tend to serve as a basis on which people's conduct is evaluated. For example, students who do not conform to the socially accepted definitions of their role tend to be classified as "deviants", as "discipline . problems", or some such thing. Our notions of what is legitimate action in particular roles is so much a part of our culture that we do not stop to question their appropriateness. In fact, however, such social norms may be changed. We may well modify our definitions of what is legitimate behaviour and in so doing eliminate some "discipline problems". For instance, if we regard it as fairly typical for students to sit around the classroom cutting out pictures from magazines or engaged in some other education related activity - perhaps making some noise in the process - then students so engaged will not be judged as exhibiting poor discipline. In this case, the principal who - as reported earlier in this article - "blew his top" because of all "this racket" when confronted with such a situation would not in fact perceive a discipline problem as occurring. It seems, then, that we need to ask why we deem certain forms of student behaviour as evidence of poor discipline, what assumptions concerning legitimate behaviour underlie our judgements of student conduct, and which of these assumptions might be altered or abandoned. We might then find that our "discipline problems" have to some extent been "defined away". The crucial questions relate to the kinds of behaviour that teachers might reasonably expect of students and the types of behaviour that students might reasonably be allowed to exhibit.

We must note, again, that behavioural norms are not necessarily immutable. If socially constructed definitions of legitimate behaviour are not confirmed in everyday life they might lose force and be replaced by new definitions. Again, in the interaction that occurs between groups differing with respect to definitions or assumptions regarding legitimate behaviour, some modification of point of view might take place: a process of ""negotiation" might occur and a new shared reality (consisting of assumptions concerning the behaviour that is legitimate for such "actors" as teachers and students, for example) will probably emerge. However, differences in power are likely to influence the extent to which the new reality reflects a truly "fair" negotiation. In the school situation, for example, the greater power enjoyed by teachers might result in their perspectives prevailing over those of students in most matters, even though some "negotiation" might occur. If teachers genuinely wish to foster a shared reality with their students, the former probably need to curtail the arbitrary exercise of power. In addition, rigidities in the school organization (such as standardized regulations for student conduct, inflexible requirements regarding syllabus to be covered, and the like) - though in some instances desired by many teachers - are likely to inhibit "negotiation" between students and teachers by reducing the number of areas and matters in which teachers might ""give up ground" to students. Some thought might be given then to eliminating some of the rigidities in schools. If this makes possible the emergence of a new shared reality among teachers and students (with new assumptions about what types of action or behaviour are legitimate for each) then there is a chance that fewer forms of student behaviour will be labelled as warranting disciplinary measures.

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1. See, for example, H.S. Becker, "Social Class Variations in the Teacher Pupil Relationship", in B.R. Cosin et al., School and Society: A Sociological Reader (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1971), p. 109.

2. For a brief discussion of bases of interpersonal influence (including "referent power"), see R.A. *Schmuck* and P.A. *Schmuck,* Group Processes in the Classroom (Dubuque, Iowa: W.C. Brown Co., 1971), pp. 28-32.

STUDENT TEACHERS AND SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPING

Audrey Bonham
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The effect of teachers' expectations on pupils has been researched and discussed extensively over the last decade (Braun, 1976; Cooper, 1979; Dusek, 1975). Generally, the research suggests that teachers do have biases and that these biases affect the way in which they evaluate pupils. Moreover, it is suggested that teachers' biases are linked to expectations. Such expectations often influence the interaction between teachers and pupils, which might in turn affect the pupils' self-concept and academic performance.

Moreover, there is extensive evidence that teachers reinforce sex role stereotypes through both formal and informal classroom interaction (nicks and Pyke,. 1973). It has been found, for example, that teachers' disapproval is not evenly distributed between boys and girls. Also, aggressiveness is more often reinforced in boys while passivity is more often reinforced in girls (Maccoby, 1966; Maccoby and Jacklin, 1974; Pellegreno and Williams, 1973; Richer, 1979; Serbin et al., 1973). Teachers tend to seek out the participation of boys more often and the boys themselves ask more questions and make comments more often than girls (Russell, 1979: 62). In this respect, both boys and girls are often aware of the differences in expectations which are based upon their sex (Meyer and Thompson, 1956).

The present study extends past research by examining the sex-role stereotyping of student teachers. The subtle effects of certain characteristics of pupils on student teachers are just beginning to be understood (See Clifton and Baksh, 1978). If teachers bias children's learning by reinforcing sex-role stereotypes it is important to discover if the institutions which train future teachers play a role in eliminating or at least limiting these biases.

In the present study, the names of pupils were experimentally varied on two essays so that it seemed that either a boy or a girl wrote each of the essays. One essay (Essay 1) was written by a pupil in Grade V class and modified by the researchers. The other essay (Essay 2) was written entirely by the researchers. The second essay was designed to be very similar to the first essay in English composition, spelling mistakes, and length, but not in terms of the content of the story. Both essays were entitled "My Summer Holiday" and were supposedly the results of the first assignment pupils had when they returned to school in September. Sex-role stereotypes were determined by examining the grades and the corrections assigned by a sample of student teachers and by determining if these varied significantly by the sex of the pupil who supposedly wrote the specific essay.

METHOD

Subjects

The sample employed in this study were student teachers in the Faculty of Education at a Western Canadian University. A stratified selection procedure was used to select six classes. The first three years of the program in education were each

represented by two classes. Fourth year classes were not included because the majority of fourth year student teachers were out in the schools for practice teaching.

The total population, 111 student teachers, participated in the study. The distribution of the sample was as follows: 31 males and 80 females; 37 student teachers were in first year, 26 were in second year, 38 were in third year, and 10 were in fourth year; finally, 103 of the student teachers did not have any teaching experience except for practice teaching.

Procedures

In each of the six classes the student teachers were asked to evaluate the two essays. They were instructed to evaluate both essays in terms of English composition, make the necessary corrections, and grade each essay on a scale of 1 to 100 percent.

Each of the two essays were typed as follows:

ESSAY 1

Every summer I stay at home on our mixed farm in Northern Manitoba. My Dad and big brother Eddie get up very early every morning. They work hard in the feilds and with the animals. John used to work with my Dad. He was our hired hand. But now Eddie is big enough to help and John has gone to the next farm. Every morning while my Mom makes breakfast I do my chores. I have to collect the eggs, and feed the chickens, and feed my pony Daisy. Later in the morning Daisy and I take lunch to my Dad and Eddie. They take a few minutes to talk to me and Daisy. One day Eddie was feeling mean. He asked my Dad if he could go. My Dad said no. He needed Eddie to work. They had a fight and my Dad hit Eddie. I was real scarred. Later they made up. I'll never forget that summer day.

ESSAY 2

I'd like to visit Hawaii again some day. We went this summer with my Dad to a convention. Sometimes I'd go water sking. I tried it before when I went with my Dad. It was hard to stand up. Then the next day a native boy was playing on the beach. His name was John. John taught me to surf bored. It was too difficult for me. John was good on it. He told me he started when he was five years old. The next day he took me to a pineapple plantation. His father owns the pineapple plantation. His father gave me and John a big pineapple split in half. John and I sat under a palm tree and ate the pineapple. John's mother gave us some carnations, and John made a beautiful necklace, and put it around my neck. The next day we had to go home. I felt pretty bad about going. I'll never forget that wonderful land Hawaii.

A boy's or girl's name was typed at the bottom of each essay. Essay 1 was supposedly written by either John or Janice Masters while Essay 2 was supposedly written by either Sam or Susan Johnson. Each student teacher received a copy of both essays, supposedly written by John Masters and Susan Johnson respectively or by

Janice Masters and Sam Johnson respectively. The names of the alleged writer were placed at the bottom of the essay and under the names "Room 26, Grade V'", was typed. Each essay was typed on a single page. Following the two essays there was a short questionnaire which asked for background information on the student teachers.

RESULTS

The data was analyzed using one-way analyses of variance in which both grades and number of corrections were treated as independent variables. The number of cases, mean ratings, and the standard deviations for Essay 1 are reported in Table 1.

TABLE 1

Ratings on Essay 1

NAME	N	Grades X	S.D.
John Masters Janice Masters	50 51	79.06 75.39	9.33 7.49
		Corrections	
John Masters Janice Masters	55 56	5.55 7.50	3.58 3.22

TABLE 2

Ratings on Essay 2

NAME	N	Grades X	S.D.
Sam Johnson Susan Johnson	51 49	75.55 78.71	8.00 8.49
		Corrections	
Sam Johnson Susan Johnson	58 63	7.19 6.02	3.27 2.95

Analysis of the data resulted in significant effects for both grades (F= 4.76, p = .03) and corrections (F = 9.16, p= .003). That is, John Masters had significantly higher grades than Janice Masters while, at the same time, he had significantly fewer corrections than she had.

Table 2 reports the number of cases, mean ratings, and the standard deviations for Essay 2. In the analysis of this data, Susan Johnson had significantly higher grades than Sam Johnson (F = 3.70, p =.05) and, at the same time, she had significantly fewer corrections than he had (F = 3.90, p = .05).

Two-way analyses of variances were used to examine the effect of pupil's name along with the effects of the student teacher's sex, program of study (elementary or secondary), and year of university. The main effects of the student teachers' characteristics were not significant. Moreover, no significant interaction effects were obtained.

DISCUSSION

Two of the most common sources of information that a teacher or student teacher can use in evaluating a pupil are the child's sex and his or her performance. This study was designed to examine the effect of the former while holding the latter constant. The results illustrate a significant sex effect upon both grades and corrections evaluated by a sample of student teachers.

These results suggest that student teachers hold expectations for pupils which are based, to a significant degree, upon their sex. Such results may be explained in terms of social learning theory which suggests two ways in which sex-role socialization may occur. First, children may learn sex roles through the differential application of rewards and punishments and, second, sex roles maybe learned by the imitation of available models (Bandura, 1969: 185-196). This theory proposes that teachers may either consciously or unconsciously reward masculine behavior in boys, feminine behavior in girls, and punish cross-sex behavior.

In this respect, it is observed that active and aggressive behavior is exhibited to a greater degree in Essay 1, the essay in which the boy received a higher grade and fewer corrections, while passive and less aggressive behavior is exhibited in Essay 2, the essay in which the girl received a higher grade and less corrections. The differences in activity and aggression, between the two essays, is very subtle. Nevertheless, previous research suggests that very subtle cues may be used as a means of assessing pupils' sex-role behavior (Maccoby, 1966; Maccoby and Jacklin, 1974; Pellegrano and Williams, 1973; Richer, 1979; Serbin et al., 1973).

It was also observed that the characteristics of the student teachers were not related to their evaluation of the essays. Of these, the most important may be year of university. Specifically, it was expected that year of university would mediate the relationship between sex and the ratings of pupils. That is, it was expected that the more education student teachers received, the more analytical and objective they would become and the less inclined they would be to use extraneous factors, such as sex, in their evaluation of pupils' essays. Contrary to this expectation, it was discovered that student teachers in their third and fourth years were just as likely to hold sex-role stereotypes as student teachers in their first year.

Moreover, it was expected that female student teachers would be less likely than male student teachers to hold stereotypes based upon sex. This expectation was derived from the publicity given sex-role stereotyping in recent years and the fact that it has often been assumed that females would be less likely to hold sex-role stereotypes than males (Pyke, 1977). Nevertheless, in this analysis it was discovered that there were virtually no differences in sex-role stereotyping.

The results of this study suggest that sex-role stereotyping is prevalent among student teachers and that year of university does not eliminate this bias. Perhaps this phenomenon should be recognized and counteracted by Faculties of Education. Such a strategy may result in increased equality for both boys and girls.

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STUDENT RIGHTS IN NEWFOUNDLAND AND THE UNITED STATES: A COMPARATIVE STUDY'

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The Problem of Student Rights

The student rights movement which rocked educational establishments in the United States and in scattered parts of Canada is hardly known in Newfoundland. To be sure, student demonstrations and petitions have occurred occasionally in this province. Yet these activities which have caused fleeting consternation among educators and concern in the public mind appear more to be spontaneous reaction to certain lacks and inconveniences in the physical conditions of schools. There has not been any authentic attempt in the province to establish the recognition and the guaranteeing of rights or entitlements claimed to be inherently deserved by students. Indeed, there seems to be little, if any, consciousness on their part that, even as students, they are entitled to certain rights which presently they do not enjoy.

This is not to say that Newfoundland students, as students, actually do not have any rights. The Province's Schools Act contains some provisions that at least implicitly entail or imply some student rights. Moreover, that school boards have wide discretionary power in the conduct of schools makes it possible for students to exercise certain rights granted to them at the discretion of school boards, whether as a matter of informal practice or of formal, written policy.

The fact remains, however, that very little is known of the status of student rights in Newfoundland. It would seem imperative, before any espousal of student rights is pursued, that a better picture of the situation is obtained. This article is therefore an attempt to present such a picture.

To etch a sharper focus on the Newfoundland situation, the status of student rights in the province is viewed in the context of the development of student rights in the United States. This reference to the American situation seems inescapable. This is because discontent in the Canadian or local situation can often be traced to feelings or perceptions that one's group or groups have been treated inequitably in comparison with comparable groups elsewhere. The latter serve as reference for comparison, which soon ends up with the question: If students elsewhere have been granted numerous rights, why are these rights denied to us?

Canadian human rights activists have frequently expressed envy towards the remarkable legal development in many areas of life in the United States. It has become an expectation that every so often, the American Supreme Court would hand down landmark pronouncements intended to secure and enforce the rights of American citizens. On the broad social scale, no one could fail to mark the vigor with which the Warren Court (19531969) spear-headed the progress in civil rights, the administration of criminal justice, the protection of individual liberties, and the strengthening and extension of political democracy.' In the area of our present concern, the zeal of the U.S. Court is no less evident. Tinker v. Des Moines Independent Community School District, Goss v. Lopez, and Wood v. Strickland are three noteworthy decisions which are

conceded to have altered, considerately and indelibly, the status of student rights in American schools.

Tinker v. Des Moines Independent Community School District (1969) unequivocally affirmed the fundamental constitutional rights of students. Noting that neither teachers nor students shed their constitutional rights to freedom of speech or expression at the schoolhouse gate, the U.S. Supreme Court declared that in the absence of a specific showing of constitutionally valid reasons to regulate their speech, students are entitled to freedom or expression of their views. In Goss v. Lopez (1975), the Court recognized the student's right to due process. It ruled that schools are required to set up at least minimal hearing procedures for students before they can be suspended. And, as if a sequel to Goss v. Lopez, Wood v. Strickland, decided in the same year, held that school officials are liable for damages if they abridge the civil rights of students.

Largely as a result of these cases, many American school boards have sought to conform to judicial requirements by setting down student codes of rights and responsibilities. Such codes spell out formally, and in detail, the entitlements of students within each school board. In light of this American development, there arises the intriguing question: How do Newfoundland students compare with their American counterparts?

To answer this question, the participation of superintendents was enlisted in this author's comparative study of student rights. Questionnaires were sent to all district superintendents in Newfoundland and to one-hundred selected superintendents in Wisconsin, U.S.A. Twenty-three Newfoundland superintendents or their representatives and fifty-six from Wisconsin finally responded. The questionnaire asked superintendents whether certain itemized rights are granted or not to their students as a matter of board policy, and whether or not the policy is included in a formal school board document or statement. The rights were grouped under the following headings or areas:

I. Free speech;
II. Free press;
III. Free association;
IV. Personal appearance;
V. Privacy;
VI. Reasonable punishment;
VII. Due process; and
VIII. Rights in academic matters.

A Comparative Portrait

Perhaps the comparison between Newfoundland and American school boards can best be discussed by employing the descriptive terms "conservative" and "liberal". The conservative syndrome, as Vallee and Whyte point out, is made up of "a tendency to be guided by tradition; to accept the decision-making of elites, many of whom virtually or actually inherit their positions; to put a strong emphasis on the maintenance of order and predictability."[2] Conversely, liberalism is characterized by a tendency to depart from tradition, to emphasize participatory democracy, and willingly to acceptor tolerate some degree of uncertainty and instability as a price to pay for novelty and progress. Using this definition, sociologists have generally agreed that the conservative syndrome is the most noticeable trait of the Canadian society.[3] The American society, on the other hand, is

seen comparatively to exhibit the liberal character .41t should prove interesting to examine whether this general characterization of the two countries is shown by our study in the area of student rights.

The right to free speech. In light of the conceded conservatism of the Canadian society in comparison with its American counterpart, it should be a surprise that Newfoundland school boards stand favorably vis-avis American school boards in relation to the area of free speech. At least with reference to some specific freedoms, the Canadian conservatism is not confirmed, insofar as Newfoundland educators, even more than their American counterparts, show willingness to grant civil liberties to students. If the dictum that "children are to be seen but not heard" is a trite expression of the conservative ethos, Newfoundland school boards are anything but conservative. It is true that a greater percentage of American school boards have it as policy to grant students the right to criticize educators and their policies publicly (I, 1); the right to use symbolic materials (1, 4); and the right to invite controversial speakers (I, 8). However, a greater percentage of Newfoundland school boards would allow students the freedoms to incite others to demonstrate (1, 2); to express political or ideological views in school during off hours (1, 3); to protest or demonstrate on campus grounds (I, 5); to invite speakers without consulting school authorities (1, 6); and to invite speakers who advocate violent overthrow of government (I, 7). It could also be seen that, as might be expected, both the Newfoundland and American school boards harden their positions as the freedom claimed edges closer to the possibility of disorder or violence. Thus from a high of 86% (Nfld.)/84% (Wis.) for student right to express political views (I, 3), and of 81% (Nfld.)/84% (Wis.) for student right to use symbolic materials (I, 4), school board liberalism dips to 10% (Nfld.)/2% (Wis.)for freedom to invite speakers who advocate overthrow of government and to 19% (Nfld.)/9% (Wis.) for freedom to invite speakers without consulting school authorities.

The right to free press. Both Newfoundland and American school boards appear considerably more conservative in relation to the right to free press. Their liberal stance reaches no more than 52% (Nfld.)/ 66% (Wis.) for student freedom to include in student papers those articles that deal with sensitive or controversial topics (I1, 4, I); and 48% (Nfld.)/77% (Wis.) for freedom to write articles critical of educators and their policies. On the other hand, their negative reach is deep indeed: to as low as 0% (Nfld.)/5% (Wis.) for freedom to write articles containing obscene or illicit materials. Incidentally, these last figures are some indication that both school boards are concerned, as will be gathered from other indications later, not only with maintenance of school order, but also with insisting on school morality. Moreover, while both show some willingness to tolerate written criticism of educators and to see in print student treatment of sensitive topics in general, nevertheless, they become increasingly uncompromising when such treatment becomes serious enough to approach likely disorder or obscenity.

Their similar inclinations on the freedom of press, notwithstanding, American school boards definitely show greater liberalism on most indicators in this area with the exception of 11, 5 (inclusion of radical/subversive advertisement in student papers) and II, 7 (freedom to choose their faculty adviser).

The right to form or join associations. In some contrast with the preceding area, school boards show marked liberalism in relation to the student right to form or join associations. Thus 81% (Nfld.)/89% (Wis.) of the respondent school boards grant their students the freedom to join any school organization provided they stay within a certain range set by the school authorities. Also, 76% (Nfld.)/86% (Wis.) allow students to join

any organization based outside the campus. The lowest percentages of positive response in this area are registered in relation to III, 2 (the freedom to form socio-political or pious clubs whose views or beliefs go counter to community views), to which 29% (Nfld./54% (Wis.) of the respondents conceded. In this area, over-all Canadian conservatism as contrasted with American liberalism is rather evident. However, the Newfoundland and American school boards reverse their comparative positions in relation to students' freedom to choose their club's adviser. Fifty-seven percent (57%) of Newfoundland school boards, as against 30% for their American counterpart, responded to this item positively. This confirms an earlier figure registered for student freedom to choose their faculty adviser for student paper purposes. But this confirmation simply reinforces the curious situation in which an over-all American picture of liberalism is dotted by a rather isolated liberalism on the part of the Newfoundland school boards.

The right to personal appearance and behavior. This survey definitely confirms that the right to personal appearance, at least within certain bounds of decency and within health or safety requirements, has been achieved by students whether in Newfoundland or in the United States. Thus, 90% (Nfld.)/89°/a (Wis.) of the school boards indicate that male students are free to sport long hair, while 90% (Nfld.)/91 % (Wis.) allow female students to come to class with hairdos of their choice. Similarly, 71% (Nfld.)/64% (Wis.) state that their schools do not impose any dress code on students. Despite this, however, there are some things that are still pretty much forbidden in the schools or on campus. Thus, kissing or intimate embrace is verboten, allowed only by minuscule percentages: 5% in the Newfoundland situation, and 4% for the American counterpart. But smoking is seen as a worse offense: absolutely no school board allows smoking in the classroom, whether in Newfoundland or in the United States. Perhaps as a concession to the unavoidable, 67%(Nfld.)/39% (Wis.) specify areas where a student may smoke.

No straightforward conclusions can be made about the comparative liberalism or conservatism of the two school boards in relation to student right to personal appearance and behaviour. While they have a fairly close stand on some specific rights (IV, 1, 2, 5, and 7) they differ widely in others (IV, 3, 4, and 6); and while Newfoundland school boards veer towards greater conservatism on some matters, they tend to be liberal on others.

The right to privacy. Close correspondence, save in one instance, can be seen between the Newfoundland and the American school boards in connection with their stance in the area of student privacy. By and large both boards (Nfld. - 86%; Wis. - 91 %) regard it to be within their competence to undertake searches of student lockers and desks. The underlying idea seems to be that lockers and desks are school property and thus are subject to the inspection by school authority. In contrast to this, only 52% (Nfld.)/57% (Wis.) of the boards allow the search of student bags and briefcases. Similarly again, they are much in agreement (Nfld. - 90%;Wis. - 91%) that teachers and school authorities may not talk (although they do, as some respondents have pointed out) about confidential student information except in professional situations. Wide divergence is registered, however, in relation to the release of information from a student's personal file. While only 24% of the Nfld. school boards would withhold such information without student consent, 89% of American school boards would do so. Respondents' comments would indicate that for the former school boards, the source of consent is the parent, although some American respondents note that parental consent is required together with that of the student.

The right to reasonable punishment. Apparently, both school boards still believe that expulsion and long-term suspension are acceptable as modes of punishment in the schools. About 86% (Nfld.)/88% (Wis.) of them would expel or suspend students for serious offenses. On the other hand, they both seem to frown upon the individual teacher spanking or strapping students according to his sole discretion. Only 19% (Nfld.)/27% (Wis.) would allow their teachers to do so. However, they have adopted significantly different positions on other matters. Thus only 19% of Nfld. boards, as against 48% for their American counterparts, require schools to have a code or a statement containing a list of punishable school offenses although such a statement is an important ingredient of a fair administration of disciplinary justice. And while 71% of the Nfld. boards allow the infliction of physical punishment on pupils, only 46% of their American counterpart do so. Similarly, while a majority (57%) of the former allow the suspension or expulsion of a student who has been convicted of a crime or offense by civil authorities, only a minority (46%) of the latter do.

The right to due process. At surface, Newfoundland and American school boards appear similarly to recognize the need for certain procedures before a student is subjected to expulsion or long-term suspension. Thus 86% (Nfld.)/98% (Wis.) of the boards require that students and parents be served a notice of hearing and that they be informed of the students' alleged offenses. However, a far greater percentage of American school boards provide for certain procedural steps largely unprovided for in the Newfoundland situation. Thus, for example, while 95% of the former inform parents/students that the student has a right to legal counsel, only 48% of the latter do so.

Paradoxically, and for undetermined reasons, while 86% of the Newfoundland respondents require serving notice of a hearing to the student and his parents, only 19% would require a hearing. This could possibly be explained by suggesting that Newfoundland school boards perhaps conceive of a hearing in terms of an informal conference among school authorities, parents, and students- not in terms of the elaborate procedures required in most American' schools. It is instructive that among Newfoundland school boards, only 24% would (a) inform the student of his right to remain silent; 43% would require (b) presentation of evidence and witnesses against the student; 33% would permit (c) cross-examination; 38% would allow (d) presentation of evidence and witnesses on behalf of the student; and 38% would (e) record the proceedings of the hearing. This compares, quite significantly and unfavorably, against the American percentages: 77% for (a); 91 % for (b); 91 % for (c); 91 for (d); and 88% for (e).

While both school boards (90% for Nfld.; 93% for Wis.) require school authorities to undertake certain uniform procedures leading to short-term suspension of a student, they differ in the aspects of the process that they emphasize. Based on the volunteered information from some respondents, it may be suggested that Nfld. school boards see warning to the student and notification of his parent as important parts of the disciplinary mechanism. This mechanism is a minimal one, however. Once the warning and the notification about student problem have been issued, suspension can be declared without a hearing. In contrast, American responses would indicate that school boards south of the Canadian border attempt to require some rudiments of a hearing. Among these are the presentation of charges and evidence against the student, an explanation of the evidence, and student presentation of his case.

The right to academic matters. Despite much clamor for student participation in academic processes which arose both in the United States and in Canada during the late Sixties and the late Seventies, apparently little was achieved in the area of student academic freedom. Thus only 5% (Nfld.)/11% (Wis.) would grant students freedom to determine the content of their subjects, and only 10% (Nfld.)/16% (Wis.) would allow them to decide on the manner or methods of going about their work in their subjects. American students seem to enjoy more in relation to representation in policymaking committees or bodies (61% v. 19% for Nfld.) and in curricular committees (43% v. 14% for Nfld.). At this point, it may also be noted that students, particularly in Newfoundland, are given little participation in the formulation of codes or guidelines which are sometimes made available (IV, 6 and VI, 2).

American students also fare better, percentage wise, with reference to the determination of their elective subjects. About 80% of their school boards, as against 48% for Nfld., give them a final say on the matter. Surprisingly a substantial percentage of Newfoundland and American school boards grant students the final say in determining which stream (vocational, academic, etc.) to go into. The figures registered for the last two indicators should be treated with caution, however. On both of these matters (VIII, 1 and 2), some boards require parental consent or signature. The requirement of parental consent is even more pronounced in connection with the placement of a student in a special class based on ability or talent. About 24% (Nfld.)/34% (Wis.) would give students a final say in this respect. Even so, comments from respondents show that parental consent, together with that of the student, is frequently required.

General conclusions on substantive policies. In light of the recent legal developments in the field of education in the United States, one would be inclined to expect very pronounced differences between American and Newfoundland school boards as far as their policies on students rights are concerned. This study, however, does not bear out that expectation consistently. Nevertheless, there are differences and, in terms of liberalism or a tendency to provide for student claims, these differences generally incline in favor of the American school boards. While the differences are negligible in areas I, 11, III, IV, and V (with some notable exceptions), nevertheless significant differences are registered in areas VI, VII and 'VIII. In what may be regarded as positive indicators of liberalism in area VI (1, 2 & 4), American response averages 46% as against 18% for Newfoundland; on the other hand, in the items indicative of the conservative or "hard" position against students (3, 4, 6, & 7), the latter school boards register a greater percentage: 58% v. 52%. More significant differences appear in areas VII and VIII. The richness of due process requirements to safeguard a fair treatment of students in the United States is evident from the average positive response of 91% for the U.S. school boards. This contrasts sharply with an average of 49% for their Newfoundland counterpart. Similarly, in relation to academic matters (area VIII), the American positive response averages 45%; Newfoundland school boards manage only 27%.

General conclusions on the status of school policies. It would seem natural to expect that the U.S. Supreme Court rulings on student rights will have spurred American school boards onto explicitly for emulating their official policies on such rights. The current American situation, if the State of Wisconsin is any indication at all, goes against the natural expectation to a large degree. Clearly, in each of four areas (I, II, III, & VIII), only about a quarter of the American school boards in the average have officially adopted policies on specific student rights. In each of three other areas (IV, V, VI), rights

are officially provided for by less than half of the boards. It is only in one area (VII) that a somewhat impressive percentage is recorded.

Even so, however, the American figures are bound to appear remarkable when compared with the corresponding figures registered for Newfoundland school boards. The sharp comparison emerges as follows:

Areas	Nfld. %	Wis. %
I. Free speech	6	23
11. Free press	4	26
III. Association	7	22
IV. Personal appearance	25	44
V. Privacy	13	46
VI. Reasonable punishment	32	49
VII. Due process	29	69
VIII. Academic matters	14	29

Based on the figures above, we would be justified in making the observation that the most noticeable difference between Newfoundland and American school boards is the extent or the degree to which they have consciously and deliberately drawn official policies in relation to student rights.

This difference has, of course, great significance. The fact that a school board has formally laid down straight rights in the form of codes or bills of rights signifies its commitment to impose upon itself certain agreed upon relationships with students. It also provides some standards against which board actions can be judged, legally or otherwise. Codification could thus effectively forestall any possibility, conscious or unconscious, of treating students arbitrarily or of dealing with them as expediency dictates.

While it is heartening to note the liberal stance among many school boards in the Province, it may be noted that much of their response is, in fact, hypothetical. Because, by and large, school boards have not encountered situations calling for the granting or denial of the rights itemized in this study, the questions we posed to them took on, in Effect the following form: "If students did this (or asked for that), would you or wouldn't you allow (or grant) it?" Realizing the disparity between real events and hypothetical ones, we are not sure how far the liberal stances of school boards will be actualized. Thus, it appears desirable to formulate codes of student rights and responsibilities in order to ensure the actualization of desired hypothetical situations.

In the formulation of student rights, the democratic process of participation by, or consultation with, affected groups may be suggested. In particular, at least consultation with students is called for. If nothing else, this will foster in them an awareness of the extent or limit of allowable conduct in school.

NOTES

1. This article, except for a few paragraphs added for continuity, has been lifted from my monograph with the same title, which has been published by the Publications Committee of the Faculty of Education, M.U.N., recently.

2. Frank Vallee and Donald Whyte, "Canadian Society: Trends and Perspectives," in **Canadian Society**, ed. Bernard Blishen, **et. al.** (Toronto: Macmillan of Canada, 1971), p. 559.

3. **Ibid.**

4. S.M. Lipset, "Revolution and Counter-revolution: The United States and Canada," in **The Canadian Political Process:** A **Reader,** ed. Orest M. Kruhlak, **et. al.** (Toronto: Holt, Rinehart and Winston of Canada, 1970), pp. 13-38.

TRENDS IN NON-URBAN SCHOOL SYSTEMS

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Introduction

One of the most difficult tasks encountered in discussing "non-urban" or "rural" is that of definition. Although most people claim to understand the concept, they can seldom define it precisely. It has different meanings when viewed historically, statistically, or philosophically. For the purpose of this discussion, the Statistics Canada definition of rural has been accepted: namely, that Canada's rural population includes all persons other than (1) those living in incorporated cities, towns and villages with a population of 1,000 or more, (2) those living in unincorporated places of 1,000 or more having a population density of at least 1,000 per square mile, and (3) those living in built-up fringes of (1) and (2) having a minimum population of 1,000 and a density of at least 1,000 per square mile.

Using the Statistics Canada definition, rural Canada obviously exists. But rural-urban differences have been greatly eroded over time. Rural residence is no longer necessarily related to farming and fishing occupations. While there are many people migrating to urban areas, there are some moving to rural areas to get away from urban living. They commute daily to their work in urban centers and may even transport their children to schools in these centers. For these and other reasons, there are people living in urban areas who exhibit behaviors traditionally associated with rural residence, while there are others living in rural areas who possess characteristics which are quite urban-like. Therefore, there can no longer be any general definition, pattern, or stereotype of rural lifestyle. Rather, it is a matter of emphasis.

The same answer may be given to the question: Is there such a thing as rural education? Urban and rural education are so related and rural conditions vary so widely that there can be no general stereotype of a rural school system. The rural educational scene is very much affected by what is happening elsewhere. We are inhabitants of a global village where urban problems are linked to the rural, and rural linked to the urban, with national, even international, developments affecting the domestic rural and urban situation.

I have assumed in this presentation, however, that there is some utility to using the rural label: that there are certain educational needs, problems, and trends that are unique to those areas defined as rural. After sketching very briefly some relevant parameters of rural Canada, I shall outline a number of trends in rural school systems and make certain suggestions for the future. Relatively few statistics will be used.

Selected Educational Trends in Rural Areas

In this discussion of trends I have tried to avoid the pitfall of being too specific, and confined myself to more general possibilities. Some of the trends reflect continuing developments, while others may more properly be categorized as anticipated shifts.

Continuing Concern for Rural Educational Inequalities

Today, we can see some indication that the needs of rural areas and smaller communities are being moved down the list of national priorities and concerns. The sheer magnitude of urban problems looms so large on the national horizon that they cannot be ignored. By contrast, the dispersed nature of rural areas has tended to dilute the urgency of rural needs. This has been particularly so in education. Whereas in the 1960's, education was a recognized and even respectable component of development plans and strategies, particularly in disadvantaged areas, this no longer seems to be the case. There are fewer claims that education is the key to economic development or the primary means of solving many of the other basic social problems.

I do not think, however, that there has been a loss of interest in rural education. There is widespread concern over the quality of rural schools in this country. The reasons for this are more basic than the need for more economic activity and employment in the rural areas. They relate to the importance of providing equality of educational opportunity as a human right. Supported by court decisions, we can expect to hear more demands for such equality in the future.

It is now fully recognized that any attempt to change the educational scene in rural areas, without concurrent efforts to affect change in the social, economic, and political areas of community life, will have very limited impact. The socio-economic levels of the homes of rural students, for example, tend to limit educational and occupational perspectives. Parents who themselves have limited educational and occupational experiences are likely to be equally disadvantaged in providing guidance to their children. Possibly related to socio-economic status are other attitudes found among rural children which may further hinder their progress: relatively low self-esteem, feelings of helplessness in the face of seemingly difficult environmental handicaps, and a low level of confidence in the value of education as an answer to their problems.

Developing Educational Programs and Practices Unique to Rural Areas

Educators developing programs for schools in rural areas have faced a real dilemma. On the one hand, they have been called upon to design a curriculum adequate for entry into post-secondary institutions or employment in urban settings, while, on the other, they have been asked to respond to the needs of those who plan to live in rural areas; to "ruralize" the curriculum by giving students the kind of training that would be of immediate benefit for their environment, particularly agriculture, homemaking, and so on. This is a tall order. Educators attempting to meet it have often been charged with ignoring the rural component; of seeking to have smaller, rural schools mirror larger, urban ones in programs, practices, procedures, and outcomes. They have been accused of providing urban solutions to rural problems; of preparing children for lives in the urban environment they see as being inevitable; of aiding, and perhaps hastening, the process of decay of our rural communities.

As I mentioned earlier, finding an answer to this problem is a major undertaking. Some rural youth need special skills to permit them to be productive in farming, fishing, or other extractive industries. Others will be competing for jobs in the business, manufacturing, and governmental sectors. For both migrants and non-migrants, higher quality education is the route to higher incomes and greater personal satisfaction.

In a recent speech to the Halifax Conference on Education and Underdevelopment in Atlantic Canada, M.P. David MacDonald claimed that one prerequisite to autonomous self-development in the region was the confidence to act. In this context he quoted Julius Nyerere, President of Tanzania, that education was a process of "mental liberation" which freed one from the habit of submitting to circumstances without first considering if they were immutable. For Nyerere, mental liberation was the first vital step on the way to full freedom or autonomy, that allowed one to explore alternatives and make critical choices unhindered by the mentality of dependence.

I believe that those responsible for planning education in rural areas are attempting in some small way to meet this challenge. They must develop programs that equip young people for modern living and at the same time provide the critical abilities and the confidence to develop in rural areas progressive communities that give inhabitants the opportunity to achieve a reasonable standard of living in return for their labour. Students should be helped to deal effectively with their environment, be it rural or urban.

Promoting Community Education

While community education is not unique to rural areas, it is seen as a mechanism with great potential for revitalizing rural education and rural society. This approach is being advocated as a means whereby rural people themselves identify needed change, initiate that change, and utilize a broad range of resources that already exist within the community itself to implement it.

From a review of the literature, the following are proposed here as the major components of community education.

1. An educational program for school-age children. This component has been the primary concern of school districts in the past. Today, however, there is increased emphasis on using the resources of the community (human and material) to enhance regular classroom teaching.

2. Additional programs for school-age children and youth. These include enrichment and remedial programs, as well as recreational, cultural, and vocational programs.

3. Programs for adults. These include basic skill courses and high school completion programs as well as recreational, cultural, and vocational programs judged to be important by the adults themselves.

4. Delivery and co-ordination of community services. There appears to be a great need for improved delivery of social services, relating problems to resources and making referrals to the appropriate agency.

5. The promotion of community involvement. The idea here is to help people who live in an area to identify local problems and to develop the procedures for attempting to solve these problems.

There are some who claim that the most important components of community education are those dealing primarily with process (Item 4 and 5 above) rather than

programs (Item 1 to 3). They suggest that the ultimate goals of community education are: (1) to encourage co-operation and co-ordination among individuals, groups, and organizations to avoid unnecessary duplication of services and efforts, (2) to develop processes through which individual and community needs are identified, and (3) to provide an opportunity for groups, organizations, and institutions to meet together in a concerted, cooperative attack on the problems facing them. My view is that both program-oriented and process-oriented components are interrelated and important. The program -oriented components might be the first to be implemented, leaving the process components until later. The ultimate goal would be to achieve the total concept by maximum development of all components.

A variety of community education programs are being devised across Canada. Provinces that have demonstrated special interest in the concept include British Columbia, Alberta, Ontario, and Prince Edward Island.

Regionalization

One of the most significant developments in rural education over the past two or three decades has been the consolidation of school districts and schools. With the help of fleets of school buses, reorganized districts and reorganized schools have made expanded educational opportunities available to many young people who otherwise would have been denied them. In a long-term comprehensive study of consolidation, Kreitlow (1971) concluded that reorganized districts provided more learning opportunities, the students had consistently higher achievement test scores, and they completed high school with a six - and a thirteen-month advantage in mental maturity for boys and girls respectively.

Despite progress in the consolidation of school districts, many rural children are still provided with a limited set of educational services. As a politically acceptable compromise to further consolidation, the intermediate or regional unit is being proposed as a means of providing on a shared basis programs and services which local districts and other agencies are unable to provide independently. Included in the services that may be co-operatively provided for children are special education programs, vocational programs, health programs, transportation services, and psychological services. Those relating to teacher personnel generally include curriculum development, the design and production of instructional materials, the provision of audio-visual services, and the development and implementation of in-service programs, while services to administrators may include comprehensive planning, planning school facilities, research and evaluation of programs, and centralized purchasing. Services to the community could include social services to families, programs of cultural enrichment, and adult and continuing educational programs.

No single type of intermediate unit or regional service agency has developed in North America. Multi district units range all the way from those which provide purely a planning function to those operating specific programs. Local conditions and needs do and should form the basis upon which a regional organization is established. In Canada, regional offices of various types exist in Alberta, Manitoba, Ontario, New Brunswick, and Newfoundland. Offices in Alberta have been the subject of considerable study and evaluation.

Revitalizing Small Schools

For many years, small schools have been the centre of considerable controversy. Most of their critics have had a singular solution to the problem - that of consolidation. They claim that larger schools have more diversified curriculum offerings, more up-to-date instructional materials and supplies, better laboratories and libraries, broader student services such as guidance and counselling, and more specialized staff.

In some cases, however, consolidation has proved to be only partially successful. There are areas where geographical limitations make it physically impossible to consolidate. Long bus trips are the order of the day for many students who travel to consolidated schools. Students claim that they have become alienated from large schools. Some parents, too, have claimed that education has become big business, foreign to the local community.

Although genuine problems and disadvantages exist in small schools, educators have begun to rediscover the inherent strengths and values of such schools. They suggest that in a small school individualized instruction is possible and there can be a greater sense of togetherness among students, parents, teachers, and the community. It is thus possible to have students develop and grow within their own natural setting, under the control of local citizens. They claim that innovations can be more easily implemented, that there are fewer problems of student discipline, and students may participate in more extracurricular activities. Finally, it is claimed that the small rural school can greatly contribute to rural redevelopment and the enrichment of rural life through the process of community education.

In the United States, many small school projects and organizations have been established as a means of improving the small school. Examples include the Western States Small School Project, the Texas Small Schools Project, the Oregon Small School Project, the Rocky Mountain Area Project for Small High Schools, the Upper Midwest Small Schools Project, and the Alaska Rural Schools Project. The Rural Education Association has also given leadership in the improvement of small schools.

While we have not experienced the same degree of concern about small schools in Canada, certain studies and projects have been undertaken. Studies include these by Downey (1965), Scharf (1974), and a British Columbia Special Committee (1974). The Manitoba Department of Education has set up a program called Rural Education Alternatives Program (REAP) to enable small schools to enhance their advantages and offset their disadvantages by strengthening school-community ties. This program represents the kind of initiative that should be taken throughout the country (CEA Newsletter, 1974).

Undoubtedly, there are many small schools that should not continue to exist in their present form. Their students would get a much better education if they were consolidated and merged into larger units. But there are materials, organizational structures, and strategies that may make educational opportunities much improved for those who are forced or choose to attend such schools, including greater use of technology, more flexible grouping of students and teachers, greater use of community resources, the use of paraprofessionals, and work-study programs.

Fiscal Reform

Typically, rural school districts have consistently spent less money on education than have urban districts. Because of this, various disadvantages have emerged. A cyclic effect has materialized which perpetuates the problem. The differential in fiscal ability to support educational programs is reflected in less than adequate facilities and instructional materials, a high rate of teacher turnover, fewer and less effective special services, and ultimately a higher dropout rate. This has helped to contribute to high unemployment and underemployment rates and, in turn, to fewer taxable resources.

There is little doubt that comparable, high-quality programs in small schools require higher student expenditures than in larger ones. Add to this the fact that rural areas have long suffered deprivation and the need to discriminate positively in favour of rural areas becomes even more essential. In my view, an equitable financing system is one in which greater educational resources are allocated to those students who come to school with the greatest learning problems and the greatest social disadvantage.

Some provinces have attempted to provide greater equality of educational opportunity by moving towards full provincial funding of education. A few have changed financial formulas to weight for specific groups of students such as the handicapped, the culturally disadvantaged, students in small schools, and students being transported. What remains now is for the federal government to become more fully involved in the provision of greater equality of educational opportunity for elementary and secondary students in all parts of the country. The time has come for the federal government to place a financial floor under an adequate system of elementary and secondary education that assures every Canadian the right to a basic education.

The Recruitment and Retention of More Qualified Teachers

The decline in school enrolments and the graduation of large numbers of teachers have combined to increase the ability of rural schools to recruit and hold more qualified professional personnel. While the disadvantages of isolation, restricted cultural and entertainment-oriented opportunities, and the lack of professional growth provisions continue to contribute to the reluctance of some to locate in rural areas, many well-qualified teachers are now found in schools which may be classified as rural.

It should be noted, however, that there may be problems associated with the fact that some highly qualified teachers accept positions in rural schools because jobs are not available in an urban system or larger school. The simple fact that rural positions are "least preferred" by some does not contribute to an enthusiastic atmosphere or real commitment to the community. Often, the main goal of such teachers is to get experience and obtain employment elsewhere. These teachers do not promote continuity and stability as far as their rural school involvement is concerned.

There have also been increased efforts to provide more adequate in-service education programs for teachers in rural areas. The relatively low rate of teacher mobility, particularly among the less qualified, has underlined the need for such programs.

Conclusions

There are a number of conclusions that may be drawn from this discussion of educational trends in rural areas.

These include the following:

1. There is continued interest in and concern about the plight of rural education by society in general. Schools in rural areas continue to educate significant numbers of children. The widespread belief that sooner or later everyone will move to urban areas and live happily ever after is factually false and morally offensive.

2. Policy must be developed which will be specifically geared to the unique problems of rural education. The solutions proposed for urban and suburban schools are not always applicable or susceptible to direct transfer to rural areas. If rural solutions are to be guaranteed, there must be adequate mechanisms for policy input from those persons most directly involved at the community level.

3. There are some potential strengths inherent in small rural schools that should be analyzed. The redesign of small schools should not be used, however, as a defense against school district and school consolidation where such consolidation is clearly in the interest of children.

4. Extensive school district and school reorganization, often prerequisites to improved quality, are not of themselves sufficient guarantees that small, isolated schools will offer high-quality, comprehensive educational programs for all children. Creative educational leadership, well-qualified and committed teachers, and widespread community support are essential to the progress of rural education.

5. Rural education needs special research and development attention. Wt,'le special studies may be undertaken to identify the needs and priorities of small schools, to propose pre-service and in-service education programs for small school personnel, and to outline research needs related to the small school, this matter should be the continuing concern of research institutes generally and provincial departments of education. To help focus on the needs of rural education, provincial departments could establish rural education divisions. Perhaps we can look forward to the time when the federal government will develop and adequately fund a national center for rural education to promote research and experimentation across the country.

6. To have any hope of success in improving rural education, we must be prepared to work across a number of fronts simultaneously, including resource development and the provision of improved social conditions as well as better education and manpower training.

What is needed most is for all levels of government and all development agencies to make an explicit commitment to rural Canada and to adopt policies that would permit fuller development of rural resources and opportunities and the revitalization of the rural socio-economic structure. One of the most important elements in such a commitment is the recognition that rural people should have the opportunity to enjoy an acceptable standard of living. The commitment of the federal government is particularly important.

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REVISION OF HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAMS AND THE INTRODUCTION OF GRADE TWELVE INTO NEWFOUNDLAND SCHOOLS - THE STUDENTS' POINTS OF VIEW

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Introduction

In December, 1978 the Newfoundland Ministry of Education Advisory Committee on Grade Twelve recommended to the Minister that:

1. an immediate decision be taken to add a twelfth grade to the Newfoundland secondary school system; and that,

2. planning for the implementation of that decision be commenced at once with a view to a phased introduction commencing with the Grade Ten class of 1980.

On the basis of these recommendations the Minister of Education at that time, the Honourable H.W. House, announced in February, 1979 that Grade Twelve would be introduced on a phase-in basis beginning with Grade Ten in 1980 and culminating with Grade Twelve in 1982. However, because of extra time needed for planning and development the implementation dates were postponed by one year so that the new high school programs will now be introduced beginning with Grade Ten in 1981 and the first Grade Twelve classes in 1983.

Following the ministerial announcement of the proposed introduction of new high school programs the Senior Coordinating Committee on Grade Twelve, which had been setup, issued a report on the proposed reorganization of the secondary school curriculum. This committee recommended the revamping of the whole high school curriculum taking into consideration five basic categories, viz., Basic Learning Skills, Heritage Studies, Civic Education, Personal Development and Specialized Studies. Through a credit system developed in conjunction with this curriculum plan, high school students would be expected to successfully complete between 36 and 42 credits (maximum of twenty-one core courses and twenty-one electives) from Grades Ten to Twelve in order to graduate from high school.

As a previous study has shown, there is substantial agreement among educational administrators and teachers on the proposed secondary school program revisions and the structure of Grade Twelve (see Parsons L., "The Introduction of Grade XII", M.U.N., Faculty of Education, November, 1979). However, in the design and implementation of such a major curriculum change it would be prudent to obtain the views of not only the educators but also those of the parents and students involved. This study attempts to discover the attitudes of Newfoundland high school students towards revised programs and the introduction of Grade Twelve.

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study, then, was to ascertain the attitudes of the Newfoundland high school students who were then enrolled in Grades Nine, Ten, and Eleven towards proposed revision of high school programs and the extension of

secondary school to Grade Twelve. More specifically, the study sought answers to the following questions:

1. How did students in Grades Nine, Ten, and Eleven think that present high school programs could be improved?

2. What new courses did they think should be included in revised high school programs? (Students were asked to consider courses under the categories of basic skills, heritage studies, civic education, personal development, specialized studies, including work-study programs as set forth in the Department of Education Sub-committee Report on Curriculum Reorganization, August, 1979).

3. If the high school students were given an opportunity to avail of a broadened curriculum would they like and be willing to continue high school until the successful completion of Grade Twelve?

4. What were students' attitudes towards an additional year of high school that would entail four years of study in a broadened curriculum compared with the present three years of high school study?

5. Specifically, what advantages did students perceive in a revised and broadened high school program that permitted progress to Grade Twelve through a credit system?

The purpose of the study was to seek student input so that revised programs may be as congruent to student needs and interests as possible. Before the Province implements a revised and extended high school program it would be prudent of administrators to ascertain what proportion of our students would avail of such programs. Coupled with this purpose was a deliberate process of getting students involved in thinking about their high school plans - after relevant information had been provided to them. Through this process it was felt that students would suggest several ways in which present programs might be improved. Students, then, would be asked to relate their present and future high school studies to their expectations for:

a. working life;
b. community life;
c. family life; and,
d. leisure life.

Materials Used in the Study

To help familiarize interviewers and interviewees with developments in the high school curriculum the following materials were used:

1. Comparative Educational Administration Lecture Series. A series of twenty-four lectures on the organization and administration of education in Canada presented by means of ETV.

2. Report of the Minister's Advisory Committee on Grade XII. Newfoundland Department of Education, December, 1978.

3. Report of the Sub-committee on Curriculum Reorganization. Newfoundland Department of Education, August, 1979.

4. "The Introduction of Grade Twelve Into Newfoundland Schools - Extending the Bases for Lifelong Education." A paper presented to the Faculty of Education, Memorial University of Newfoundland, November, 1979.

5. Grade Twelve - How Will It Affect You? Dennis Treslan (Ed.), A Report on a Seminar on Grade Twelve held at Memorial University, March 26, 1979.

Methodology

The object of the study was to ascertain the attitudes of students in Grades Nine, Ten, and Eleven toward the proposed revision of high school programs and the introduction of Grade Twelve. To this end a random sample stratified by grade and sex of 1,000 students was selected from the total population of high school students in the Province. Each of the students in the sample was interviewed regarding how they felt present programs might be improved, the new courses they would like to see introduced, whether they would like to continue to Grade Twelve if given the opportunity, their attitudes towards an additional year of high school and the specific advantages they perceived in a broadened high school curriculum.

To accomplish this task 159 teachers from twelve Part-time Studies and ETV Centres in the Province who were registered in the course Comparative Education Administration were each asked to randomly select in the district served by the centre six high school students - one male and one female - from each of Grades Nine, Ten, and Eleven. Each teacher was asked to familiarize the students with information provided through the documents and materials mentioned earlier, conduct structured interviews with the students, record their responses, summarize their answers to each of the five questions, and submit the data to the University for collation. The Part-time Studies and ETV Centres participating in the study were: Lewisporte, Port aux Basques, Placentia, Stephenville, Wabush-Labrador City, Lanse au Loup, Carbonear, Deer Lake, Bell Island, Gander, Churchill Falls, and Wesleyville. Students were selected from all the high schools in the districts served by these centres.

Treatment of the Data

In the collation and analysis-of data the responses to each of the five questions were analyzed separately and ranked according to the per cent of students who gave certain responses, and secondly ranked by the percentage this response was of all the responses for that particular question.

Analysis and Results

Responses to Question 1. How do you (the student) think the present high school programs can be improved?

All 954 students interviewed gave responses to this question. Their suggestions have been classified under five categories:

1. The secondary school system should narrow the gap between school learnings and the everyday concerns for the working life, community life, and family life. Eighty per cent of the students gave responses which came under this category while twenty-six per cent of the total responses for improvement were related to this gap between learnings and everyday concerns of the students as future workers and as members of community and family. Under this rubric of relevancy the students included these suggestions for improvement:

    - let the programs prepare people for the world of work;
    - help the high school student prepare for a vocation;
    - incorporate work-study programs and on-the-job training into high school fabric;
    - let the academic and vocational knowledge and skills be related to the resources of this Province, especially to the fishery;
    - provide courses related to our economic, social, rural, and employment problems;
    - allow for greater participation, discussion, and activity on the part of students;
    - provide the knowledge and skills so that Newfoundlanders can better function in the Canadian society in terms of job qualifications.

2. Broaden the curriculum (that set of activities set out for high school students) and permit time to acquire the necessary knowledge and skills.

Sixty-five per cent of the students gave responses which fitted into this category while twenty-one per cent of the responses for improvement were related to broadening the curriculum and providing time to complete. Under this category students made the following suggestions for improvement:

- let each teacher accept each student where he finds him;
- let each student advance at his own rate;
- teach the student according to his/her abilities and interests;
- respect students for what they are;
- avoid classifying students as those who "can make it" and "cannot make it";
- avoid "poisoning" students by having repetition of whole grades;
- motivate students by making available the opportunities and type of education suited to their abilities;
- stop classifying students into "academic" and "general" streams;
- change the methods of instruction, that is, have less dictation, more individualized instruction;
- provide the time so the student can progress at his own rate.

3. Improve the facilities.

Fifty-five per cent of the students gave responses which could be classified under this category while eighteen per cent of the suggestions for improvement related to the need to improve facilities. Specifically the students made the following suggestions:

- provide better library and laboratory facilities;
- provide more specialist teachers, especially in the areas of Chemistry, Physics, and Biology;
- tie the school facilities in with the community facilities; bring people from the community into the schools;

- have more flexible school day; make better use of school facilities;
- provide more time;
- make physical education an integral part of school life.

4. Foster the basic knowledge, concepts and skills, and have students apply them to daily living.

Forty-five per cent of the students mentioned improvements under this category while fifteen per cent of the total suggestions for improvement related to acquiring and applying basic knowledge, concepts, and skills. The suggestions made by the students included:

- providing more depth in science courses especially in Chemistry, Physics, Biology, and Geology, and relating these to resources and environment;
- science should be taught through concepts that each student can understand;
- English Language and Mathematics should become more relevant and functional;
- high school should provide the fundamentals for crafts and hobbies.

Responses to Question 2. What new courses would you (the student) consider for inclusion in revised high school programs?

All students interviewed gave responses to this question. Their suggestions for new courses have been classified under six categories as follows

1. Courses which are vocational in nature and academic courses applied to the working life.

These courses were mentioned by ninety per cent of students while forty-two per cent of all the courses named fell into this category. Specifically the courses named were:

- vocational courses related to the fishing industry and the application of science courses to local industry;
- on-the-job training courses such as fish processing; work-study programs;
- industrial arts, home economics, crafts, food and home management, sculpture, painting, drama, interior decorating, carpentry;
- business education, consumer education, secretarial science, typing, shorthand, computer science, accounting;
- electricity, electronics, welding, plumbing.

2. Courses in pure and applied sciences.

These courses were mentioned by fifty-one per cent of the students while twenty-five per cent of the courses named fell into this category. Specifically the courses mentioned in order of frequency were:

- Chemistry, Physics, Biology;
- Mathematics, Computer Mathematics, Trades Mathematics;
- Oceanography, Navigation, Marine Biology;
- Forestry, Agriculture, Botany, Geology;

- Health Sciences;
- Rudiments of research and experimentation.

3. Thirty per cent of the students mentioned courses in this category while fourteen per cent of all courses named by the students were grouped under this heading. The courses in order of frequency included:

- art, fine arts, religious studies, photography;
- recreation and physical education, including swimming;
- music, choir, public speaking;
- English Literature, Newfoundland Literature;
- human relations and family life.

4. Communications media.

Courses in this area were mentioned by seventeen per cent of the students while little more than eight per cent of the courses mentioned came under this category. The communications courses mentioned most often were:

- language arts, reading, speech development, television media;
- modern languages (other than English), including French, Spanish, Russian, Latin;
- library science.

5. Environmental studies.

Some sixteen per cent of the students listed new courses which came under this category. Eight per cent of the courses mentioned were grouped in this area. They included:

- community studies - history, geography, and social development;
- cultural affairs, current affairs;
- heritage studies, Newfoundland, local customs, folklore;
- provincial resources, local industry;
- preserving the environment.

6. Social sciences

Ten per cent of the students identified new courses in this area while five per cent of courses named by students were grouped under this heading. These course included:

- economics;
- sociology;
- psychology;
- political science.

Responses to Question 3. If you (the students) were given the opportunity through a broadened curriculum, would you like to continue high school until the successful completion of Grade Twelve?

In response to this question, of the 954 students interviewed 809 or 84.8 per cent said "yes" they would like to continue high school until the successful completion of

Grade Twelve if given the opportunity through a broadened program while 145 or 15.2 per cent said "no" they would not like to continue. Table 1 summarizes these responses by districts.

Responses to Question 4. What are your (the students') attitudes towards an additional year of high school?

All 954 students interviewed attempted to give their attitudes towards extending the time for high school study. Their responses have been categorized as follows:

1. An additional year of school provides a better opportunity of achieving success and acquiring the necessary skills and knowledge for living and work.

Eighty-five per cent of the students interviewed gave a response which could be grouped under this category while twenty-six per cent of the responses to this question centred on this attitude which was supported by the following statements ranked in order of times mentioned:

- under a credit system and an additional year practically all students will be able to successfully complete at least Grade Eleven whereas only half of the students do so at present;
- norms for staying in school will change; retention rates will improve;
- through a credit system all students can be accepted where they are; students will be given a chance of doing what they are capable of;
- new courses and more demanding work will provide incentive, interest, and ferment.

2. Through an additional year of high school students will be better prepared for (a) community life, and (b) working life.

Eighty-one per cent of the students gave a response which could be included under this attitude while twenty-five per cent of all the responses reflected this benefit accruing from an additional year. This attitude is supported by the following:

- students will stay longer to make contributions to their communities;
- it will stop the process of denuding communities of its young people;
- it will provide the security of home, friends, and relatives;
- an additional year will help provide the skills to live a productive life in the working world.

3. An additional year will provide more time needed for:

- the acquisition of fundamental knowledge and skills;
- maturity and development;
- deciding on what to do after high school;
- trying out new subjects and on the-job training.

Again, as in (2) above eighty-two per cent of the students made statements which reflected the above attitude while twenty-five per cent of all the responses to the question of attitudes can be grouped under "providing more time".

TABLE 1

PERCENT OF STUDENTS WHO WOULD BE WILLING TO CONTINUE TO GRADE TWELVE BY DISTRICT

District	No. of Interviewers	No. of Interviewers	No. of Students Who Said "Yes"	Percent of Students Who Said "Yes"
Lewisporte	9	54	46	85
Port aux Basques	20	120	100	83
Placentia	16	96	86	90
Stephenville	26	156	141	90
Wabush-Labrador City	19	114	76	67
Lanse Au Loup	6	36	33	92
Carbonear	15	90	81	90
Deer Lake	10	60	49	82
Bell Island	12	72	67	93
Gander	14	84	71	85
Churchill Falls	4	24	17	50
Wesleyville	8	48	47	98
TOTALS	**159**	**954**	**809**	**84.8**

4. An additional year of high school will give graduates greater access to job opportunities.

Forty-six per cent of the 954 students mentioned this as an attribute of extended high school programs while fourteen per cent of all the responses centred on this attitude. The rationale provided by those students included:

- Newfoundland cannot make the best use of its fish, oil, hydro, and other resources without greater development of skills in young people;
- Canadian jobs will go to those who have Grade Twelve or better;
- an additional year of high school will help alleviate present unemployment problems by keeping students from the labour market until they are better qualified;
- an additional year can provide some on-the-job training.

5. An additional year of high school will place Newfoundlanders on a more equal basis with other Canadians in terms of employment.

This attitude was touched on by thirty-three per cent of the students while ten per cent of all the responses supported this position. Specifically the students made the following statements:

- most Canadians have access to academic, vocational, technical, commercial, and fine arts programs at secondary school level; "Why can't we?"
- in terms of employment the present termination of high school at Grade Eleven discriminates ,against Newfoundlanders;

- more comprehensive programs will give Newfoundlanders greater mobility in employment.

Responses to Question 5. What specific advantages do students see in a broadened high school curriculum with a credit system and the introduction of Grade Twelve?

All 954 students attempted to show the advantages of the revised high school programs over the present secondary school curriculum. These advantages, as perceived by the students, have been categorized as follows:

1. The revised high school programs will provide opportunities for continuous progress in high school.

Some seventy per cent of the students mentioned this advantage while thirty-six per cent of advantages mentioned were classified under this heading, which included such specific advantages as:

- students will be permitted to progress at their own rate;
- there will be no repeating of whole grade units;
- Newfoundland students will be able to avail of a credit system like all other Canadians;
- there will be educational opportunities for all students age fourteen to twenty.

2. Revised high school programs will give Newfoundland students a better chance to fit into the Canadian society. Fifty-eight per cent of the students mentioned this advantage which represented twenty-eight per cent of all the advantages claimed. In support of a better chance students claimed that revised programs would:

- allow Newfoundland students equal access to other Canadian Universities and post-secondary institutions;
- give better preparation for entrance to Canadian postsecondary schools;
- lead to acquisition of knowledge and skills needed in Canadian industry.

3. Revised high school programs would create a teacher demand.

Thirty-three per cent of the students mentioned this as an advantage which represented sixteen per cent of the advantages mentioned. Students perceived that with revised high school programs there would be a greater demand for specialist teachers, librarians, and guidance personnel.

4. Revised high school programs will benefit local communities.

Twenty-five per cent of the students perceived this to be an advantage which represented twelve per cent of the advantages mentioned. Students felt that with the extension of high school, students would make greater input into the lives of their communities. Work-study programs would contribute to community support.

SUMMARY OF MAJOR FINDINGS

A. Improving the present high school program

Students believed that the present high school program could be improved in the following ways:

1. The secondary school system should narrow the gap between school learnings and the everyday concerns for the working life, community life, and family life.

2. The curriculum (that set of activities set out for high school students) should be broadened, and more time provided to acquire the necessary knowledge and skills.

3. High school teachers should change their attitudes towards students as learners.

4. School facilities need to be improved.

5. High school programs should foster basic knowledge, concepts, and skills, and help students apply them to daily living.

B. New courses which might be included in revised high school programs

1. Courses which are basically vocational in nature, and academic courses with application to the working life.

2. Courses in pure and applied sciences, especially chemistry, physics, biology, mathematics, oceanography, agriculture, fishing, research, and experimentation.

3. Courses in the humanities, especially art, music, fine arts, and human relations.

4. Courses in communications media, especially language arts, television, modern languages, and library science.

5. Courses in environmental studies, especially community studies, provincial resources, and conservation.

6. Courses in the social sciences such as economics, sociology, psychology, and political science.

C. Who would continue to the successful completion of Grade Twelve?

Some eighty-five per cent of the high school students said that they would like to continue high school until the successful completion of Grade Twelve if given the opportunity through a broadened program and a credit system.

D. The students' attitudes towards an additional year of high school

A majority of the students perceived that:

1. An additional year of school would provide a better opportunity for achieving success in high school and acquiring the necessary skills and knowledge for living.

2. Through an additional year of high school students will be better prepared for (a) community life, and (b) the working life.

3. An additional year will provide more time for mastery of fundamental knowledge and skills, maturity and development, and for career decisions.

4. An additional year of high school will better prepare students for the job-market stemming from our economic resources.

5. An additional year of high school will place Newfoundlanders on a more equal basis with other Canadians in terms of access to employment.

E. The specific advantages that students see in a broadened high school curriculum and the introduction of Grade Twelve

1. The revised high school programs will provide opportunities for continuous progress of high school students.

2. The revised high school programs will give Newfoundland high school graduates a better chance to fit into Canadian society.

3. The revised programs will create a greater demand for specialist teachers, librarians, and guidance counsellors.

4. Revised high school programs will promote the growth of local communities.

Discussion and Evaluation

If the authorities responsible for planning accept the students' views in regard to improving the curriculum the course of action is clear. They must make the curricula more relevant to the world of work: to fishing, oil production, forestry, agriculture, and mining; work-study programs should be incorporated into the curriculum. Secondly, the curriculum must become more comprehensive, that is, include vocational, academic, technical, commercial, and aesthetic interests. Thirdly, educators must be willing to accept the student where he is, bring him along as far as he can go in terms of his interests and capabilities. Fourthly, there is a need to provide better laboratory and library facilities, more flexible time schedules, and more specialized teachers. Finally, the curriculum must foster the basic learning skills through concepts the student can understand, especially in the science and communications skills areas.

New Courses. As before stated, students repeatedly mentioned vocational, academic, and technical courses related to the main industries of fishing, mining,

forestry, and oil development. Secondly, students want courses in chemistry, physics, biology, geology and oceanography which can be related to industrial development. Thirdly, students need access to courses in the humanities - history, art, religion, music, recreation, and literature. Fourthly, the authorities need to plan for studies concerned with the environment - geography, provincial resources, and conservation. Fifthly, new programs should develop skills in communication through various languages, television media, and the library. Sixthly, elective courses in sociology, psychology, political science, and economics need to be provided.

Who Would Continue to Grade Twelve? The students have answered this question clearly and unequivocally - eighty-five per cent of them would continue to Grade Twelve providing comprehensive and broadened programs were made available. With the revised programs they perceive that close to one hundred per cent of the students will successfully complete at least Grade Eleven whereas, at present, less than fifty per cent do so.

Students' Attitudes. The students' attitudes towards an additional year of school were very positive. They see it as an opportunity to be better prepared for the working, community, and family life. They see it as providing more time for maturity and to discover their capabilities; they see it as an opportunity to become productive, skilled, employed Canadians; and finally, they seethe revised programs as a means of becoming involved in academic, vocational, technical, commercial, and fine-arts education at the secondary school level like all other Canadians. The high school students see many distinct advantages to a broadened high school program, such as permitting students to progress at their own rate according to their abilities and interests, preparing students for the larger Canadian society, incorporating work-study programs into regular high school, and helping youth to grow along with their communities.

It is recommended that the revised programs, including an extended year of high school, be implemented as early as possible.

THE INTRODUCTION OF GRADE TWELVE INTO NEWFOUNDLAND SCHOOLS - EXTENDING THE BASES FOR LIFELONG EDUCATION

Dr. G.L. Parsons
Educational Administration

Introduction

The 1980's will be a red-letter decade for education in Newfoundland and Labrador for in this decade we will witness a revision of secondary education and the introduction of Grade XII in our educational system which will provide opportunities for the development of our youth to the extent that we have never seen before. There is general agreement among our educators that this revision of secondary education is going to be an outstanding achievement and that all our people will greatly profit from this innovative and creative change. As a person concerned with the improvement of education I would like to laud the tremendous efforts being made by the Minister of Education, the Department of Education, the Deputy Minister of Education, the Assistant Deputy Ministers, the Task Force on Education, and all administrators, teachers, and parents who, because they are convinced that they are working in the best educational interests of our youth, are planning for and designing high school programs which will greatly promote and develop the human resources of this Province.

Accompanying this plan for revision, restructuring and the addition of Grade XII, there is evident in Newfoundland at the present time a ferment, an excitement, vibrancy and interest in education that we have not witnessed for a long time. With such positive attitudes one can feel confident that the plans for revisions of secondary school and the introduction of Grade XII will indeed bear fruit.

What is the motivation for revamping high school programs in Newfoundland in the 1980's? First of all, it stems from a desire of the Newfoundland people to provide what they consider the 'best' in education for their youth. With this desire comes a belief that basically there is nothing wrong with Newfoundland from a social or economic point of view which cannot be cured by improvements in our educational system and through provision of greater equality of educational opportunity and access to educational institutions. The motivation comes from a desire to give Newfoundlanders (as Canadians) a chance to be more in step with the rest of Canada, to provide an education that faces up to the realities of a changing world where there is need for the maximum development of the human talents and abilities. Plans must give substance to that desire. Those who are responsible have not been tardy in their planning. The Minister's Advisory Committee Report on Grade XII set the parameters which led the Minister of Education, the Honourable H.W. House, to announce in February, 1979 that Grade XII would be introduced through a phase-in basis beginning with Grade X in 1980 and culminating with Grade XII in 1982. (However, because of the planning time needed, the phase-in of revised programs will now begin in 1981 rather than the proposed 1980 date). Following that step came the setting up of a Senior Coordinating Committee and the issuance of a comprehensive report on Curriculum Reorganization (August, 1979). As a result of the Committee's and the various subcommittees work and discussions in the field, there is now substantial agreement on the nature of the secondary program revisions and the structure of Grade XII. However, we know that planning is an ongoing process which takes time and we are confident that planning will not stop until we have the most appropriate programmes possible in place. As a result of the planning which has gone

on so far, we see evidence of broader, more flexible and creative programs which will provide incentives for our youth to stay in school, to develop their talents and give Newfoundlanders generally a far better opportunity to achieve the aims and goals of education which we have subscribed to over the decades. At this point I would like to share with you the views of some two hundred educators and administrators throughout Newfoundland and Labrador on the revision of high school programs and the introduction of Grade XII into the Newfoundland school system.

Those two hundred teachers and administrators, working through thirteen ETV centres, were requested, on the basis of their ongoing studies on the organization and administration of secondary education throughout Canada, to show how Newfoundland high school programs could be revised and how Grade XII could be implemented. The guidelines for each of the approximate twenty-five page essays were:

(I) the need for Grade XII as part of revised secondary school programs;
(ii) what students should participate in these programs;
(iii) what should be the aims and objectives of the revised programs;
(iv) what policies need to be stipulated by the Ministry of Education and the Department of Education;
(v) what should be the role of school boards in the implementation of Grade XII;
(vi) the kind of teachers that will be needed and how they can be recruited and trained;
(vii) the problems which will be encountered in the revision of programs and the introduction of Grade XII.

Below is a summation of what those educators had to say.

1. The need for Grade XII in Newfoundland schools.

Those teachers and administrators believed that Grade XII should be introduced into Newfoundland schools as early as possible for the following reasons:
First, the aims and goals of education in Newfoundland can only be achieved by broadening the curriculum at the high school level.

They believe the curriculum must provide much more broadening and enriching experiences; our Newfoundland students deserve more than the present narrow, confining, restrictive programs. Students must have access to a wide range of courses - art, music, drama, home economics, health and safety education, consumer education, industrial arts, sculpturing, etc. They should have a better chance to develop their talents and abilities through courses which have a broader appeal to their interests and capabilities. The broadened curriculum, as outlined by the Curriculum Sub-Committee, will give more than one-level courses, will help students confront the problems of living, and provide opportunity to be involved in work-study programmes. Whereas primary education is concerned with random inquiry, and elementary education with systematized inquiry, high school education is concerned with strategized inquiry where students learn the strategies for study of political, societal, industrial, technological and current problems.

The second reason the educators gave for the introduction of Grade XII is that the retention rates will improve in the schools because new programs will provide incentives for staying. Out of a cohort of some 14,000 students at present some 6000 students successfully complete school as far as grade eleven, thus enabling them to enter the

various post-secondary schools and the work force. Teachers believe that with appropriate programs for each and every student at least twelve thousand can successfully complete high school in a fashion and form commensurate with their abilities and interests. At the present time we are experiencing a terrible waste of human talent because of students' premature departure from formal education. Functional illiteracy is still prevalent in our society; this need not be a problem for adult educators after the student has finished formal high school but rather this problem should be tackled through development of basic skills in the regular school system. Moreover, secondary education, the teachers say, must provide the basis for lifelong education. At present we do not give our students the time to develop that comprehensive basis.

The third need, then, is for more time for intellectual and social maturity. As the report of the Minister's Committee has said, high school students today need more time for the fundamental skills, for learning cultural heritage, for inculcation of Christian principles and values, for emotional maturity, for guidance, for development of positive attitudes towards life's work, for sports and recreation, for development of creative capacities and to deal adequately with their environment. We have tried but have found it futile to add courses to an already overcrowded curriculum without adding that crucial element of time whereby the student can broaden and enrich his program. Educators believe, too, that students come all too early to that juncture where they have to make their way alone and often enter the labour market inadequately equipped in terms of knowledge, skills, and attitudes so that they are condemned to spend relatively large proportions of their time unemployed. Many people believe that it is wrong to assume that we can achieve in three years of secondary school what the rest of North America tries to achieve in four.

The fourth need, according to those teachers and administrators, is to have our students better prepared for the world of work so that they will be able to successfully compete with their fellow Canadians in terms of educational standing for access to post-secondary institutions and to the labour market. Of those Newfoundlanders who are presently unemployed, some fifty percent are between the ages of 15-24, most of them lacking the skills and knowledge necessary to adequately deal with the resources which abound around them.

The fifth need for Grade XII programs is to provide better opportunities for an education for students in small schools. Under the proposed revisions the minimum will be much broader than that required for any one student. More time, a credit system, alternate scheduling, and provision of specialist teachers will give the student in the small schools greater access to the courses he needs. Moreover, through work study programs and increased maturity of students the whole community can benefit. Besides, we can make use of technology, too, such as ETV, etc., to augment the programs now that more ample time will be provided.

2. What students should participate in Grade XII?

All students should be allowed ' to progress to the successful completion of Grade XII in some form congruent with their abilities, interests, and needs. For every student there will be a core of courses consisting of the basic skills, heritage studies, civic education, personal development, and specialized studies plus electives which each student will be taught according to his level of intellectual functioning. Teachers will adjust performance expectations to suit students' range of abilities and will record the students' accomplishment in each course. The guiding principle will be to accept each

student where one finds him/her and to educate him/her as far as abilities will allow. Ideally, then, this could mean that of the some 14,000 students in Grade I in any given year, over 13,000 could be in Grade X nine years later, and then, through the credit system and the process described, as many as 12,000 could successfully complete Grade XII eleven years after Grade I, as compared with the same 6,000 students who now successfully complete Grade XI each year. It is obvious that, with this kind of productivity in our high schools, post-secondary institutions will not have to search for clients.

However, to achieve this kind of productivity in our high schools some problems must be overcome. Besides the development of adequate programs, there must be provision of adequate space, facilities, and teachers. There will have to be a change of expectations of many parents and students, for, as research has shown, more than twenty-five percent of students and parents of Grade XI students are presently willing to forego the benefits of a further time investment in education, with its accompanying acquisition of knowledge, skills, and attitudes, for the alternative of "wanting to start earning money now."

Again, if we are going to ensure that students are in school to participate in adequate programs, the Province of Newfoundland and Labrador will have to look again at its compulsory school attendance regulations. At present our compulsory school attendance ages are from seven to fifteen. The North-American norm is six to sixteen. It is the belief of many that our compulsory school-attendance laws must be amended in keeping with the opportunities offered. There is little point in providing public education if people do not avail of it.

3. Aims and Objectives Into courses As we saw before, the purpose of the revised high school programs was to achieve the aims and goals established for Newfoundland education. The intentions of the Curriculum Planning Committee were:

    1) to provide the basic education for strategized inquiry;
    2) make practical courses available to all;
    3) provide core programs plus electives;
    4) adopt a credit system;
    5) broaden, enrich and diversify the curriculum.

It is agreed by all the respondents that the core of compulsory subjects should consist of courses from each of:

- a) Basic learning skills;
- b) Cultural heritage;
- c) Civic Education;
- d) Personal development - including Christian principles, physical education, values education; and
- e) Specialized studies which prepare -for the world of work. Besides the core, electives which broaden and enrich the education of students would be provided.

Credits

Every province of Canada, except Newfoundland, has established a system of credits for secondary education. The 36-42 credits recommended by the Sub-Committee on Curriculum for high school (Grades X-XIt) in Newfoundland seem to meet with the approval of the teachers and administration who responded. The credits would be as follows:

21 Core credits
15 electives
36 Total
6 extra to serve special needs
42

A credit would be roughly fifty to sixty hours of teacher-contact time. The proposed courses for Grades X-XII (core and electives) are as follows:

Arts - five electives
Business Education - four electives
English Language - seven core, one elective
English Literature - two core, five electives
French - three electives
Industrial Education - three electives
Mathematics - three core, six electives
Music - three electives
Physical Education & Health - one core, two electives
Religious Education - one core, two electives
Science - six core, six electives
Social Studies - nine core, four electives

The Small School

Most teachers felt that much more adequate programs could be provided for small high schools through the revised programs than are being offered at present. The reasons for this, they claimed, were the increased time available, the introduction of the credit system, the offering of alternatives, the possibility of work-study programs, alternating course offerings, and two year sequencing. To aid the small high school, extra additional personnel would have to be provided.

4. The Ministry of Education and Department of Education Policies

A Secondary School Program

The teachers and administrators felt that in no way should Grade XII be counted as a post-secondary year of study but that it be considered an integral part of a revised high school program of strategized inquiry.

Standards

The Department of Education should attempt to maintain high standards by monitoring the achievements of the school to ensure that every student is being

educated to his fullest potential. Progress of students in courses could be based on achievement according to levels of ability, or courses themselves could be developed to meet the varying abilities of students.

Public examinations

At the present time, Quebec and Newfoundland are the only provinces of Canada which have external examinations for the final year of high school. Public examinations, the educators felt, should be given only where external standards are needed. Assessment of students doing levels one and two courses (Grades X and XI) would be based on school and teacher evaluation. Only those courses at level three that lend themselves to external examination would be evaluated that way.

Recruiting and training of teachers

The Department of Education must identify in the very near future the kind of specialist teachers we will need and make plans to have sufficient numbers recruited and trained. What we need to do is to identify at the high school level prospective candidates with ability and potential for teaching, and then motivate and encourage them to prepare themselves for those necessary roles in our educational system.

5. The Role of School Boards In the Introduction of Grade XII

Besides expansion of high school programs, boards today have to respond to new demands such as the education of the handicapped, the education of the disadvantaged, early childhood, and consumer and environmental education. If revised programs and the introduction of Grade XII are successfully implemented, boards will have to be shown by the public they represent why it is necessary to change the present system.

School board members must also realize that if people value education, then the demand will be high and public monies for education will be forthcoming. School boards throughout Newfoundland must analyze the state of education in their own particular districts in terms of present retention rates, adequate facilities and needed changes. School boards, too, need to be innovative in the use of available technology, such as ETV, in the delivery of education.

6. The Post-Secondary Institutions needed.

We know that at present the Newfoundland participation rate in postsecondary education is only one-half of the Canadian average. But with increased numbers of graduates from the high school, resulting from revised programs which meet students' needs and interests, the numbers going on to postsecondary institutions to acquire specialized education will greatly increase within the next two decades. For this Province this increase in high school graduates will mean a need for expansion in the facilities provided by the College of Trades and Technology, the College of Fisheries, the vocational schools, the Schools of Nursing, the University, and all other institutions involved in specialized education.

7. Problems which must be solved

Because of past deprivations, Newfoundlanders have not been as well educated as they might have been if the amenities had been available, and because of past struggles to eke out a livelihood, Newfoundlanders have tried to get 'through' formal education as quickly as possible and enter the world of work which generally did not require the high levels of knowledge and refined skills as are needed today. Today it is likely that a fairly large proportion of Newfoundlanders will not readily see the need for an additional year of schooling.

The expectations of Newfoundlanders in terms of time spent on formal education need to change; Newfoundlanders need to be convinced that participation in a broadened, expanded, enriched high school program in which students can reach their fullest development is a good, long-term investment. There are many physical problems which have to be considered; for example, isolated rural areas, provision of adequate plant facilities, and making available the appropriate technology and delivery systems. There are also psychological and historical problems which have to be considered if we are to be successful in implementing this creative innovation. I feel that, with careful planning, the revision of high school programs and the introduction of Grade XII will be a tremendous success.

DEVELOPING A POLICY FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CLOSURE

Art Ponder
Department of Educational Administration

Why Policy?

There is no question that the world has become more complex. Many of the relationships, once taken for granted as being simple, have become increasingly complicated. This has come through the knowledge explosion and its attendant undermining of the values and assumptions of basic social institutions. The problem of integrating knowledge and social action is therefore becoming both more difficult and more critical.

Education, once a relatively tranquil arena, has become fraught with controversy and debate. Conflicting philosophies, mutually exclusive demands and diminishing resources have exacerbated the problem. Thus school administrators, who once responded automatically or in a semi-spontaneous manner, find this sort of reaction both unsatisfactory and unworkable.

Given the multiplicity of problems and the variety of potential solutions available, the need for some sort of limiting guidelines under which to operate becomes even more necessary. Policy helps to serve this need.

What is Policy?

Policy provides general guidelines or objectives within the framework of which school administrators may operate.

Davies (1969) describes policy as

> ... a guide for discretionary action. It must be narrow enough to give clear guidance to the superintendent as he makes decisions. But it must be broad enough to leave room for him to use his own discretion in making decisions - room for him to manouevre as necessary in meeting the circumstances of individual cases. (Davies, 1969:15)

Policies are normative. They state what the substantive values of a system should be. Thus when we, for example, say that a 'child' "should be educated to his or her fullest potential", we assume this to be a reflection of the values of the constituency which legitimates the school. (Parsons, 1951) Thus policies may be thought of as objectives of that society.

Policymaking is a species of decision-making in that it involves choice. Brissey and Nagle (1972) equate decision making, policy development, and problem solving. Thus policy development involves three modes of inquiry. The first may be called designative inquiry. It is concerned with what is, e.g., an uneducated student. The second relates to what ought to be and is named appraisive inquiry. Additionally, there is prescriptive inquiry, concerned with ways to reduce the discrepancy between what is and what ought to be - a plan for educating the student. Policy development emphasizes

appraisive inquiry in that it attempts to determine what ought to be, although, obviously, it cannot be conducted or evaluated without reference to what is or how to achieve what ought to be. As Dror (1969) suggests:

> Policymaking must therefore be evaluated in terms of the degrees to which its policy output meets the requirements of both political and economic feasibility. (Dror, 1969:35)

Finally, policy is aggregated. In democratic countries, for example, the voter can exert considerable influence on public policy through the exercise of his or her franchise.

It appears important to draw the distinction between policy development and policy implementation. Policy development is, as the title suggests, the development and specification of a policy. Policy implementation is, the specific action undertaken attempting to bring about this desired objective. A school board may adopt a policy statement:

> Teachers shall be available to assist individual children outside of the regular school day.

The implementation of that policy comes about when the superintendent issues a directive:

> All classroom teachers should be in their rooms fifteen minutes before classes begin each morning to help students who need special attention.'

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CLOSURE

Who Should be Involved in the Policy Development?

One of the problems presently being experienced here in Newfoundland and Labrador is that of elementary school closures. The cessation of schooling in the community and the attendant busing of small children to other communities is an emotional and potentially explosive issue which, no doubt, many boards would prefer to avoid. One of the ways this maybe done is through the development of a clear and sensible policy on school closure in which interested parties or groups have some participation.

Who should be involved in policy development? Davies (1969) suggests that policy development is the prerogative of the board and the superintendent. Yet Lowin (1969) argues that parties involved are most likely to agree to the policy and/or its implementation, even when they themselves disagree with it, provided they have been meaningfully involved in its development. Thus from the point of view of both the superintendent and the board a wide involvement of interest groups has two distinct advantages. It gives information on the views of the constituents and, at the same time, provides the superintendent an opportunity for a little normative re-education. Simply stated, some groups (such as parents) may have a very narrow view of the problem which, if expanded, might make them see it in a different light. Reciprocally, the board and the superintendent may be unaware or, at least, not completely aware of the depth of local feeling on the issue. Thus a tentative list of those who might be involved could include the superintendent, the board, teachers and administrators, parents, the broader

community, and the churches. This is not to suggest that this is an exhaustive list or that all the aforementioned groups need be included.

Obviously, the superintendent, as chief executive officer, and the board, as elected representatives, have a major input to policy development. Similarly, administrators and teachers, who will be responsible for the implementation of policy and who possess professional expertise, must be similarly included. As Newfoundland and Labrador has publicly funded denominational education and, in some boards, local churches make both material and monetary contributions, churches should also be involved. The broader community could also be consulted. In some communities, local authorities decry the loss of a "sense of community" brought about, to some degree, by the loss of local elementary schooling. Finally, any school board dealing with a potentially troublesome issue such as school closure, which does not seek input from parents, courts disaster. At the same- time, parental involvement in the development of a policy may make unpalatable decisions more acceptable to those affected, at the implementation stage.

What Factors Should Be Considered?

Obviously, many boards in Newfoundland are faced with the problem of declining enrolments. Given the present financing formula, this can bring about a loss of resources, both financial and other. Thus boards must consider such factors as present and projected enrolments and potential teacher losses on the quality of education. Are enrolments likely to stabilize, continue to decline, or what? At what point does the loss of teachers militate against offering a ""reasonably" sound education? Does the movement of pupils to another community ensure a better and more varied programme? What are the costs, projected and present, of operating a school as opposed to maintaining facilities which are inoperative? How great an inconvenience is busing? Will young pupils suffer unduly from long trips on the bus? What do future busing costs look like? With rising energy costs, is it likely that three or four years down the road local schooling would be a more attractive option? How strong is the sense of community throughout the board? If this is strong, what is the possibility of local or church participation either in terms of finance or physical resources?

Once again, this is not an exhaustive gist but simply examples of what issues must be confronted in developing a policy on elementary school closure. It must be clear to the reader that there are two types of considerations to be addressed. The first, such as a sense of community, cannot be ascribed a number value. The other, such as projected busing costs, clearly can. The task of the superintendent and the board is to sift through the data pertaining to these considerations and come up with a policy.

Developing a Policy

Numerical data is readily available. Cost factors, enrolment projections, and potential teacher losses are easily obtainable. However, other factors, such as sense of community, resistance to busing, and the willingness of local groups to participate, either financially or otherwise, are more difficult to ascertain. Similarly, the definition of what is quality education and what is not is an equally thorny question.

A Hypothetical Example

However, as a result of the impact of the numerical data gathered, and as consequence of consultation with various interest groups, a number of trends are evident.

1. In most communities in the board in which small and potentially "close able" elementary schools exist there is a strong "sense of community."

2. Distances between smaller communities and larger centers tend to be long and, as a consequence, there is a resistance to busing young children on the part of parents.

3. It appears unlikely that busing costs will increase at any greater rate than the operating costs of small schools.

4. The costs of operating certain small schools may place undue financial burden on the rest of the system.

5. Given enrolment projections and attendant teacher loss, it may be impossible to provide quality education both in terms of subject coverage and cocurricular activities. What, then, would a policy statement look like which adequately reflects these data?

   Board X has a policy statement on elementary school closure which states:

   Recognizing the sense of local community and the disadvantages of busing small children lengthy distances, the board will attempt to maintain local elementary schooling wherever it can be shown that quality education can be maintained and that costs, both financial and human, are not prohibitive and/or do not unduly penalize the rest of the system.

As Mackenzie King might have said:

Elementary schooling if possible, but possibly not elementary schooling.

Summary and Conclusions

Such a policy statement gives the superintendent a guide to action; if the criteria are met then local elementary schooling should be maintained. This is reflective of the views of the parents and the broader community throughout the board. At the same time, it recognizes that for either educational or cost reasons certain schools may have to be closed. Because various interest groups have been consulted, the acceptance and understanding of such a policy appears more likely. However, as suggested earlier, the development and the implementation of a policy are separate issues.

(Policy implementation will be dealt with in a subsequent publication.)

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NOTES

'This is not an original example but one plagiarized with gratitude from D.R. Davies.

THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CONTROL ASSEMBLY - AN ADMINISTRATIVE ALTERNATIVE

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Current literature abounds with the necessity of involving all organizational members, either directly or indirectly, in selected facets of management decision-making. Industrial organizations, in particular, report favourable progress in this realm through participative management styles, workers' councils, and other collegial governance structures. Senior high schools, on the other hand, have been slow to utilize the research findings emanating from member participation in industrial organizations. Seemingly content with the status quo, these social entities have made few, if any, attempts to innovate in this area.

Throughout the sixties and early seventies, numerous educators elaborated on the necessity of involving students in educational decision-making - venturing to suggest potential areas for this participation, and expounding the advantages to be accrued therefrom. A few alternative high schools were established but never flourished. Strangely enough, avenues or vehicles for achieving student decision-making input in traditional high schools were rarely elaborated on. Student senates and student faculty committees were proposed, but have since disappeared - their ineffective and short-lived existence attributed to exaggerated goals and ill-conceived conceptual frameworks.

Notwithstanding the fact that ultimate responsibility for education rests with provincial governments and local school boards, contemporary literature reveals an absence of a viable mechanism through which students can become involved in senior high school control. The traditional senior high school continues to exist as an efficient bureaucratic organization, providing limited member (student, teacher) participation in control decisions. Students' councils, though never intended to give students a greater voice in school control, currently serve as the only avenue for student input in educational decision-making.

This writer recognizes that involving students in educational decision-making within the control process of senior high schools constitutes a major challenge to educators in general, and has implications for the administrative style and organizational structure of the senior high school. What follows is an abbreviated report on a study recently undertaken to develop an alternative model, reflective of in-school member perceptions, for achieving student participation in senior high school control, plus a blueprint for the implementation of this model in existing schools.

Four major assumptions governed this study: (1) students, teachers, and administrators are genuinely interested in realizing change in the existing control structure of senior high schools in the direction of increased member participation; (2) research implications of member participation in industrial organizational control, with some modification, can be realized in the senior high school; (3) learning experience gained from participation in senior high school control can provide students with an additional opportunity for gaining citizenship skills, and (4) the development of a model for student participation in control is possible within the existing bureaucratic school organization.

To counteract the lack of current Canadian data on member participation in educational Decision making, the major problem of this study necessitated a recent survey of student, teacher, and administrator perceptions of shared decision-making and senior high school governance as an initial phase in the model development. Six specific questions were posed for this phase of the study. Among these were the following: (1) Whom do students, teachers, and administrators perceive to be presently participating in selected areas of school Decision making? (2) In which areas of school decision-making do students, teachers, and administrators perceive shared decision-making? (3) Whom do students, teachers, and administrators perceive should be participating in selected areas of school Decision making? (4) What are the discernible patterns pertaining to student, teacher, and administrator satisfaction with the present high school governance structure? (5) What are the discernible patterns pertaining to the type of high school governance structure preferred by students, teachers, and administrators? (6) What are the discernible patterns pertaining to similarities or discrepancies between the existing and preferred governance structure perceived by students, teachers, and administrators?

This first phase was carried out among a representative sample of senior high school students, teachers, and administrators working within the Calgary Public System in April-May 1976. The 40 areas of decision-making analyzed in this survey were classified as curriculum, in-school rules and regulations, and evaluation.

Some of the findings, relative to each of the six questions posed earlier, were:

1. The vast majority of educational Decision making presently occurring in the high schools surveyed was being performed by teachers and administrators, either unilaterally or on a partially shared basis. Students, teachers, and administrators all attested to the fact that students presently play a minor, nearly insignificant, role in decision-making related to curriculum, in-school rules and regulations, and evaluation.

2. Shared decision-making, either partially or jointly shared between all three in-school groups, was not perceived of as presently occurring to any significant extent in the schools surveyed. This was attested to by the fact that only one decision area was presently so identified.

3. All three in-school groups preferred to have considerably more shared decision-making occurring in their schools than at present. However, this future sharing of decisions appeared to be limited to the realm of in-school rules and regulations, with 13 decision areas being so identified. Given the interest expressed in future shared decision-making, it would appear that all three in-school groups could be counted on to work towards the development of a strategy to allow greater shared decision-making to occur in their respective schools.

4. Students displayed some dissatisfaction with the present high school governance structure by generally agreeing that it was stereotyped, non-participatory, and authoritarian. Teachers appeared to agree with students in their display of dissatisfaction with this entity also by generally agreeing that it was stereotyped, non-participatory, and authoritarian. Administrators were generally satisfied with the present high school governance structure, viewing it as somewhat traditional, but otherwise favourable on all other descriptors

listed. The similarities displayed between student, teacher, and administrator views of the existing governance structure suggest that these groups perceived this entity in much the same manner.

5. Students, teachers, and administrators expressed a mutual desire to experience a high school governance structure that was progressive and original in design, flexible in format, allowing considerable member participation, and very democratic in nature. All three in-school groups seemed anxious to have a highly organized type of governance structure, one in which rights and responsibilities would be clearly spelled out. Again, the similarities displayed between student, teacher, and administrator views of a preferred governance structure suggested that these groups perceived this entity in much the same manner.

6. The inordinate difference existing between student views of the existing and preferred governance structures in their respective schools pointed out a keen interest on the part of this group to experience change. The immense differences existing between teacher and administrator views of the existing and preferred governance structures, respectively, was evidence of a keen interest on the part of these groups also to experience change.

These empirical data findings reflected the following propositions pertinent to the development of a model for realizing participation in senior high school control:

1. The existing senior high school governance structure does not provide an avenue for student participation in school management decisions.

    1.1 All three in-school groups currently perceive students as "spectators" in the arena of educational decision-making.

    1.2 All three in-school groups perceive the present governance structure as nonconducive to member participation in control decisions.

    1.3 Shared decision-making is generally non-existent in- the senior high school organization.

2. The current senior high school environment is amicable to the realization of student participation in the control process of this organization.

    2.1 All three in-school groups are interested in realizing shared Decision making in the realm of school management (long range planning) decisions.

    2.2 All three in-school groups are interested in realizing change in the existing governance structure - innovative change in the direction of increased member participation and a trend toward democratization.

3. Innovative change in the existing senior high school governance structure, to allow for greater member participation in control decisions, must comply with in-school member perceptions of a preferred governance structure.

3.1 The proposed model will not eliminate, or otherwise radically alter, the existing organizational structure of the senior high school, reflective of in-school members' desire for retention of organization, rationality, and formality.

3.2 The proposed model will provide a channel for increased member participation in senior high school control, reflective of in-school members' desire for realizing greater participation, in conjunction with a more progressive governance structure.

3.3 The proposed model will have a democratizing effect on the entire school by contributing towards a school climate reflective of in-school members' desire for respect, equality, acceptance, simplicity, originality, and flexibility.

4. The proposed model for realizing student participation in senior high school control excludes decision areas related to curriculum and evaluation.

5. To become a reality, the proposed model for realizing increased student participation must be an in-line authority structure.

A major challenge for this study was to develop a solution to a field problem, which might function simultaneously to meet participant needs and operate within the confines of the traditional senior high school governance structure (utilizing the existing students' council and administrative cabinet to maximum advantage). Furthermore, application of industrial research findings to the senior high school, relative to member participation in organizational control, necessitated the drawing of an analogy between these two entities as comparable social organizations. Having done this, it was possible to construct a control assembly model whose conceptual framework hinged on the empirical data propositions, and on six major constructs, namely, democratic participation, group process, power equalization, decision-making, control, and the individual.

Students, teachers, and administrators constitute the human resource base of this model. Students are representative of different grade levels and/or academic streams (inclusive of students' council executive); teachers represent the teaching faculty of the school; and administrators embrace the principal, an assistant principal, and a subset of the department heads (inclusive of administrative cabinet representation). The process of actor (member) selection constitutes an activity of extreme importance in the model construction. This membership must be representative of all three in school groups. Concomitantly, the selection procedure must be conducted democratically, and in as short a time span as possible.

The student membership component can be elected through the existing school house system. In that the control assembly is reflective of the present students' council, whose executive is usually comprised of a grade 10, grade 11 and grade 12 student, it is suggested that this executive be automatically included in the student component of this model. Therefore, 2 additional students must be elected from each grade level, constituting a total of 9 students in a school including Grade 12.

In compliance with the concept of power equalization, the professional staff membership must not exceed 9. Therefore, 4 teachers will be elected from the total teaching staff, and 4 administrators will be elected from within the existing administrative cabinet. These 4 administrators will consist of 3 department heads and 1 assistant principal. Hence, the human input component is comprised of 18 actors, evenly divided between students and professional staff. Once created, the control assembly is designed to function in conjunction with, not in opposition to, the existing control process of the senior high school. The development of this model is depicted in Figure 1.

The control assembly is intended to serve as a forum at which differing views may be presented, debated, and amalgamated into a jointly shared long range planning decision, reflecting the views of each in-school group. (See Figure 2). Along with the administrative cabinet and students' council, this unit will serve as an additional influence on the principal, as legal head of the school. The principal will provide the strongest communication link between the control assembly and the school as a whole. Since the principal acts as chairman of this control unit, he will serve as major spokesman for the entire group - an action necessary for the preservation of the bureaucratic school structure. Additionally the principal will be charged with the responsibility of constructing the operating agenda for this structure.

The operating fuel for this model will normally consist of decision inputs from three different centres within the school; administrative cabinet, students' council, and principal. In addition to these avenues, it is possible for in-school members to go directly to the principal and have their requests placed on the operating agenda.

As presently conceived, the control assembly should serve a useful role as an alternative influence channel for member input to control decisions. Students, in particular, will now have 3 avenues for decision-making input, namely, students' council, principal, and control assembly. Teachers will likewise have 3 channels for decision-making input, namely, administrative cabinet, principal, and control assembly. For administrators, in general, and the principal, in particular, the control assembly offers a viable alternative for long range planning or policy decisions. It is anticipated that the principal will choose to utilize this mechanism whenever he wishes to have input from representatives of all three in-school groups. Most important, the control assembly is conceived as an additional power centre for educational decision-making within the high school. To this end, it is designed to function as an appendage to the existing governance structure. Actual implementation of this control unit in any given senior high school should adhere chosely to the implementation strategy outlined in Table 1.

Having elaborated on both the development and implementation of the control assembly model, it is necessary to reflect on the ability of this control unit to meet the hopes and aspirations of students, teachers, and administrators, as well as contribute towards the realization of a participative management style in the senior high school organization.

As a functioning control unit, the control assembly should contribute towards the progressive component of school governance. Through this appendage, an opportunity will be extended for all in school members to experience increased Decision making input in senior high school control. Though this opportunity will be

both direct and indirect, in school members should view the resulting governance structure as more progressive than at present.

The control assembly should furnish all in-school members, particularly students, with an added opportunity to learn about the nature of long range planning or policy formation relative to organizational control. This opportunity should contribute to a perceived simplification of the existing governance structure, in that students and teachers will become aware of an additional avenue of input into control decisions heretofore unavailable to them. In this manner, increased knowledge of the existing governance structure might be obtained with the resulting feeling by all concerned that the existing governance structure is not as complicated as originally believed.

The concept of a control assembly originates from industrial organization experience with workers' councils. Consequently, the functioning of this unit should cause any particular school to be unique in its approach to involving in-school members in organizational control decisions. That the operationalization of this model will require determination and creativity on the part of all concerned, will serve as an indicator of school flexibility and creativity.

The control assembly is designed to serve as an alternative avenue for in-school member input in general, and student input in particular, to be realized in senior high school decisions. Though operating on the basis of representation, opportunity will be afforded all in-school members to participate indirectly, through elected representatives, in decisions reached within this model. In this manner, it is anticipated that the control assembly will create a general feeling of sharing with others in a majority of control decisions reached.

As presently conceived, the control assembly is designed to comply with in-school member preferences for a highly organized governance structure. This is accomplished by upholding the current bureaucratic control structure and conceiving of the control assembly as a formalized sub-system within this general framework. Hence, the normal tasks allotted to the students' council and administrative cabinet are generally unaffected by this innovation. Thus, the formal senior high school organization is preserved, with innovative change being realized within its confining structures.

All in-school members will be given the opportunity, through the membership selection process, to become active participants in this new control structure. This invitation to participate either directly or indirectly in control decisions should connote an added faith in human potential, and a growth in respect for individuals. Adherence to the aforementioned implementation strategy will assist in-school member comprehension of the rationality implicit in the control assembly design and function. The goals and functioning procedure of this unit must be carefully spelled out so that all may understand that this structure does have the potential of providing a much needed alternative for student, teacher, and administrator participation in senior high school control decisions. Moreover, awareness of the dependency of the control assembly on both the students' council and administrative cabinet for functional stability should intensify the rationality intended for this innovation.

(Insert Figure I)

(Insert Figure 2)

Table 1

Control Assembly (C.A.) Implementation Strategy

Implementation Substage	Suggested Time Frame
Initial Implementation	
Examination of C.A. by school principal	June - August
Preparation of C.A. information for student registration week	August
C.A. information given to student body	September (wk 1)
C.A. schema presented by principal (or change agent) to administrative cabinet and students' council for their information	September (wk 1)
Feedback from administrative cabinet and students' council to principal (or change agent)	September (wks 2 and 3)
C.A. schema presented by principal (or change agent) to general staff meeting for staff information	September (wk 4)
Feedback from individual staff members or departments to principal (or change agent)	September (wk 4)
C.A. membership selection process	October (wks 1 and 2)
Continued-Sustained Implementation Inaugural meeting of C.A. assembly	October (wk 3)
Establishment of C.A. "monitoring system"	October (wk 4)
C.A. business session No. 1	November (wk 1)
C.A. business session No. 2	November (wk 4 or sooner, if necessary)
C.A. business session No. 3	December (wk 3 or sooner, if necessary)
End of C.A. "trial period"	January (wk 2)
C.A. evaluation	January (wks 2 and 3)
Decision relative to C.A. retention	January (wk 4)

(Insert Figure 3)

Control Assembly Effect on Senior High School Governance

Professional staff and students are balanced in this decision-making group in compliance with power equalization requirements. As a result, students, teachers, and administrators can function as decision-making colleagues in long range planning (policy formation) manoeuvres. Each participant will be expected to contribute according to personal expertise and his/her school role. Not only might a sense of equality be experienced in this manner, but dissemination of information from this unit to the school in general should assist in the development of a greater equality among all in school members. It must be noted that this will be in addition to the accepted norm that students learn, teachers teach, and administrators administer.

All in-school members should have an added opportunity to air their views, either directly as control assembly members, or indirectly through their representatives in this control unit. In this way, the control assembly will serve as a sounding board - continually monitoring the school pulse by receiving input from the in-school environment. Flexibility, relative to alternative avenues for school members input to control decisions, will be an added realization - emanating from this structure. An additional avenue will now become available for student and teacher input to many school control decisions. For administrators, this control unit will provide the principal with the option of choosing a decision-making group best suited to a given decision item. It is anticipated that he will favour the control assembly in most long range planning matters crucial to the welfare of the entire school. Again, the human resource base and decision data contribute towards further control assembly flexibility. In fact, periodic membership changes, along with variation in meeting times, should enable this control unit to become easily adapted to any senior high school governance structure.

The control assembly is designed in compliance with in-school member preferences for a highly organized governance structure. This innovation is conceived as a formal decision-making body, functioning within the ongoing control process of a senior high school. It is bound by procedural rules, and aims at the maximum utilization of the informal communication network in the creation of sound control decisions. In this manner, it serves as a control mechanism receptive to influence from the total school population.

Adhering to democratic procedural norms, such as equality and majority rule, the control assembly attempts to extend equality by a form of "grass roots" decision-making input. In fact, the four democratic themes of involvement, freedom, responsibility, and respect form an integral part of the conceptual framework surrounding this structure. In this context, freedom to participate in shared decisions with others, and sharing the concomitant responsibilities for all decisions reached, should provide a concrete learning experience in democratic citizenship. Thus, respect for others and the opinions of others might be learned, in addition to increased awareness of the complexity of human interaction.

Functioning as an in-line co-determination structure with rule-making authority, this control unit should contribute towards participative management in senior high school control. This model allows for talent or competence, as well as influence of authority, to provide a basis for achieving an organizational goal - in this instance long range planning or policy formation. Through direct or indirect participation in this formal decision-making body, initiative, creativity, and responsibility of all in school members, but of students in particular, is afforded an

opportunity to find constructive expansion through decision-making information in conjunction with opportunity to solve problems and set school goals. Thus the control assembly should function in much the same manner as a primary group or team does in an industrial setting - fostering the crucial conditions of mutual trust, mutual support, genuine communication, conflict acceptance, and mutual respect for individual differences.

Just as participative management styles in industrial organizations attempt to alter the traditional functions of management by allowing member participation in management decisions, so too, the control assembly might assist in narrowing or eliminating the social distance alienation extant between professional staff and students in senior high schools. (See Figure 3).

Operationalization of the control assembly occurs within the existing senior high school governance structure. Administrators will continue to act as leaders of their school, as well as planning, organizing, and controlling this organization. However, existence of the control assembly will allow students and teachers to share in the activities of planning, organizing, and controlling - relative to long range planning or policy formation. It must be noted that teachers and students will continue to retain the task of "doing", in compliance with the traditional control pyramid. That the control assembly should encourage the foregoing is anticipated because this unit is designed to facilitate and encourage high total inclusion of a large number of in-school members by utilizing their capabilities and fostering their identification with the school organization. This should contribute to the development of a strong interaction influence system within the senior high school organization. In that neither a large body of systematic knowledge or well developed procedures for dealing with the problems of building the ideal kind of interaction influence system exist, the control assembly might serve as an innovative vanguard in this instance. Relying heavily on the success of "worker's councils" in industrial organizations, and reflecting the perceptions of students, teachers, and administrators, the control assembly should contribute significantly to a new awareness of the integrating principle and the principle of supportive relationships, as they apply to all members of the traditional senior high school environment.

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A CONSIDERATION OF RELEVANT ASSUMPTIONS UNDERLYING AN IDEAL SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL GOVERNANCE STRUCTURE

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In an earlier paper, this writer proposed that an ideal senior high school governance structure, one seriously intended to meet the needs of students, ought to reflect the following components: respect, freedom, rationality, flexibility, equality, and involvement. These elements emanated from six major assumptions, namely:

1. An ideal senior high school governance structure accepts and acknowledges all in-school members as valued individuals.

2. An ideal senior high school governance structure adheres to and practices the fundamental principles underlying the democratic way of life.

3. An ideal senior high school governance structure exemplifies a rational approach to administration.

4. An ideal senior high school governance structure recognizes the value of the ever-present informal organization.

5. An ideal senior high school governance structure distributes power and authority among members on an egalitarian basis.

6. An ideal senior high school governance structure subscribes to the concept of shared Decision making to maximize member influence.

To further assist those educators interested in moving towards such a governance structure, this paper will address itself to two important questions: (1) What are the prevailing assumptions employed when one discusses the components of respect, freedom, rationality, flexibility, equality, and involvement? (2) What can be done to bring to realization such a governance structure in the light of these underlying assumptions? To assist in this examination, a conceptual framework comprising three levels of assumptions will be used - cultural, organizational and psychological. In each level, prevailing assumptions will be formulated from a review of related literature surrounding each descriptive component. Hopefully, this approach will reveal the theoretical justification employed in this ideal type.

Culture is generally defined as all the ways of life that have been evolved by men in society. Sorokin (1947) refers to culture as the totality of meanings, values and norms possessed by interacting persons, and of vehicles which objectify, socialize, and convey these meanings. North American culture, in particular that part distinctively Canadian, adheres (theoretically) to a democratic ideal as ascribed to and interpreted by our founding fathers. A Canadian interpretation of democracy reflects the difficulty possibly encountered by many schools in this regard. "In a democracy the supreme value and worth of each individual is recognized and every consideration is given to his views and needs. The achievement of such an ideal is always extremely difficult..... (Greason and King, 1964, p. 3).

"Respect, in a cultural sense, connotes an acceptance of people as they are and for what they are" (Sparks, 1975, p. 6). Since a culture is not instinctive, but learned by each individual through his own life experience, respect in this regard must be learned. It follows, then, because culture is something inculcated within an individual, that respect for individuals can be passed on to successive generations. This is particularly important in a democratic culture such as ours.

Problems associated with freedom in a democratic culture are closely tied to the necessity of maintaining a free culture for the growth of free institutions within that culture. The import of this conclusion extends far beyond the simpler faith of those who formulated our democratic tradition. For in reality, two conceptions of democracy. coexist: "' an integral (honest) democracy and a legalistic (corrupt) democracy" (Zentner, 1976). In the sense that a free man has the freedom to think and choose, a democratic culture is one which views freedom as full and free communication, regardless of rank and power (Bennis and Slater, 1968, p. 4).

In stark contrast to other cultures, North American culture places a high moral value on rationality. In effect, rationality and happiness are seen as proceeding hand in hand (Etzioni, 1964). Man, as a rational being, should be capable of abiding by the rules and regulations of his culture. This means that if man is viewed as a rational being, he can be expected to act in a rational manner if provided the opportunity to do so. Rationality, then, refers to man's persistent and purposeful pursuit of the social and personal goals which his culture and time define as appropriate (Inkles, 1964, p. 50). Culturally, rationality suggests an understanding of the biological, physical, social and humanistic domains of knowledge. This fact has important implications for all educational experience.

A democratic culture entails broad dispersion of power and leadership through pluralism of groups (Chambers and Salisbury, 1958, p. 16). Flexibility, in this regard, serves as a cultural descriptor receptive to change as a desired outcome. Such a culture can accept and adjust to the inevitability of personal relationships - a real test of flexibility. In this sense, a democratic culture thrives on the combining of individual self-expression and self-development, with rational adjustment of interests willingly accepted. Thus, flexibility through adaptability to change and innovation is critical to the longevity of any culture, particularly one that is democratic.

Equality of opportunity implies the establishment of opportunities where the prizes of life are open to all (Howarth, 1969, p. 9). Hence, each individual is served with justice regardless of intelligence, race, religion, social status, economic condition or vocational plans. Jent (1966) argues that a democratic culture attempts to arrive at and abide by decisions with no special privileges for people or ideas. Political equality in such a culture becomes the idea of a state dominated by no elite and no class. Equal opportunity is provided for all ideas - good, bad, and indifferent - to stand or fall on merit. Therefore, equality is interpreted to mean equality of opportunity and responsibility - important components in the right of be self-determining.

Participatory democracy is culturally defined as "taking part in rule by the people" (Cook and Morgan, 1971, p. 2). Through such involvement an attempt is made to distribute decision-making powers more equitably among a cultural citizenry. Theoretically, a beneficial aspect of this manouevre is the creation of more informed citizens. Also, decisions shaped by direct participation of citizens generally

carry better consequences for the culture concerned. In effect, a democratic culture guarantees to all citizens the right to be involved in policy determination.

Cast at this cultural level, the components of respect, freedom, rationality, flexibility, equality, and involvement are embellished with underlying assumptions. Those assumptions pertinent to education are presented in light of the foregoing compendium of related literature.

1. Respect for individuals and the opinions of others is learned.

2. Freedom allows for full and free communication between individuals, regardless of rank and power.

3. Rationality of man allows for the existence of rules and regulations.

4. Adaptability to change and innovation is possible through flexibility within a culture.

5. Equality implies equal opportunity and concomitant responsibility.

6. Involvement of citizens is the cornerstone of participatory democracy.

Our culture is an organizational culture. We are born in organizations and educated by organizations, and most of us spend our lives working for organizations. In fact, our democratic culture "depends largely on organizations as the most rational and efficient form of social grouping known" (Etzioni, 1964, p. 1). By coordinating a large number of human actions, organizations serve as a powerful cultural tool - serving the needs of a citizenry more efficiently than smaller or more natural human groupings such as families, friendship groups and communities.

Perrow (1970) suggests that all organizations are comprised of people and that most problems encountered in organizations therefore arise from the people within them. "Each part of an organization contributes to and receives something from the whole" (Silberman, 1970, p. 27). Jensen (1969) believes that organizations are human inventions which make possible the benefits of modern living and the ordering of large-scale, complex social life. In this setting, respect takes on an added hue, namely, that it is necessary to minimize human conflict.

Organization implies control which, in turn, has implications for freedom. Tannenbaum (1968) suggests that freedom is definable within a rational plan of an organization and, in this sense, is limited by conformity. A democratic school organization, for example, must provide some form of order - a condition necessary for students to learn effectively. Here, freedom connotes approval of decisions reached. In this sense, freedom is affected by the mutuality/unilaterality of control. Any move, theoretically from laissez faire to democratic governance, can be viewed as a move towards greater orderliness and control. Hence, there must always be constraints placed on the concept of freedom.

Under norms of rationality, all organizations (the school included) seek to protect their core technologies from environmental influences. Thompson (1967) argues that, in this sense, organizations seek to anticipate and adapt to environmental changes which cannot be buffered or levelled. Facing a stable task

environment, most organizations will rely on rules to achieve adaptation to a particular environmental pressure. This fact alone is crucial to the maintenance of an educational steady state. Lane, Corwin and Monahan (1967) suggest that because man is basically rational, his activities in an organizational setting are guided, in large part, by non-economic motives. Thus, people behave in an organization as notivated by their sentiments. In fact, the intent of organizational bureaucracy ought to be frequently modified by the personal qualities of those within it. Since rational man will circumvent a chain of command in cases of emergency, allowances for this to occur must be recognized.

Flexibility becomes severely restricted in most organizations due to the high formality of internal social relationships. Silverman (1970) notes that there is often a clearly defined hierarchy where office holders have very specific functions and apply universalistic rules in a spirit of formalistic impersonality. To the extent that flexibility does exist in an organization, it is limited to recognition being extended to existing informal relationships and making allowances for this to occur.

According to Etzioni (1961), individuals can be involved in a multitude of ways in an organization. Types of involvement reflect different forms of compliance with power exercised by a superordinate person or group. This has implications for equality. In a democratic organization, power and concomitant responsibility should be shared equally between all participants in specific areas. Whyte (1959) suggests that organizations can actually be analysed in terms of interactions. This seems to suggest that interpersonal contacts, activities or tasks at work, and sentiments formed between individuals are critical to organizational welfare. Therefore, the concept of equality - especially in schools - cannot be taken lightly!

Some years ago, Dewey (1938) recognized that education is a process of living. He concluded that learning must eventually involve interaction between learner and environment, and that the effectiveness of this interaction was dependent on the frequency, variety, and intensity of such interaction. Involvement was looked on then, as it is today, as being essential for effective learning. More recently, Cook and Morgan (1971) argue that involvement in a democratic organization implies participation in Decision making. Involvement in this sense could be a process that might alter the very psychology of all participants. Surely, the implications here are pertinent to the operation of schools, especially to educational leadership.

Examined at the organizational level, the components of respect, freedom, rationality, flexibility, equality, and involvement evolve from deeper assumptive bases. Those assumptions particularly relevant to education are presented in light of the foregoing compendium of related literature.

1. Respect for individuals is a necessary combatant of conflict.

2. Freedom can exist within the context of conformity.

3. Rationality accounts for a large part of individual behaviour.

4. Flexibility incorporates a recognition of existing informal relationships.

5. Equality implies sharing of power and responsibility by all participants in selected areas.

6. Involvement implies participation in decision-making, both directly and indirectly.

Within the discipline of psychology, there exist four broadly defined approaches to studying human development: humanistic, behaviouristic, cognitive-developmental, and psychodynamic. Each of these branches has implications for the six components being examined in this paper.

Respect, at this level, implies an acknowledgment that individuals need to find new ways of acting, relating, and dealing with their environments (Leonard, 1968). Respect means that ways must be developed to help people learn to love, feel deeply, expand their inner selves, create, and enter new realms of being. Thus respect seems to connote a belief that people basically have a positive direction to life. Consequently, there must be faith in the human potential.

"Activities incited by desires, impulses, wants - motives - sometimes result in the attainment of the end sought and satisfaction of the tension" (Barnard, 1960, p. 19). Freedom for individuals must take this fact into consideration. Of importance here is the fact that freedom implies a restricted but important capacity of choice within an organization. Those restrictions or limitations necessary to and within which choice must be exercised include experience, along with those physical, biological, and social factors ever-present in a given situation. Given this emphasis on organizational freedom, one may conclude that learning occurs best in a natural environment, that is, the informal, unarranged learning experiences common to all. In fact, a dynamic aspect of personality stems from a belief in fluid, incessant interplay among personality components within the individual and between these components and that person's environment.

Downey (1965) infers that since man is rational, he is capable of categorizing knowledge. In this sense, learning is deemed to be an active process of inquiry. Therefore, the content of any curriculum (or school experience) should not assume reality until it becomes a substantive aspect of inquiry engaged in by a learner. Moreover, conscious rationality, intent, and decision-making characterize human behaviour more than does the irrationality of uncontrollable, unconscious impulses. Barnard (1960) has suggested that rationality within an organization reflects a natural desire of individuals to cooperate. Hence, satisfaction gained from such experience is a psychological fact for all rational individuals.

No environment can strongly affect a person unless it is an interactive experience (Leonard, 1968). To be interactive, an environment must be responsive, that is, it must provide relevant feedback to the learner. Within these constraints, the human organism must be incredibly flexible. Thus, flexibility implies an awareness that human tendency toward any action - character, personality, motivation - is shaped in large measure by environmental interactions. Seemingly, human capabilities will be most affected in environments that allow for breaking free of all doctrines and schools of thought - flexible environments.

It is a psychological fact that human nature requires equality of space and effort in an organizational setting. An important consideration here is whether or not

equality of opportunity infers equal opportunity to acquire knowledge. In a democratic organizational setting, the answer here must be in the affirmative. If this be the case, serious implications arise for schools.

In all human. interactions, the environment becomes an important unit of analysis with involvement being a psychologically desirable phenomenon. Though the environment teaches, shapes and aids individuals, at the same time it tends to limit involvement. [Here the reader is referred back to an earlier statement in this paper on organizaional freedom.] Therefore, "education is a process of change through involvement or interaction with the environment" (Leonard, 1968, p. 72). Involvement implies action which is an operational aspect of inquiry. Psychologically, inquiry is what an inquiring mind does!

At this level of analysis, the components of respect, freedom, rationality, flexibility, equality and involvement imply further assumptions. Those assumptions, impinging directly on educational experience, are presented in light of the foregoing compendium of related literature.

1. Respect for an individual implies faith in human potential.

2. Freedom implies a restricted but important capacity of choice.

3. Rationality implies a natural desire of individuals to cooperate.

4. Flexibility implies an ongoing change in human behaviour due to environmental interaction.

5. Equality includes a feeling of personal involvement regardless of status.

6. Involvement implies participant action which is an operational aspect of inquiry.

The six components that have been examined at three different levels of analysis represent distinguishing features of an ideal senior high school governance structure. It is valuable at this time to consider the operational implications of these components in juxtaposition with their underlying assumptions. Martindale (1959) suggests that an ideal type carries with it two important considerations. These are that its components be logically consistent and causally adequate. The criterion of objective possibility applied to an ideal type requires that it be empirically possible in the sense that it should not contradict any of the known laws of nature. With regard to the second criterion, items within the ideal type should be adequate in terms of the causal laws of science. For these reasons, it is important that one now address the question of how to bring to realization such a governance structure in the light of these underlying assumptions.

Within the social setting of the senior high school, greater emphasis on the worth of an individual (i.e. respect) could have a salutary effect on the overall administration of that organization. Students, teachers and administrators want to be respected for what they are. Acknowledgment of students in particular, as worthwhile contributors to educational decisions, could reduce conflict in whatever form within the school. As a microcosm of society, schools can do much to instill in students a fundamental understanding of respect - respect for others and the

opinions of others. Without this attribute being demonstrated, or in some way experienced by students, democracy becomes a myth!

Any senior high school depends upon interactions between its members for successful achievement of school goals. Of necessity, rules and regulations are created to maintain the boundaries of this entity. Freedom to participate in determination of these rules and regulations is crucial to the work ability of any democratic organization. Students, as one of the concerned publics, should be given freedom to communicate their input to all relevant educational decision-making. It is recognized that freedom connotes conformity - we cannot do our own thing! Yet, within the limits of rationality, individuals should have freedom to 'communicate openly with one another. It seems imperative, then, that an ideal governance structure will attempt to minimize the traditional 'edict from on high' rule format. Through freedom to participate in educational decision-making, students might be able to expand their influence in the school - an important facet of a student participatory governance structure. After all, isn't it a fact that freedom to interact fully with one's environment is an important tenet of our democratic society?

Rational man abides by rules and regulations if they are meaningful and apropos to the situation at hand. Schools are not immune to this phenomenon. Here it is important that rules emanating from a governance procedure be jointly determined so that all concerned parties can appreciate the significance of decisions arrived at. To question is human! Thus, questioning should be accepted as a sign of internal health and well-being. A greater danger arises when silence creeps in, and irrationality via withdrawal becomes an established fact.

The school must recognize that a variety of competing demands and pressures are placed on all in-school members, especially students. Implications of the knowledge explosion and understanding of critical views should be a consideration in the daily operation of schools. Hence, increased specialization and compartmentalization of decision-making must be balanced in a rational school environment, with opportunity provided for student reaction to critical issues. Therefore, it is logically imperative that rationality be ever present in an ideal governance structure.

As a social organization, the school experiences ongoing interaction with its surrounding environment. This systemic exchange has implications for both people and programs within the school. By being flexible, a school can easily adapt to change/innovation internal and external to daily routine. Relative to the governance structure, flexibility is crucial to the successful management of any school. Here, both formal and informal groups must be recognized for the contributions they can offer to the decision-making process. Through being flexible, a school governance structure can rectify the perplexing dilemma of conflicting self-interests - that is, reacting quickly to pressing problems so as to channel individual interests in constructive directions.

Egalitarianism possesses important implications for the high school. In this setting coexist three unique groups of individuals: administrators, teachers, and students. There are natural and well-accepted differences between these groups - differences accruing from age, training, experience, and status. Traditionally, these distinctions have resulted in distinct roles being assigned to each group. Out of these roles has emerged, all too often, an imbalance in influence and power related

to educational decision-making. Wherever vertical echelons of power and authority exist, the concept of equality has been degraded, or otherwise relegated to the lowest consideration possible. An ideal high school governance structure must offer equal decision-making opportunity and concomitant responsibility to all in school members, especially students. A realization of this egalitarian environment necessitates modification of the learning environment through alleviation of etiological factors tending to prohibit student input.

An ideal senior high school governance structure must allow for participant involvement, in a variety of educational endeavours. So crucial is this component to the work ability of this structure, that it alone becomes the prioritized descriptor. Involvement is central to the concept of participatory democracy, the operative medium of this present in operative overtone, since all students should be involved directly or indirectly in the decision-making process. Perhaps in this setting power can truly be defined as a synergistic function wherein overall growth is possible. Through shared decision making, an opportunity can be provided for student involvement in school governance. Such a structure could be classed as eurythmic in the sense that provision will have been made for a harmoniously ordered or proportional decision-making environment to exist.

In conclusion, what can be said about the feasibility of the aforementioned components in a high school governance structure? Together, these elements seem to be causally adequate within a clearly defined parameter. The school must abide by societal rules and regulations. Therefore, those individuals within the school must also govern their interactions by these societal constraints. Hence, all six components must be carefully defined and operationalized in this context. An ideal governance structure must attempt to maximize these components so as to achieve the most democratic operational environment possible, Respect must, of necessity, supercede all other components. For only through awareness of individual worth or excellence can a school hope to fulfill individual needs. Freedom, too, must be a reality in the sense that all individuals within the school should have an opportunity to communicate their views and opinions.

Given that respect and freedom exist in the context described, it seems logical to make provision for rationality to pervade the daily routine of an ideal governance structure. That is, reason and sound judgement should result in effective decisions being formulated by all parties concerned. Through rationality, rules and regulations should be derived in the best interests of staff and students alike. Moreover, an ideal governance structure must be flexible, able to respond to modifications or adaptation according to the wishes of the majority. However, it should be borne in mind that such a structure must be able to exist over time with a minimum of dismantling and/or alteration. Therefore, it should be flexible in the sense that it be sympathetic to the wishes of individuals without prostituting its basic value principles.

Lastly, equality and involvement must be coexistent in the ideal governance structure. Equal opportunity through shared decision-making must be extended to all in-school members on selected issues. Thus, within the context of educational decision-making, students should be treated as colleagues - a radical departure from the norm! Only in this manner can their input become a contributory asset to the overall management of the school. From this experience, students might learn,

firsthand, the significance of power, influence, authority, and responsibility. Surely this involvement is but a small sacrifice for the much larger reward to be gained.

Can an ideal governance structure, as envisaged in this paper, ever e realized? The answer to this question currently remains unresolved it practice. theoreticaliy, this ideal can be depicted as a goal towards which educators should aim. The next step forward necessitates development of a workable model to serve as a bridge between theory and practice.

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IDENTIFICATION OF MANAGEMENT CONSTRUCTS REQUISITE TO A STUDENT PARTICIPATORY MODEL IN SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL CONTROL

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As a first step in bridging the gulf between a proposed ideal governance structure (theory) and current senior high school administration (reality), any model for realizing increased student participation in high school control must derive from management constructs imbedded in impinging disciplines. Juxtaposed with one another, these constructs posses the cultural, organizational, and psychological justification requisite to development of this model.

An important consideration in the synthesis of such a model must be recognition of the stability inherent in existing senior high school governance structures. To destroy this would be synonymous with worshipping at the altar of change! To this end, such a model is intended to improve the participatory component of the school organization, while simultaneously giving credence to the worth of stability and permanence exhibited in the traditional senior high school control process. Thus, this model should comply with basic organization development goals, which are "to make the organization more effective, more viable, and better able to achieve both the goals of the organization as an entity and the goals of the individuals within the organization" (French and Bell, 1973, p. xiv)

In practice, it is difficult to distinguish between the various elements that constitute the total process of education. The school, in particular, is not merely a physical organization within which the process of education proceeds. Rather, it is a social organization, comprised of the psychological make-up of students, teachers, and administrators interacting in an administratively designed environment of rights and responsibilities. In this setting, the assumptive embellishments surrounding the major constructs of democratic participation, group process, power equalization, decision-making, control, and the individual acquire special significance. The purpose of this paper is to examine these management constructs which will form the actual building blocks in the design of a model to realize student participation in education decision making. (An important initial activity in striving for the ideal governance type alluded to earlier).

Four major themes emerge in North American interpretations of democracy: rule by the people (involvement), freedom, responsibility, and concern for individuals (respect). In this culture, democracy is considered a social mechanism for resolution of the problem of societal decision-making which "permits the largest possible part of the population to influence these decisions ..." (Rejai, 1967, p. 2). Moreover, "democracy is participation - doing things in common with others, and taking your share of the responsibilities involved" (Soltau, 1951, p. 160). Whether considered empirically or ideologically, democracy contains implications for all organizations within its purview, more especially the school. Numerous educators, not the least of which are Horne (1932) and Dewey (1938), have insisted that the democratic school and the democratic society surrounding it have the same ideal, namely reorganization of experience so as to enrich recognized meaning and increase the capacity of individuals to act as the directive guardians of reorganization.

Applied to a senior high school organization, the involvement aspect of democracy, referred to as participatory democracy, is of paramount importance to realizing a student component in high school control. Contained within participatory democracy are the techniques for operationalizing prevalent democratic themes. First, it alludes to the decentralization or dispersion of authoritative decision-making so as to include all in-school members. Second, it implies the direct involvement of students, as amateurs, in the making of educational decisions. Realization of this participatory component in organizations can be accomplished through the phenomenon of representation. Not all individuals can be called upon to make all decisions all of the time. Some type of representativeness must be established. Thus, representative democracy provides guidelines regarding the work ability of participatory democracy in a social organization. Since direct participation is impractical in many settings, a parliamentary system is necessary to achieve constituent views. Important here is the fact that the principles of democracy contain a reciprocal implication for the high school. This is evidenced by the actuality that participatory democratic philosophy provides a justification for student participation in senior high school control, and this involvement, in turn, provides students with additional opportunities for gaining an understanding of democracy. Hence, it is the position of this paper that involvement of students in the control process of senior high school governance, in accordance with democratic principles, is justifiable, and indeed, desired.

The senior high school, as a social organization, exists in the form of a unique social system within the larger surrounding society. Operative within this setting area number of individuals and groups of individuals interacting along clearly defined lines of acceptable social behaviour. Moreover, the control process in this finite environment is intended to govern the interactions of students, teachers, and administrators. Ideally, then, the control process of this institution should reflect the resource input of these existing groups, and utilize this source of potential power to the maximum advantage of the social system as a whole.

Realization of increased student participation in senior high school control entails development of an integrated centralized group structure to function as part of the ongoing control process of this organization. Interacting within this entity will be students, teachers, and administrators. This formal group should function as a miniature social system as evidenced by its requisite structure (the pattern of relationships among its components at any given time), its function (the regulatory recurring day-to-day relationships among its components through time), and its evolution (the continuous evolutionary changes of structure and function through enduring time). (Fisher, 1974) Development of this group structure relies heavily upon the justification of group process stemming from social interaction. Therefore, a proposed model to realize greater student participation in high school control must function on the basis of group process. Activities of students, teachers, and administrators within such a model should result in a type of strategic work group, operative through the medium of cooperative decision-making as a function of group process.

Within the social setting of the senior high school, power equalization has been difficult to achieve. Though professing to delegate power and authority, and to delineate responsibility and jurisdiction to most institutional, members, the school has often neglected the student. Development of a model for student participation in high school control might very well contradict the commonly held assertions that

authority and influence must proceed downward from superiors to subordinates; that such influence is unidirectional and not reciprocal; and that processes of organizational influence are uniformly applicable irrespective of the personalities involved. A proposed structure, of necessity, must draw heavily on research findings surrounding human-resources theory in industrial organizations. Hence, this model must acknowledge the implication of power equalization for influence through joint participation. That is, when a follower has participated in determining what is to be done, he probably will understand the decision and agree that a certain course of action is necessary and proper. Th6 follower thereby exercises some power in the process of having been influenced. (Webber, 1975) Thus, such a model should recognize that power equalization necessitates consideration and representativeness combined with an initiating structure and pressure for performance. To this end, an intended model should furnish a supportive environment of psychological support, warmth, and friendliness, coexistent with a psychological structure inclusive of tasks, procedures, and schedules. In this manner, a systemic approach to power could become a reality!

Like most social phenomena, decision-making is far more complex than it appears, yet it is fundamental to organizational functioning. Culertson, Jacobson, and Reller (1961) point out that in order to initiate the decision-making process, a problem must exist and be recognized. Hence, the model alluded to here must acknowledge that within an organization, such as the senior high school, types of decisions maybe individual ones that are routine, those that represent choices within clearly established policy, and those that are made in the absence of established policy. Developing a role for students in these types of decisions must become an important consideration for all educators seriously considering an ideal governance structure for their schools.

Awareness of those limitations on decision-making often encountered in most social organizations is important to the design of a model for student participation in high school governance. Though participation tends to have a positive effect on morale, attitude, attendance, turnover, acceptance of change, and increasing the likelihood of behavioural change, the kind of participation is most important! Above all, this model must recognize that the process of member participation in organization decision-making should be designed to promote sound educational governance - the kind of governance which can perpetuate the core concepts of democracy as a way of life for all in-school members. Since decision-making will constitute the operative process of such a model, this process "can be thought of as an exchange of power and influence between the leadership and membership of a political group" (Hoen and Housego, 1974, p. 1).

This paper assumes that control is any process in which a person or group of persons determines the behaviour of another person or group of persons. In this sense, control is conceived to be a process whereby organizational members determine or influence how things get done in that organization. Examined in the social environment of the senior high school, the control process should involve students as well as teachers and administrators. Thus, any proposed model should provide an avenue through which this control process might be subjected to input from all three in-school groups, through the phenomenon of shared decision-making. Too, this model must give credence to the concept of control cycles. That the school organization consists of large numbers of these cycles acting together is recognized. However, the express purpose of an intended model must be to enlarge upon the

control concept within the realm of shared management decision making between students, teachers, and administrators. In effect, such a participative model should imply strong connectedness between inschool decision-making groups through structural arrangements, such as overlapping organizational groups, and high total, as opposed to partial, inclusion of members by utilizing more of their capacities and fastening their identification with the organization.

Since this proposed model is intended to provide students an opportunity to participate in the control process of a senior high school, it must be reflective of several characteristics and processes of this organization. It must have structure, observational and measurement processes to collect information, communication processes through which information flows, decision-making processes, influence processes, and action resources to carry out decisions. Control, in the senior high school organization, is seemingly premised on the interrelatedness and interdependency of these foregoing processes. The nature of these processes is determined largely by the organizational theory practised and the kinds of motivational forces harnessed by the school organization. Hence any model must also rely on organizational theory and motivational forces, such as to yield favourable attitudes and a cooperative orientation on the part of all members of the school organization. Hopefully, such a model might realize the following changes in a school governance structure: more two-way communication, more adequate communication, a greater total amount of influence and control, increased increments of influence and control exerted at lower echelons relative to increments exerted at higher echelons, more decentralized decision-making, and more uniformity in perceptions of organizational structure and process. (Treslan, 1977, pp. 224, 225)

Much of the conflict observed in social organizations, especially, the school, could result from inability, either intuitively or by other processes, to reconcile conceptions of the organization as a whole and the personal positions of individuals within that concrete organizational situation. Any proposed model must be premised on Downey's (1965) argument that every student is a unique individual, every student is inherently purposive. This fact, that each student is unique both in his potentiality and his purpose, places certain demands on the high school organization in general, and on any one model to encourage greater student participation in decision making in particular.

The design, of this proposed model must allow a student, either directly or indirectly, to pursue the basic human goal of fulfilment, brought about by means of selfactualization or self-realization through participation in senior high school control. In this manner, this innovation will be appropriate to a modern concept of education emphasizing the person, his potentialities and their actualization, and his finding meaning in life. The student, as a unique individual, is regarded as a creative unity, a purposive, growing being that is inherently restless and anxious, desiring both security and freedom. Student participation in senior high school control decision-making will give credence to this fact, and may contribute to the development of the self whereby "a portion of the individual's experience becomes differentiated and symbolized in an awareness of being, awareness of functioning" (Maddi, 1971, p. 196).

In focusing upon the decision making role of students in senior high school control, an attempt will have been made to prepare the student for responsible

citizenship in a democratic society. Within the proposed model, provision should be made for interaction between students, teachers, and administrators, with an emphasis on the fourth "R" (relationships and responsibility). To achieve these humanistic ideals effectively, this innovation must utilize the coplanning level of involvement as an operative catalyst. In so doing, an attempt can be made to meet the challenge that schools need to be more human in the way the individual student is handled in the educational process. Through trust rather than distrust of students, their participation and representation can be encouraged as a means for replacing student exclusion with involvement. The advantages of this mode of operation are that nobody loses; everyone is involved in resolving the conflict; hence, motivation to follow through is strong. Students' self-concepts are enhanced. Their ability to think, reason, and cope are improved; therefore, the solution to the problem tackled is likely to be of high quality because everyone participates. Thus, as depicted in Figure 1, communication is two-way, with each concerned party talking and listening.

Having examined the constructs of democratic participation, group process, power equalization, decision-making, control, and the individual, an attempt has been made to tie together the components of an ideal governance type with those management considerations crucial to the governance of any senior high school. Confronting one now is the construction of a two-dimensional graphic-schematic model designed to function within the control framework of a traditional senior high school. Such a model (representing a bridge between theory and practice) must satisfy two important criteria. First, it must be reflective of student, teacher, and administrator perceptions of shared involvement in high school control decision-making. Second, the management constructs (inclusive of components characteristic of an ideal governance type) should constitute the endogenous variables in a conceptual framework surrounding the proposed model.

(INSERT Figure I)

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EDITORS' NOTE

In a recent survey of teachers regarding their perceptions and experiences of teaching in Newfoundland (see Singh and Baksh, **The Morning Watch**, Vol. 5, Nos. 1-2, 1977, pp. 1-9), difficulty regarding communication with the community and the home was often mentioned as a problem faced by teachers. The following article by Dr. Buffett addresses itself to this problem and, despite the limitations of space, makes a number of highly worthwhile points.

THE RESPONSIBILITY OF THE PRINCIPAL IN SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

Dr. Fred Buffett
Department of Educational Administration

Introduction

In the past two decades the volume of literature appearing on the issue of school-community relations has been very prodigious. This fact has been all the more encouraging when one considers that it was just over fifty years ago, the 1920's, when the first formal approaches to this concept were made. However, it would appear from the research available that much remains to be done in the realm of establishing good relations and communications between the school and the community.

It is the intent of this short article to explore some of the relevant issues to be considered if one embarks on a course of providing a program to improve and maintain good school-community relations. Also, I shall attempt to show that this is a leadership responsibility that must be accepted by the principal. First of all, then, let's look at some issues underlying school-community relations.

Definition of School-Community Relations

The school-community relations movement of today has grown out of the public relations concept of past decades. Basically, the change has occurred because the former title was characterized by a one way process that was used in some instances for manipulative purposes.

One of the more recent and comprehensive definitions, offered by Kindred,' suggests that school-community relations is a process of communication between the school and the community. The purpose of this communication is to increase citizen understanding of educational needs and practices and encouraging intelligent citizen interest and cooperation in the work of improving the school and thereby the educational opportunities for the children.

Need for School-Community Relations

In attempting to justify the need for good school community relations it would appear to this writer that the development of sound and constructive relationships between the school and the community is a necessary and natural task of a publicly supported institution in a democratic society.

Since the schools are publicly supported it is only reasonable to assume that the shareholders in education, the tax-paying citizens, expect to be kept informed as to the welfare of their investment. Moreover, because of the public character of the school, the legal framework in which it operates, and the role of public opinion in the shaping of educational policies, it would seem that the public has a legal and moral right to be informed.

Furthermore, in addition to the legal and moral obligations, there are practical considerations as well. First, since many schools are removed from the communities they serve it is increasingly more difficult for the public to get information about the school in the absence of a school-community relations program. Secondly, because of the cooperative nature of the enterprise where the goal of the school and the community is usually identical, namely, the securing of the best possible education for the child, it makes practical sense to work together to achieve this common goal.

Community Understanding

At first glance one might consider that a given school has a homogeneous clientele or public. However, closer examination will reveal that it is much more complex than this. There are at least two ways to look at the public. First, one can break the public into three categories made up of those who are favourable toward education and who lend support to the objectives of the school. Then there are those who hold unfavourable attitudes toward the school. Finally, there are those who are neutral toward the school, who are indifferent, or who are truly apathetic.

A second way of looking at the public is, as some writers such as Buffett contend, that there is not just one public but more accurately several "publics." Those publics have been identified as follows:

1. School Staff. Included in this is both the instructional as well as the noninstructional staff such as teachers, clerical workers, custodians, etc. This is a relatively small group with many interpersonal contacts with pupils, parents, and other adults.

2. Pupils. These comprise a very large group who are directly involved with education. They are in constant contact with teachers, parents, and neighbours

3. Parents. These also comprise a very large group who are very interested in education. The group may include social leaders also. This group communicates through person to person and person to group channels.

4. Employers. There is a relatively small but highly influential group Which may include high status leaders. Many employers have close working relationships with mass media and various organizations.

5. Elderly Tax-Payers with no Children in School. This is a large group which includes highly prestigious persons. It includes persons with influential positions in organizations, some of which have close contact with the mass media.

6. Communications. This includes media workers. It is a relatively small group but extremely influential since they are responsible for the interpretation of events and issues.

7. Special Interest Groups. These are relatively large and influential groups. They consist of the PTA, the Chamber of Commerce, and various ethnic groups. These groups may be highly organized at the local, provincial, or even federal level and are in constant communication with other groups.

8. Activities Fans. This includes fans in such activities as sports, dramatics, crafts, music, charities, scholarship programs, etc., all of which form an active part of any educational program.

9. Government Officials. This group includes MHA's, MP's, and councillors. It is a relatively small group but one which is extremely influential. It is in constant communication with educational officials, and the general public, including highly prestigious organizations.

10. Transient Group. This is a temporary combination of people to deal with specific matters. This group may be highly influential.

11. The School Board. This is a relatively small group but one which is extremely influential in education and private business. It may carry considerable influence with government at all levels."

The relevance of this type of information becomes clear when one attempts to determine what it is that citizens need to know about the school. For example, the different educational levels of parents, position in the power structure, jobs, etc., may very well reveal differences in the type of information desired. Moreover, it will probably necessitate giving some consideration to various aspects of the medium used in communicating.

Principal as Leader

Ideally, it is the superintendent who is responsible for the development and administration of all aspects of communication with the public. He is responsible for leading the board in the development of a reasonable school-community relations policy and for identifying matters on which communication efforts should be focused. Furthermore, he is responsible for encouraging principals, teachers, and the public to play their roles in the endless task of maintaining good relations and communications with the public.

However, since the superintendents generally may not see that as being high on their list of priorities, it might be advisable to look to the next level in the administrative hierarchy namely, the building principal. As a matter of fact, writers like Kindred" and Moehlman[5] regard the principal as the driving force behind the implementation of a wellplanned and co-ordinated program of school community relations. In turn, the principal will have to involve all his staff, both the professional as well as the non-professional. All have a role to play. The following paragraph illustrates this point very well:

> Xsxally this typewriter works fine bxt sometimes one key dxms xp the works. Yox can xnderstand how all of them are needed to do a good job. Oxr pxblic relations program is like this typewriter. Each of yox is an important key regardless of yoxr role ... whether it is as a member, a facxlty representative, committee chairman, or officer. Shoxld yox ever feel that what yox do doesn't coxnt becaxse yox're only one person, remember this gxmmy key. Yoxr person-to-person contacts with other teachers, stxdents, commxnity leaders, and others can do mxch to make.-or break ...oxr school's repxtation.

The second prerequisite that must be considered is the community contacts that the principal can look to for support since those individuals will also be instrumental in the actual implementation of a school-community relations program. These key community leaders can serve the dual function of taking the school's message to the public and informing the school of the community opinion and sentiments.

The Teacher's Job

While the principal has the responsibility for giving the leadership, McClosky contends that the teacher holds a vital position in the school community relations program since she communicates impressions to pupils and these are in turn passed on to parents, neighbours, and groups in the community. McClosky[7] illustrates this point with the aid of a diagram (see Figure 1).

Moehlman and Van Zwolle also state that the teacher is the most important link in the school community relations program because of closer and more constant contact with the pupils. In fact, Kindred[9] points out that the teacher is the frontline interpreter of the school system through her daily contacts with members of the general public, especially the students, and suggests the following communication responsibilities:

> To cooperate in the development of the individual school program;
>
> To acquire a thorough knowledge of the school system and be able to discuss it intelligently with others;
>
> To do as good a job teaching as possible;
>
> To work constantly for good relations with pupils, parents, and people in the community; To accept and carry out special assignments in the program;

(Insert Figure 1)

To supply information requested by other agents and agencies in the program;

To keep his own disagreements with colleagues and prevailing practices strictly within the system;

To take an active interest in community life; and

To become a student of attitudes and opinions regarding public education.

In addition to the teacher, the non-instructional staff of the school such as janitors and secretaries have a function in the school-community relations program. For example, the secretary is usually the first person to greet visitors upon their arrival at the school since principals have teaching and other duties which take them out of the office. Also, through the use of the teleph6ne, the secretary may be the only point of contact between the school and the community for a lot of people. However, it is of paramount importance that pleasantness, courtesy, and helpfulness be exercised.

Organization

In order to carry ow the type of school-community relations program that will involve all the various personnel it will be necessary to organize it along decentralized lines such as suggested in the accompanying flow-chart by Kindred[10] (see Figure 2).

It might be advisable to mention that in addition to the utilization of the professional and nonprofessional staff, the students and parents are involved in a highly visible capacity as part of an overall planning committee.

Communications Media

Having made the decision to involve all the personnel of the school along decentralized lines, the next issue to be decided is the means of communications. No doubt it will not be sufficient to use just a single medium for transmitting your information and the choice of those used will be related to what is to be transmitted at any given time, along with other considerations.

There are many ways to categorize and organize the various media which one can use and no doubt different writers do it differently. However, I would like to group them for convenience under four headings as follows: person-to-person; the mass media; school publications; and special events.

Person-to-person communications is probably the most valuable of all and can be achieved by the staff, the pupils, parents, the Local School Committee, informal community leaders, and the different community organizations. Secondly, there are the mass media; namely, the radio, newspapers, and television. Thirdly, there are the school publications, including teacher, student and parent handbooks and manuals, news bulletins, annual reports, and finally student publications such as

(INSERT Figure 2)

A decentralized plan of organization for public relations in an individual school

newspapers, yearbooks, and so on. Fourthly, there are the special school events such as Open House, Parent-Teacher Meetings, orientation programs for new pupils, school concerts, and programmes, Education Week activities, Field Trips, Athletic events such as Sports Days, and School exhibits, just to mention some of the more widely used practices.

Conclusion

In conclusion, I would like to summarize very briefly. I have attempted to look at some of the central issues surrounding the study of school-community relations. To do that I have attempted to illustrate what it is; why we need it; who is responsible for it; and finally, how one can go about providing a school community relations program.

FOOTNOTES

1. Leslie W. Kindred, et. al. **The School and Community Relations**. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1976, p. 7.

2. Fred Buffett, editor. **Developing A School-Community Communications Program**. St. John's, Newfoundland: Publications Committee, Faculty of Education, M.U.N., 1975, pp. 5-6.

3. Gordon McCloskey. **Education and Public Understanding**. New York: Harper and Row, 1959, p. 267.

4. **Ibid.**, pp. 408-409.

5. Arthur Moehlman, et. al. **School Public Relations**. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1957, p. 275.

6. Doyle M. Bortner. **Public Relations for Teachers**. New York: Simmons-Boardman Publishing Co., 1959, p. 108.

7. **Ibid.**, p. 317.

8. **Ibid.**, p. 278.

9. **Ibid.**, p. 409.

10. Leslie W. Kindred. **School Public Relations**. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1957, p. 13.

11. Buffett, **op. cit**., pp. 5-6.

ARE EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS THE DINOSAURS OF EDUCATION?

Art Ponder
Educational Adminstration

One of the questions facing educational administrators in Newfoundland is "Are we a vanishing breed?" Are we to suffer the same fate as Tyrannosaurus Rex, glassblowers, the Newfie Bullet and the passenger pigeon because of the changing educational environment and our failure to adapt? Unless some substantial transformations are made in both administrator preparation and function, the future appears, at best, bleak and, at worst, non-existent. The time for some sober reflection is at hand.

A number of forces, both within and without the "profession", have conspired to bring this about. First, education is not data-based; it is trendy. Educational administration experienced its halcyon days during the sixties. But its popularity has long since passed and been replaced by a succession of new "fashions" such as counselling, special education, curriculum development, and values education.[1] Thus, the ancient stars of educational administration, such as Getzels, Likert and Warren, have been replaced by newer names in the areas of current vogue.

Secondly, educational administration is not based in theory. Although this is a problem confronting much of education, it is particularly evident in our field. At least educational philosophy and psychology can be said to be vested, however loosely, in some sort of theoretical constructs. Educational administration would be hard pressed to make such a claim. As a consequence, we have been forced to borrow selectively from sociology and psychology, chosen administrative prescription from the Bible and the Farmers' Almanac and, in the extreme, sought administrative prediction from the ouja board and chicken entrails. In short, the development of administrative thought has remained somewhat stunted and inbred, as attested to by the fact that practically all educational administration texts are the same or, at least, refer to the same basic group of authors. True, this is brought about, in part, by the necessity for awaiting developments in other disciplines which have "utility" for administration. Unfortunately, these are not necessarily forthcoming. Thus, subsequent generations of writers in educational administration have tended to restate administrative shibboleths of another era. Similarly, the "state" of administrative thought can be characterized by the controversy which has "raged" for several years over empiricism versus phenomenology, a debate which hardly seems worth the effort, and has produced much heat but little light.

What evidence is there to suggest that administrators benefit from administrative training, i.e., that their organizations become any more effective? Or perhaps even more to the point, does their administrative behaviour have any real effect on the teaching-learning process, one way or the other?

Stryde (1975) summarizes:

> The conclusion of a number of studies of the relationship between administrative-preparation programs and on-the-job effectiveness has been that programs either had a negligible or negative effect upon the administrator student. Wiles (1974) summarizes the conclusions of

> some studies which indicate that when administrators were rated by superiors or subordinates on the job, it was found that education was unrelated to perceived effectiveness in number of years spent in college, number of years in graduate study, or the number of hours in graduate education courses. More disturbing was the finding of a negative relationship between total number of courses in educational administration and perceived effectiveness, and the finding that schools administered by persons with less extensive formal preparation made greater efforts to vary curriculum, materials, methods, and time spent on subjects according to the needs of students being served.
>
> (Stryde, 1975:4)

Fiedler and Chemers (1974) reluctantly reached similar conclusions.

Studies carried out in Newfoundland have produced equally dismal results. Penney (1978), in a study of teacher participation in educational decision-making, a management strategy designed to increase organizational effectiveness, found the extent to which teachers participated, compared with the degree to which they wished to participate, unrelated to either their productivity or job satisfaction. Ryan (1970) looked at management style of principals and similar outcome measures. Once again, he found no relationship between the perceived behaviour of principals and any of the dependent variables.

To conclude, the evidence supporting graduate training in administration is less than convincing. Furthermore, the management style of school administrators appears to have little influence on the effectiveness of the teaching learning process within the school.

However, it may not be a case of "What is" but "What appears to be" which is the paramount issue. That is, if administrators are perceived by school. systems as possessing useable skills and fulfilling a meaninqful function, then they will continue to be in demand. Recent reorganization in education, resulting from the Task Force Report, suggest that this may no longer be the case. The current emphasis on curriculum reorganization and development raises a number of issues for practising and aspiring school administrators. First, what is the future role(s) of school administrators likely to be? Secondly, what sorts of skills will administrators need in order to fulfill these roles?

Given current trends, and in order to ensure survival, a role for the principal in curriculum planning and development appears attractive. Stryde (1980) has performed an indepth analysis of the potential role of the principal in this. He divides the tasks into five categories:

1. Identification of aims and goals

2. Selection of objectives specific to overall goals

3. Selection of content and learning experiences

4. Implementation of curriculum plans for a particular group of learners

5. Evaluation of plans and outcomes in terms of successful achievement of the original goals (Stryde, 1980:5)

While, as an administrator, one cannot but applaud his case for a role for the principal, it appears to this writer that the case is not a particularly strong one. Perhaps an example or two will serve to illustrate. With respect to the selection of goals and aims, he advances:

> In a task of influencing and defining goals, these school principals are not likely to play any more of a role than any other interested party. The major role of the principal should be, to be aware of them and attempt to keep them before the staff so that the more specific objectives which are identified are in harmony with them. (Stryde, 1980:6)

On the introduction of content and learning experiences, he observes:

> Here again, the professional judgment of the teacher is crucial ... The principal's role here should be one of encouraging and facilitating teacher initiative and, with providing information regarding new materials and strategies. (Stryde, 1980:6)

Finally,

> In summary, the principal's role should consist of coordinating and facilitating the achievement of the curriculum tasks by: defining what needs to be done, assigning responsibilities, establishing communication lines, and initiating control procedures. Overall his major responsibilities must be to motivate and facilitate the involvement in the whole process of those who are capable and knowledgeable about the specifics of curriculum planning and development. (Stryde, 1980:8)

It must be obvious that, as Stryde defines it, the principal's role consists of a number of rather ambiguous tasks, such as keeping them aware, encouraging and facilitating, providing information, co-ordinating and initiating. Despite the difficulty of defining what these tasks might look like, the additional question of whether the principal is the best person to perform these tasks, needs to be asked. Curriculum planning and development is a complex and technical undertaking. Do administrators, trained solely in adminstration, posses the necessary skills and knowledge? As Fiedler and Chemers (1974) suggest:

> A man must be a surgeon before he can head a surgical team; he must be pilot before he can be the captain of an airliner. (Fiedler and Chemers, 1974: 122)

This is not to suggest that all administrators are lacking in curriculum knowledge; quite the contrary. At the same time, it should be recognized that many school administrators practising in Newfoundland have never taken a graduate course in a field other than administration.[2] Given the increases in teacher qualifications and a resulting professional growth, many teachers are as well qualified as, or better qualified than, the principals with whom they work. The point is

that the case for the principal as instructional leader, or even manager, must be brought into question.

Similarly, what optimum balance between training in supervision and the technical training in curriculum planning and development is necessary to direct such a team? Does it favour administrative or technical knowledge? Education, like many other fields, is becoming increasingly specialized. It is no longer enough to be a renderer's apprentice; now one must be a porkfat reinderer's apprentice. Thus to be an administrator, yes, but of what? It is obvious that some schools of administration have recognized the problems and taken steps to remedy them. For example, the Department of Educational Administration at University of British Columbia has added a curriculum specialist and increased its offerings in program supervision.

Before such action is taken in Newfoundland, several things need to be done. On the one hand, practising administrators need to rethink their possible roles in light of current developments in education. On the other, some effort will need to be made to provide the skills, both technical and administrative, necessary to fulfill these roles. Obviously, curriculum planning and development, the example utilized here, is only one possibility. There appear to be others.

Luckily, there are forces at work which may buy a little time. Educational administration graduates have tended to hire their own. The cadre is sizeable compared to other groups and its membership occupies positions of power both within the government, school systems and the Newfoundland Teachers Association. Further, it appears unlikely that many would admit the inappropriateness of their training for the tasks at hand. At the same time, it remains an open question as to how long education will continue to pay sizeable salaries for what is essentially a managerial function.

It appears important to act now. First, we should rethink what our roles should be and will be. Secondly, we must provide training, both technical and administrative, appropriate for the tasks. Unless we adapt, like the creatures of the Mesozoic Age, we will vanish quietly from the scene.

NOTES

1. This is by no means an exhaustive list of educational "fads" nor is it necessarily arranged in chronological order.

2. Of the total of 162 graduates in administration from the Department of Educational Administration at Memorial University between the Fall of 1973 and the Fall of 1979, only 76 had taken courses outside the department. Further, only 30 of these 76 had more than 2 courses in any area and of the 68 who had done courses in curriculum, only 24 had more than 2 courses.

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